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COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

SUPERVISORS UNDERSTANDING AND PRACTICE OF THEIRINSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES AND THEIR KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION IN SUPERVISING TEACHERS

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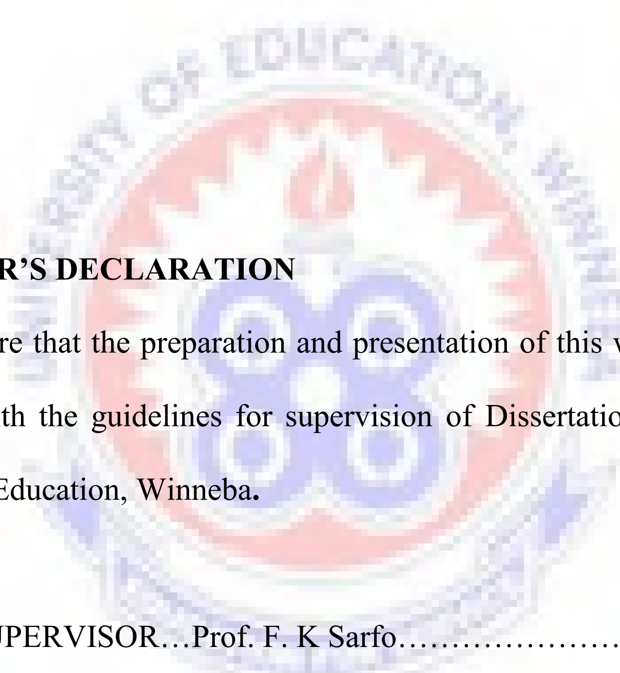
DECLARATION

I, Benjamin Cudjoe, declare that this Dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have 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.

Name of Student: Benjamin Cudjoe

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 Dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

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SIGNATURE…………………………………………….……..…

DATE………………………………………………………...…

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents Mr. Francis Cudjoe(deceased) and Madam AkosuaNyankyia. Special dedication goes to my wife, Mrs. Christiana Cudjoe for her moral support and encouragement; and all my children – Justice, Josephine, Edward, Prince YamoahCudjoe and the blessed twins Persis and Percy SefahYamoah-Cudjoe for their support and prayers.

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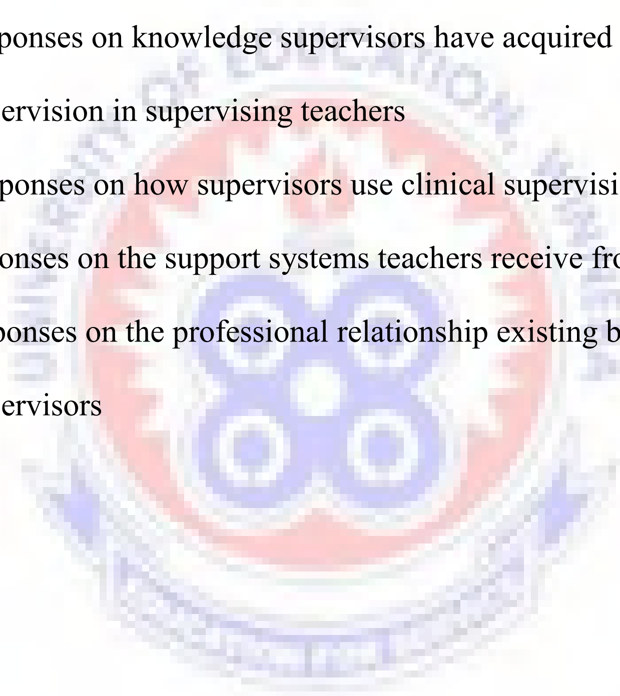

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ABSTRACT

The study was designed to find out how basic school supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders and their knowledge and use of clinical supervision in supervising teachers. The design was a descriptive survey and data was collected using quantitative and qualitative methods. The sample comprised126 participants and 111 of them comprising 83 teachers, 22 headteachers and 5 circuit supervisors and 1 head of inspectorate returned their questionnaires. A five-point likert scale with 38 questionnaire items was used to collect quantitative data while a semi-structured interview was used to collect qualitative data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used as the statistical tools for analyzing quantitative data while a content analysis was used for the qualitative data.Findings indicate that most basic school supervisors who participated in the study understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders. On clinical supervision the study revealed that although basic school supervisors surveyed had knowledge about clinical supervision they were unable to use it properly in supervising teachers. The study further revealed that majority of teachers received support from their supervisors. Additionally supervisors and teachers had open and trusted professional relationships. Based on the findings and discussions the study recommended among other things that basic school supervisors must be trained in contemporary supervisory practices such as instructional leadership and clinical supervision so that they can improve supervision in basic schools. Heads of basic schools must also be fully detached to make them more effective while the size of circuits should also be reduced so that circuit supervisors can effectively monitor instructional delivery and support individual teachers. The study also suggests the need to conduct further research to find out the challenges facing basic school supervisors in the use of clinical supervision.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Human Performance Technology (HPT) as a field of practice has evolved largely due to the experience, reflection, and conceptualization of professional practitioners who strive to improve human performance in organizations and workplace (Stolovitch& Keeps, 1999). Over the years HPT has served as an effective tool for transforming businesses and organisationssuch as educational institutions from those that perform at very minimal levels of output to those that perform at higher output levels. This has contributed to the relative success the field has enjoyed over the last three and a half decades (Brethower, 1995) and in view of this human performance technology practitioners remain a preferred choice by organizations and institutions, both public and private, for human performance improvement programmes.

As a field with systemic and instructional systems design orientations human HPT is applicable to all systems and establishments in which improved performance is sought (Dean & Ripley, 1997). According to Addison and Haig (2009) HPT is both systemic and scientific. It follows scientific principles in its approaches and this has contributed greatly to its success. In the words of Brethower (1995) practitioners in HPT fundamentally do two things: they work with others to build instructional systems which help people learn how to perform well, and to build performance systems which help people perform well once they do know how.

Interestingly the field of HPT does not restrict itself to only classroom training as a preferred means of trying to solve performance problems in organisations. It also uses a variety of performance-based approaches such as systems approach (Banathy,

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1996), motivational systems design (Keller, 1992), organisational design (Dean, 1994), feedback systems (Stolovich&Keeps, 1999), organisational and process analysis (Rummler&Brache, 1995) etc to assist organisations and establishments in their performance improvement activities. One of such establishments in Ghana is the Ghana Education Service (GES) which is a statutory body operating under the Ministry of Education (MOE) and is responsible for pre-tertiary educational delivery in Ghana. The GES has a variety of professionals performing different roles and functions including teaching and learning, where teachers are seen as the principal actors and are therefore trained to perform such duties well.

1.1.1Human Performance Technology and Education

In the quest to improve educational delivery for children, several approaches or strategies are employed by governments through their assigned agencies and personnel. In the case of education the relevance of HPT is even more significant due to the use of both instructional and non-instructional interventions in solving performance problems. The use of such techniques like organisation analysis, process analysis and job/performer analysis (Rummler&Brache, 1995); feedback and motivational systems as well as organisational development strategies (Stolovich& Keeps, 1999) make HPT an ideal choice for performance improvement in education delivery. With roots in instructional systems design, general systems theory and behavioural psychology (Stolovich&Keeps, 1999) HPT is applicable to education and other training organisations which use instruction in performance delivery. Thus, in trying to understand the performance problems of supervisors in the Ghana education Service, it is important, as a researcher to employ such time -tested human performance technology strategies like systems approach, job analysis and process

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analysis to help identify the gaps that exist in supervision and try to recommend appropriate solutions.

1.1.2 Human Performance Technology and Supervision

In discussing their model of Performance technology landscape, Addison and Haig (2009) observed that supervising people to improve their performance means adding value to the performer and the client organisation. They identified partnership as a critical element on the performance technology landscape which could also be employed as a supervisory tool to help improve organisational and personnel performance. Embedded in supervision are such elements like feedback, establishing relationships and performance/job analysis to identify performance gaps. Similarly, human performance technology practitioners use some of the strategies described above in trying to solve performance problems in organisations. This means that there is a close relationship between supervision and human performance technology.

In the school system, supervision is regarded as an important element in the teaching profession (Sergiovanni&Starratt, 2002) with a high potential of improving the performance of teachers. Many researchers believe that supervision of instruction has the potential to improve classroom practices, and contribute to student success through the professional growth and improvement of teachers (Musaazi, 1985; Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Sullivan &Glanz, 1999;Sergiovanni&Starratt, 2002). Robert (1986) defined supervision as all efforts of a designated school official toward providing leadership to the teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction. It involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, a selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, method of teaching and evaluation of instruction.

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1.1.3 The concept of supervision

Plunket (1989) describes supervision as a middle level activity where one or two persons are made to oversee the activities of other staff members in an organisation so as to ensure that organisational goals are achieved. He explains that supervision as applied in organisations, business enterprises and institutions must be done with some amount of authority in order to make supervisors have some control over the people they oversee. This means that supervision primarily is meant to control and direct other people's activities so as to achieve the goals of an organisation.In the context of this research, however, supervision is used to denote instructional supervision, and it implies the act of over-seeing the teaching and learning process through the provision of professional guidance and support to teachers so as to enhance their professional development and improved performance in the teaching and learning process.It involves the identification of performance gaps (Rummler&Brache, 1995) within the work of teachers, their strengths and professional needs that will enhance their performance. It also includes inspecting the work of teachers to review lesson planning, preparation and delivery so as to ensure that work is done to meet required standards. Instructional Supervision must therefore lead to a 'collaborative achievement' of organisational goals. It has to do with the provision of instructional leadership to teachers and fostering collegiality between supervisors and supervisees. This means that instructional supervision must be aimed at improving the teacher's performance in a more positive manner in an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual respect so as to add value (Addison & Haig, 2009) to the teacher's performance. This definition also agrees to Plunket (1989) and Glanz (1994) who see a supervisor as not only controlling, inspecting and directing people, but also taking responsibility for them. He leads, shepherds, guides, administers, consults and

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cares for the people under him/her. In practice, however, this has not been the case as research has shown that most supervisors are seen by teachers as a 'band of executioners' (Glanz, 1994; Sergiovanni&Staratt, 2002) who will always find fault with what teachers do.

Supervision has various forms or models, all falling in line with its basic functions of administration, education, and support (Kadushin, 2002). These include mentoring, coaching, clinical supervision, inquiry-based supervision, and inspection, summative and formative supervision among others (Claude, 1992; Acheson & Gall, 1987). In this research, however, the interest is in finding out how supervisors understand their roles as instructional leaders and their ability to use clinical supervision as a model of supervision in basic schools. Such an understanding is very necessary as it has the potential of defining and determining the job performance of school supervisors. It must be noted, however, that merely understanding the concept of clinical supervision and instructional leadership may not bring about improved teacher performance. It is rather how the principles of these concepts can be used for supervising teachers and the impact it has on their performance in instructional delivery. This interest arises out of my experience as a teacher and as an officer in the Ghana Education Service (GES) that has predisposed me to the traditional hierarchical type of supervision where supervisors have acted more as superiors (Glanz, 1994; Sergiovanni&Staratt, 2002) and to some extent fault finders, with control and directive orientations to ensure the attainment of educational goals (Pajak, 2002). Interestingly, clinical supervision is one of the models of supervision recommended by the Ghana Education Service to circuit supervisors for use in their supervisory activities (MOE, 2002) in basic schools.

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1.1.4 Supervision in the Ghanaian context

The history of educational supervision in Ghana is traced from the colonial era after school education had been introduced in the then Gold Coast by the European missionaries and traders. Glanz (1994) observed that public school supervision in the United States has been historically influenced by its roots in Western Europe and the unique characteristics of the American educational system. Similarly, the Ghanaian situation has the same historical experience of western European influence since school education was introduced by the latter. During these periods the role of supervision was mostly carried out by lay men such as clergymen or priests and some selected individuals who served as school trustees. Later, it was transferred to professionals and full time school officials and their work was geared towards school inspection and the enforcement of rules and regulations.

According to Mankoe (2002) supervision of instructional process in Ghana began around the early twentieth century in the Gold Coast schools when inspectors were appointed to visit schools. During the 1940s mission school authorities appointed visiting teachers to assist the increasing number of untrained teachers particularly those in rural areas. The government later followed it up in 1952 with the appointment of visiting officers to provide on-the-job training for the large number of pupil teachers who had been employed following the introduction of fee-free education in 1951, which was part of the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) introduced by Ghana's first president, Osagyefo Dr. Kwame Nkrumah.By 1974, when the Ghana Teaching Service (now Ghana Education Service) was established, two types of supervisors were operating in the Ghanaian educational system. These were the Assistant Education officer (AEO) and the Principal Teacher (PT), both visiting officers with the responsibility of raising the standard of teachers and other officers

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who visited the schools. The introduction of the New Education ReformProgramme (NERP) in 1987 and lately the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) in 1995 saw the appointment of circuit officers (now circuit supervisors) who were placed in charge of circuits to provide professional assistance and guidance to teachers with the view of raising standards in the schools. A more current reform in 2008 (Ministry of Education, 2008) has expanded the scope of supervision in pre-tertiary education with the establishment of the National inspectorate Board. Its role is to provide an independent external supervisory service, so as to increase supervision in pre-tertiary institutions in Ghana.

Generally, the responsibility of supervising instruction in Ghanaian schools has been with school inspectors and heads in the schools. Personnel from the Metropolitan/ Municipal/District Education offices, Regional and Headquarters are classified as external supervisors while heads of institutions and their assistants are internal supervisors. At the basic level external supervisors include the Deputy or Assistant Director in charge of supervision, circuit supervisors, regional inspectors and inspectors from the inspectorate division of the GES headquarters. Internally, head masters and headteachers of junior high and primary schools are in charge of supervision (Baffour-Awuah, 2011). They are sometimes assisted by their assistants, who take over the school when the substantive heads are out for other assignments, and lead teachers of specific subject areas who have been trained as part of the support systems provided through the District Teacher Support Teams (DTST). Additionally, there are such bodies as the Parent Teacher Associations, (PTAs) School Management Committees (SMCs) and District Education Oversight Committees (DEOCs) who, even though limited, support supervision in the schools.

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Thus, from a more pervasive function of inspection, fault-finding and enforcement of educational regulations by clergymen and lay persons, supervision in Ghana has evolved through the years to become more scientific in nature assuming more professional, supportive and administrative functions with the hope of improving educational delivery in the country.

1.1.5Supervision and teacher performance

Managing performance in organisations, whether profit making or non-profit making, is a matter of major concern to all administrators, stakeholders and professionals. Human performance technology practitioners in particular, are always concerned and try to use an engineering approach to attain desired accomplishment from human performers by determining gaps in performance and designing cost-effective and efficient interventions (Stolovich& Keeps, 1999). Rummler&Brache (1995) in discussing the various levels of performance management in organisations saw performance as the accomplishment of an assigned task. In this research, however, teacher performance refers to using acceptable procedures, methods or processes to accomplish an instructional task. It includes such processes as lesson planning and preparation, design, delivery and evaluation so as to improve children's learning.

De Grauwe (2001) posits that the priority of all countries, especially the developing ones like Ghana, is to improve the quality of schools and the achievement of students since learning outcomes depend largely on the quality of education being offered (Barro, 2006) which is reflected in the quality of teaching or instruction. The acquisition of education by the citizens of every nation has therefore been largely recognized as the basic tool for economic development (Barro, 2006). Todaro (1992) asserts that the formal education system of every nation is the principal institutional

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mechanism used for developing human skills and knowledge and that ensuring quality education delivery is a must.

But quality education, however, does not come by chance but rather depends partly on how well teachers are trained and supervised since they remain one of the major inputs to quality education delivery (Lockheed &Verspoor, 1991). This means that the quality of instructional supervision in schools must be such that it can lead to improved teacher performance and children's learning. In Ghana, however, the quality of teacher education has never been in doubt and with a greater number of trained teachers teaching in public basic schools the quality of teaching and learning that will improve students' achievement should be guaranteed given the right instructional leadership approach.

In the light of its importance to national development formal education still remains the largest consumer of public revenues in many developing countries as it forms one of the largest industries in the public sector (Todaro, 1992). In Ghana, for example, a great deal of human and financial resources is expended to support the public school system. Government expenditure on education from 2007 to 2011 has always been around 10% of annual GDP (ISODEC/UNICEF, 2011) and is considered the highest as compared to other sectors of the economy. As part of its expenditure, the government of Ghana invests significantly in designing and implementing policies, including the training of personnel, to supervise instruction in the schools (Baffour-Awuah, 2011). This further explains the importance government attaches to quality education as outlined in the four pillars of the free compulsory basic education programme (FCUBE) of 1995 (Sekyere, 2003).

In Ghana the Ministry of Education, acting through the Ghana Education Service (GES), is responsible for education delivery. The Ghana Education Service

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(GES) in particular is responsible for pre-tertiary education which includes basic and secondary education. It employs and deploys personnel to teach at the various levels of basic education, supplies educational materials for instructional delivery, monitors and supervises teachers and organises training programmes for school-based and external supervisors. All these are done with the aim of improving the quality of education through quality teaching and learning as captured under the FCUBEprogramme and the new Educational Sector Plan (ESP). This implies that teachers' performance must be at an acceptable standard, given the quality of teacher training and the kind of supervision provided by school supervisors in public basic schools.

It is, however, difficult to determine the extent and depth of supervisory activities, the kind of leadership and even the models of supervision undertaken by basic school heads and circuit supervisors in schools. It is also not clear how supervisors understand their roles as instructional leaders and the skills they have acquired in order to use such models of supervision as clinical supervision in their schools so as to foster collaboration and motivate teachers to perform well. This study, therefore, seeks to address these pertinent issues.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Since the introduction of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) in 1995, there have been several measures put in place by the government to improvesupervision of instruction in public basic schools. Key among these measures is the redesignation of the office of circuit officers to circuit supervisors (Mankoe, 2002; Sekyere, 2003). This places a special responsibility on circuit supervisors to not only inspect schools but also to guide and provide instructional leadership to teachers (Glanz, 1994). In effect the work of circuit supervisors was

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expanded to administer the schools under their jurisdiction and provide instructional support, guidance and leadership to teachers (MOE, 1990, cited in Mankoe, 2006). Sekyere (2003) observed that one of the areas the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme sought to address is the ineffective use of pupils' instructional hours. This is catered for in the three thematic areas of the programme: improving the quality of teaching and learning; improving access and participation; and improving management efficiency (MOE, 1990; cited in Mankoe, 2006). The first and third components relate directly to the practice of supervision of instruction. To this end the Ghana Education Service (GES) has formulated policies to guide supervision of instruction in basic schools. GES has put supervisory structures in place and occasionally provides in-service training courses and workshops to personnel in supervisory positions (including headteachers) to provide supervision services such as clinical supervision in basic schools. Headteachers and circuit supervisors are, therefore, expected to possess the prerequisite skills of supervision so as to provide effective supervision of instruction services, given the necessary resources and in-service training.

In recent years, however, several concerns have been raised by a number of Ghanaians over the performance of teachers in public basic schools leading to the falling educational standards in the country. Research conducted by Oduro (2008) and Opare (2009) indicate that most members of the public and other stakeholders attribute this partly to weak and ineffective supervision in Ghanaian public basic schools (Oduro, 2008; Opare, 2009). According to Oduro (2008), and Opare (2009) public perception about the attitudes of school heads and teachers towards supervision in Ghanaian public basic schools is rather poor.

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As suggested by Glickman, Gordon and Gordon (2004), heads of institutions and any person entrusted with the responsibility to supervise instruction should possess certain knowledge and skills to plan, observe, assess and evaluate teaching and learning processes. This brings into focus the appointment of circuit supervisors by the GES as part of the support system for the classroom teacher (Mankoe, 2002; MOE 2002). As per the policy these supervisory personnel are appointed to inspect schools, monitor teaching and learning and provide instructional support for teachers. Despite these interventions there still appears, however, to be little or no improvement in the quality of teaching and learning in public basic schools (Oduro, 2008; Opare, 1999) and these have been attributed largely to lack of effective supervision of instruction although other factors do exist. Consequently, the question one may ask is "do supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders? Do they understand clinical supervision as a concept, and how can they use it in public basic schools (MOE, 2002)? What skills and knowledge do supervisors possess and how do they use clinical supervision as a support system for teachers, and what is the state of supervision generally in basic schools?

Generally, the nature and quality of instructional supervision within a school is presumed to have effects on the expertise, practice and job satisfaction of teachers and, by extension ultimately, on student learning outcomes such as achievement. This means that school supervisors must have a clear understanding of their roles as instructional leaders and their ability to use supervision models such as clinical supervision in schools. It is however not clear the extent to which supervisors do understand their roles as instructional leaders and how they use their knowledge and skills in clinical supervision to promote teacher performance and children's learning, hence this research.

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1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to find out how supervisors, both school-based and external, understand their roles as instructional leaders and their ability to use clinical supervision as a way of assisting teachers to improve instruction in basic schools in Ghana. It also sought to find out the quality of training and skills supervisors have acquired in order to perform their roles effectively.Additionally, the study hoped to examine clinical supervision as an effective model for school supervisors to adopt and whether supervisors have sufficient training and skill set to use in schools.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives pursued were to:

- assess supervisors understanding and practice with regards to their roles as instructional leaders
- find out the knowledge supervisors have acquired about clinical supervision and how they use it in supervising teachers
- assess the kind of support systems teachers receive from supervisors
- determine the kind of professional relationship that exists between teachers and supervisors .

1.5. Research Questions

To achieve the stated objectives for the study, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How do supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders?

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2. What knowledge have supervisors acquired in clinical supervision and how do they use it in basic schools?
3. What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors?
4. What professional relationship exists between teachers and supervisors?

1. 6 Limitations of the Study

One key limitation of the study was that respondents could not be gathered at one place to answer the items on the questionnaires to ensure the collection of all that were distributed. As a result of the scattered location of the respondents only 111 of the 126 questionnaires distributed were returned thereby reducing the return rate. Another limitation was the inability to control the biases of teachers in answering the questionnaire as some could be influenced by their personal relationships with their supervisors.

1.7. Significance of the Study

The study is justifiedon the following grounds:

First, findings of the study can be used by educational authorities to develop effective supervisory techniques that can be used by basic school supervisors to help improve teaching and learning in basic schools.

Secondly, basic school supervisors in Ghana can use the findings to guide them in the performance of their instructional leadership roles so as to improve instructional supervision in basic schools in the country.

Thirdly, findings of the study will contribute to the already existing literature about supervision and instructional leadership, especially in the Ghanaian educational system’

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Lastly the findings of the study can be used as a guide for the development of instructional leadership in Ghanaian basic schools.It can also serve as a basis for further research into the supervisory roles of both school-based and external supervisors.

1.8. Organization of the Study

The study is organized into six chapters. Chapter One deals with the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, research questions, limitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study. Chapter Two covers review of literature relevant to the study, while Chapter Three focuses on the research design, population, sample, instrument for data collection and the procedure used in data analysis. Chapter Four presents the findings of the study while Chapter Five discusses the findings. The last chapter which is Chapter Six presents a summary of the research findings,draws conclusions and makes recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.9 Definition of Terms

It is important to further clarify some terms that were used in the study:

i. Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE):- This is a constitutionally mandated programme instituted by the 1992 fourth republican constitution of Ghana to ensure that every child of school going age attends school

ii. Ghana Education Service (GES):- This is the body responsible for pre-tertiary education in Ghana. It operates under the ministry of education’

iii. Ministry of Education (MOE):- It is the ministerial body charged with education delivery in Ghana. It is headed by a cabinet minister and is charged with the operations of basic, secondary and tertiary institutions.

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iv. Circuits:- These are properly designated areas created under educational districts with some minimum number of schools so as to make administration and supervision easy and convenient

v. Circuit Supervisor:-An officer in the Ghana Education Service who is placed in charge of a circuit and provides supervisory services to teachers, educational workers and pupils in the circuit. He is the liaison officer between the district office and the circuit.

vi. District Teacher Support Team (DTST):- A team of specific subject or curriculum leaders (CLs) constituted at district education offices to conduct training for and assist teachers in specific subject areas. It was initiated under the Whole School Development (WSD) programme.

vii. School Management Committee (SMC):- This is a statutory body constituted for basic schools to exercise oversight responsibility of the schools.

viii. District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC): A statutory regulatory body of education in District, Municipal, and Metropolitan assemblies charged with oversight responsibility of education delivery in the district, municipality and metropolis.

ix. Parent Teacher Association (PTA): An association of parents and teachers in basic and second cycle institutions whose aim is the development of the schools and the promotion of teaching and learning.

x. Clinical supervision: This is a model of teacher supervision where supervisors employ the one-on-one clinical approach in order to assist teachers improve on instructional delivery in class.

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xi. Instructional leadership: It is a kind of school supervision where supervisors provide leadership in instructional delivery by ensuring that all activities in the school are geared towards an improvement in teachers' instructional practice and children's learning

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviewsliterature that is related to the study. The chapter covers the concepts of supervision and instructional leadership. Specifically, the chapter deals with the following topics:

i. definition of educational supervision,

ii. Purpose of supervision,

iii. Types and functions of supervision,

iv. Who is a supervisor?

v. Principles of modern supervision,

vi. Models of teacher supervision,

vii. The concept of instructional leadership in supervision,

viii. Findings from empirical sources

ix. Conceptual framework

x. Chapter summary.

2.1Defining Educational Supervision

Educational supervision has been given different definitions by various scholars, managers, administrators, and professional in the field of education. Robert (1986) in defining supervision in the field of education sees it as all efforts of a designated school official toward providing leadership to the teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction. Supervisioninvolves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, a selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, method of teaching and evaluation of instruction. Robert’s definition clearly puts supervision in the line of

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improving instruction though the enhancement of teachers' professional growth. Consequently educational administrators, researchers and theorists all seem to agree tosupervision generally as a relevant tool without which schools and other educational institutions cannot attain their set objectives.

Chivore's (1995) in analysis of school supervision and its effect lends support to Robert (1986). Chivore argues that school supervision involves the assessment of proper implementation of policies, correction of identified weaknesses, direction and redirection of defects for the attainment of stated aims, objectives and goals of an education system at a given level.He maintains that it is an administrative tool and a process of monitoring educational standards which school heads cannot function effectively without. Both Robert (1986) and Chivore (1995) allude to the administrative and instructional importance of educational supervision in their definitions and maintain that its overall effect must be an improvement in children's learning.Ogunsaju (2006) also posits that the ultimate purpose of supervision in schools is the improvement of pupils' learning but its immediate focus is on the teacher and the whole of the educational setting. It therefore seeks to improve the total educational environment so as to bring a qualitative improvement to teacher performance to enhance pupils' learning.Ogunsaju's view on school supervision suggests that it is as an activity directed towards the attainment of instructional goals through a qualitative improvement in teacher performance.

Other researchers also define educational supervisionand emphasize teaching and instruction. Sergiovanni (1993) describes educational supervision as a set of duties and a comprehensive process which aim to help teachers to develop their profession to achieve their pedagogical objectives. This description, however, puts the focus of supervision on teachers who are regarded as key actors in the teaching and

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learning process in the school. Pajak (2002) on the other hand, defines this term in a more comprehensive way and says it is a dynamic process that leads to studying and improving all factors that affect the education situation. This means that supervision in education must go beyond the teacher and his instructional practices and must include all other factors such as administration, provision of instructional materials, and teachers' professional development, that contribute to make teaching and learning successful. Adopting a more developmental orientation, Oliva and Pawlas (1997) defined educational supervision as "the provision of guidance and feedback on matters of personal, professional and educational development in the context of trainee's experience taking place". This definition seems to place supervision as an exercise fit only for trainee teachers, but on a broader aspect it also caters for all teachers in the sense that their work must always be reviewed for appropriate feedback and corrections.

From the point of view of Pajak (2002), modern educational supervision, may be described as a/an:

- Technical process which aims to improve teaching and learning through the care, guidance and simulation of continued development for not only teachers but also any other person having an impact on the educational context.
- Consultation process, based on respect for the opinion of teachers who are mainly affected by the work of supervision.
- Collaborative process in different stages since it welcomes various views that represent the proper relationship between the supervisor and the teacher so as to address the educational problems and find appropriate solutions.

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- Academic process which encourages research and experimentation whose results can be used to improve setting and achieving clear, observable and measurable objectives in the educational setting.
- Leadership process which requires the supervisor to have the ability to coordinate teachers' efforts by aiming to achieve the teaching objectives.
- Humanitarian process in which the supervisor recognizes the value of individuals as human beings so that they can build a mutual trust between themselves and the teachers and know the exact and varying capacities of each teacher they deal with.

Chivore (1995) also proposed that the areas that require supervision in the educational environment may include among others, the following:

- visiting classes and inspecting books;
- checking schemes and planning books;
- checking accuracy of mark schedules after tests;
- administering of written work;
- checking on attendance registers;
- providing basic and necessary facilities
- maintaining the general cleanliness of school grounds and buildings;
- staff development

Increased school enrolment and the development of more areas that require supervision now compel educational authorities to place more emphasis on proper management of school and school staff. The need for properly trained school supervisors, who are well equipped with the requisite skills and knowledge to supervise the running of schools and their staff members, has therefore become

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imperative. Some researchers argue that because the school is such a labour-intensive undertaking, the teaching and administrative staff (human resources) are regarded as the most precious asset of the school or institution .In this regard Nolan and Hoover (2011) explained that teacher supervision is as an aspect of educational supervisionthat has an organizational function concerned with promoting teacher growth, which in turn leads to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning. Similarly,Renihan, (2004)explained that education is moving from a system-level management and supervision of teachers to school-site management and empowerment of learners through effective teacher supervision. This means that modern educational supervision needs to take a systems view point by holistically examining both the process and performer levels of teacher performance (Rummler&Brache, 1995).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) assert that numerous changes and understanding about schooling, teaching and leadership, among other factors necessitate a “redefinition” of supervisory practice and theory. To them this redefinition should include the disconnection of supervision from hierarchical roles and a focus on the community as the primary metaphor for school. By community they denote the fact that the responsibility for supervision has widened to include not only supervisors, but also teachers, mentors, consultants, and other school and district-based personnel. Supervision of teachers therefore assumes more collaborative dimension in current practice aimed at raising the performance and status of teachers as opposed to the practice where supervisors direct and act in a master- servant relationship.

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2.2 Purpose of Supervision

The reasons for conducting supervision in educational institutions will vary depending on the areas supervisors focus on. Supervision can be directed at two possible areas that relate to the classroom teacher. It can be directed at the management of the educational environment in which the teacher is operating. When this aspect is the focus of supervision, the purposes may include the following:

- checking on the availability of teaching-learning materials,
- advising on the appropriateness of the teaching-learning materials in use,
- assessing staff levels,
- advising on the school climate,
- assessing the availability and quality of advisory and support services available to the teacher,
- promoting curriculum change and innovation,
- time tabling,
- attending to the welfare of teachers,
- attending to institutional problems,
- data collection to facilitate planning and decision making, and
- Monitoring policy implementation.

In this regard supervision is seen to be taking a rather systemic nature by ensuring that the whole educational environment is scrutinized.

When the focus shifts to the teacher as a professional operating in the classroom, a performer level is assumed, and some of the reasons for conducting supervision would be:

- providing feedback on teacher performance,
- identifying needs for staff development,

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- identifying potential for promotion,
- conducting quality assurance checks,
- ensuring teacher motivation and morale, and
- Providing professional support and guidance to the teacher.

In both of the above situations, supervision ensures that the professional environment is supportive of the teaching and learning process. The ultimate objective of supervision is to improve the quality of teaching and learning and to add value to the work of the teacher (Addison & Haig, 2009). This means that a supervisor needs to play the roles of a planner, organizer, leader, helper, evaluator or appraiser, motivator, communicator and decision-maker (Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982).

A critical examination of the roles of a supervisor as observed by Pfeiffer and Dunlap (1982) further indicates that a transition in the roles of the supervisor has created a shift in the functions where the supervisor is no longer seen as a boss but rather now as a visionary leader. This shift requires the inclusion of such functions as:

- Visionary leadership
- Strategic planning
- Systems thinking
- Information generating
- Cultural norms of continuous improvement
- Human resource development

In summing up the functions of educational supervision Kadushin (1992) puts them into three broad categories. These are:

a. Administrative functions: - promotion and maintenance of good standards of work, coordination of practice with policies of administration, and an assurance of an efficient and smooth-running office.

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b. Educational functions: - the educational development of each individual teacher on the staff in a manner calculated to evoke him/her fully to realize his/her possibilities of usefulness. This can also lead to an increase in the teachers' job satisfaction rate, thus, impacting positively on their general work performance and output.

c. Supportive functions;- maintenance of harmonious working relationships, the cultivation of spirit de corps among staff. This brings about the promotion of peer supervision within teachers and the spirit of supporting one another in service delivery and professional development.

Concurring with the foregoing, Madziyire (2000) in an article "supervision of educational personnel" propounds four purposes of teacher supervision namely: preventive, corrective, constructive; and creative.

a. Preventive

A supervisor, whether an internal supervisor like the school head or an external supervisor, can be sure that certain difficulties will confront every new teacher in the school. The supervisor can anticipate the teacher's challenges as far as possible and prevent them. Such challenges may-be in curricular and instructional areas. Unique needs and styles of teachers are recognized and efforts to assist them to achieve their own goals would be provided. This type of supervision helps the teacher to correct faults in him/her.

b. Corrective

It must not be thought that corrective supervision is unimportant. The supervisor should be on the lookout primarily for faults but he/she should make continuous efforts to see each fault in its true place in the whole process of education.

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Some faults are trivial and incidental and can be overlooked whilst some require immediate attention.

c. Constructive

The supervisor should not end at correcting faults. The healthiest procedure is to induce growth rather than to remove defects. Constructive supervision seeks growth in performing better the activities already well performed. Teachers become happier and stronger by healthy developments. An experienced and skillful supervisor will attempt to share with teachers his/her vision of what good teaching involves. He/she will stimulate, encourage and direct teachers to grow in competence and in confidence.

d. Creative

Here, teacher supervision should encourage variety, originality and independent experimentation. The chief purpose of all supervision may be that of liberating the teacher, freeing him/her from set procedures and definite prescriptions and developing him/her as far as possible into a master teacher for the school system (Madziyire, 2000).In this respect supervisors must develop in their teachers the spirit of creativity, innovation and the zeal to experiment new ideas.

Supervisory purposes according to different scholars (Robert, 1986; Chivore, 1995) cover two important areas; staff development and the instructional development. Attention is focused on both teaching and non-teaching personnel in staff development while in instructional development, attention is focused on curriculum and instruction to create a more effective and systematic way of providing efficient and meaningful instruction based on clearly specified objective.With regard to instruction, supervision seeks to improve the effectiveness of teachers so that they

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can contribute maximally to the attainment of the system goals. In this regard supervision is meant to impact positively on teachers' job performance; a situation that will lead to the improvement in children's learning and their educational attainment. In staff development, supervisory activity aims at changing some aspects of a person's concept of self, way of behaving and attitude to the school and within the school organization. Ogunsaju (1983) identified the purpose of supervision as including provision of accurate knowledge and instruction through democratic approach and maintenance of good relationship with all.

Mgbodile (1996) asserted that one of the purposes of supervision is to offer guidance to the teacher so that he can become complete self -analysis, self critic and self- improving person. He intimated that supervision must develop positive values in teachers so that they can develop acceptable work ethics which can make them perform their duties without necessarily being instructed or directed. This gives further support to Nwaogu (1980) who explained that an important purpose of supervision is to help teachers to learn their problems and seek the best method of solving them whether as an individual or group. Other scholars such as Renihan (2002) generally identify the purpose of supervision to include the following:

1. Assessment of teachers work based on suitable criteria or parameters.
2. Provision of a basis for concrete and constructive advice to improve the quality of educating the children.
3. Encouragement of the school to make a systematic effort to help students understand themselves and their feelings and to be able to monitor their behaviour.
4. Helping teachers who are new in the profession to acquire specialized knowledge of teaching and technique of classroom management.

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In whichever mode that supervision is carried out in an educational institution its ultimate purpose is to improve children's educational attainment by adding value to the quality of work by teachers.

2.3 Types of Supervision

A variety of supervision types can be perceived to lie on a continuum with two extremes. One extreme is a type of supervision in which the supervisor acts as a friend and provides a shoulder for the supervisee to lean on. At the other end of the continuum, supervision demands strict accountability from the supervisee. Here, the supervisor may be interested in fault-finding. Generally, there are two basic types practiced within the Ghanaian educational context. These are internal supervision which is often carried out by school-based supervisors and external supervision which is done by circuit supervisors and other external officers from the education offices. Both of these can assume any of the two extremes described above. Robert (1986), however, lists the following models of supervision:

- Critical friendship:The supervisor acts as a friend and guides the supervisee to meet set targets.
- Mentoring: The supervisor acts as a role model for the supervisee**.** In thismodel the supervisor is regarded as an experienced and knowledgeable person who puts such knowledge and experience up for modeling by the less experienced teacher.
- Monitoring: The supervisor checks on progress and any problems as well as advising on solutions.
- Advisory: The supervisor assumes a relatively superior position in terms of knowledge and skills. In this regard the supervisee's relationship operates on a subordinate-superior basis.

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- Clinical supervision:In this situation, the supervisor and supervisee engage in face-to-face interaction that is primarily based on the observation of performance and an emphasis on collegiality.
- Hard accountability:-In this case, the supervisor performs the traditional inspector's role, demanding strict accountability from the supervisee.

These models, however, may be used by either an internal supervisor or a school-based supervisor, the purpose of which must be to improve teacher effectiveness and improved learner performance.

2.4 Who is a Supervisor?

A supervisor can best be defined by the nature of work done and the services designed to facilitate the promotion of professional development and staff support. Thus a supervisor may be a specialist or a consultant in any field or resource persons from outside the school system.An educational supervisor can be regarded as a person formally designated to interact with members of an educational system in order to improve the quality of learning of students (Poole, 1994). In the context of educational supervision, Robert (1986) viewed a supervisor as: Creator of surroundings, a catalyst, and the person in the middle. By referring to supervisor as a creator of surroundings, Robert meant that the supervisor's main job is to help individual workers achieve the organizational goals by showing them how to get the job done with least amount of wasted effort. He explained that a supervisor analyses the learning environment in order to identify factors that can destabilize the teaching and learning process and then make appropriate recommendations for remediation. He describes a supervisor as a friend, an adviser and not a judge to the teacher. As a catalyst, Robert likened a supervisor to a substance in chemistry that has a chemical reaction. When certain materials are combined and a catalyst is introduced, things

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begin to happen. The similarity between a chemical catalyst and an able supervisor should be apparent. A supervisor is the agent that makes the school operates effectively through good administrative and professional support systems to teachers who are key actors in the school system.

The successful performance of a group proves that its supervisor has catalytic qualities. Poor supervision by contrast represents what chemist would call an "**anticatalyst**" i.e. an element that freezes activity instead of generating it. Thus a supervisor who has poor judgment or does not know his job or is clumsy in dealing with workers can undermine the productivity of the entire group. As a person in the middle, a supervisor is expected to promote staff cohesion that will create a congenial atmosphere for improved teacher performance and student learning.

Sometimes a supervisor appears to be "neither a fish nor a fowl". By implication,

Robert (1986) took this to mean that supervisors, while frequently in direct contact with the teachers, are "not one of them". At the same time, supervisors must represent the Ministry of Education and enforce its policies, procedure and rules, yet they are not part of the top management. For example, a school principal is both an administrator as well as a supervisor. When the principal is planning schoolwork, allocating teachers to duties, formulating rules and regulation for the school, he or she is performing administrative work. When the principal is supervising the work of teachers, checking record of work, disciplining staff and students, making sure instructional time is used judiciously, he or she is doing supervisory work. A critical examination of these definitions clearly indicates that a supervisor is seen as one who sees to the improvement of classroom instruction by making teachers more competent and effective.

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Plunket (1989) distinguished between supervision and inspection. In his view a supervisor does not merely command, control, direct and inspect but also takes responsibility for, leads, shepherds, administers, guides, consults and cares for people under him. In this respect Plunket considers inspection as part of the supervisory roles of a supervisor.

2.5. Principles of Modern Supervision

Ogunsaju (1983) said that a number of important guidelines are inherent in today's concept of the supervisory process. Such principle provides a guide to action as well as an approach to the evaluation of procedures. The guides are as follows:

1. Supervision is directed toward the improvement of teaching and learning
2. The total program of supervision is directed to accepted purpose.
3. Supervision seeks the co-operative participation of all concerned; an intelligent and effective supervision is a genuine cooperative endeavor, not skillful manipulation of others.
4. Modern supervision strives to utilize the talents and strength of all.
5. Supervision offers assistance to all.
6. Supervision is flexible. The supervisor tends to be eclectic in approach.
7. Supervision seeks evidence regarding the results and value of change.
8. Supervision strives to enhance the satisfaction in the work of the educational staff.

Ogunsaju (1983)stated further that good supervision is democratic. It is an exercise in which each individual can increase his knowledge, interest, ideals and powers, find his place in the community of work and use his abilities to shape both himself and the community towards higher ends. A good supervisor, therefore, should not only be aware of new movements in education but should also be more visionary

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and look beyond the current educational issues in order to understand the future trends in our society.

2.6 Models of Teacher Supervision

i. School-based teacher supervision

In Ghana, a greater proportion of teacher supervision in basic schools is undertaken by school heads. The Ministry of Education's rules and regulations require school heads to do so. A school is organized and administered in such a way that each department has its own role to play, with the head playing the most significant supervisory role. The head, who is the key school based supervisor, has the roles of planning, organizing, staffing, leading and monitoring and evaluating affairs in order to achieve goals (Claude, 1992). These, however, cannot be done single- handedly. The head has to involve the assistant head, senior teachers and all other teachers to get things done properly and efficiently, while heads co-ordinate the activities and make final decisions.

Claude (1992) mentions that supervising people, teachers in particular, are both a skill and an art. It is a skill because the basic theories about motivation, communication, conflict resolution, leadership, performance, counseling and so on can be learned. The art is how the supervisor adopts and adapts these skills and knowledge, and puts them into practice in his/her own unique way. Generally, school based supervisors ought to be skilled and knowledgeable about the task elements of their school work. A school supervisor is skilled if he/she can accomplish the purpose of the task efficiently (Annett, Duncan, Stammers & Gray, 1982).

ii. Random checks

Random checks go hand in hand with spot checks; they are unannounced. In other words the school head can go into a classroom at any time or day as a follow up

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to activities that should or have been recommended to be carried out. Random checks tend to be unpopular with a lot of school teachers. Giles and Proudfoot (1994) describe informal supervision as those procedures where the teacher, the administrator or the supervisor assesses performance and makes a decision related to teaching, but does not prepare a written report which is descriptive and summative of overall performance. From this description, it is clear that this supervision is carried out without formality. It is a casual encounter that occurs between the supervisor and the teacher. Thus there are no appointments made in this type of supervision. The classroom visits are not announced.

For the supervisors, informal supervision promotes dialogue between the supervisor and his / her staff as they interact on professional issues. It also promotes collegiality among staff even between the individual teacher and the supervisor. The traditional belief is that informal supervision helps to create a flexible environment which is conducive for an improvement in teacher performance which in turn will improve the performance of the pupils. It can also be argued that since no written reports are produced, informal supervision enables heads to cover a good number of teachers within a short space of time. However, this kind of supervision in itself is artificial. The fact that there are no written reports for teachers means no reference to facilitate follow-ups and follow through. It might also be very difficult to verify its validity because there are no criteria. This model does not encourage teacher growth and is not developmental since no reference is made.

iii. Clinical supervision

If teacher supervision is done properly in schools, then teachers would develop and perfect their teaching skills for the benefit of the pupils. It is upon this assumption that this model was founded. Acheson and Gall (1980) define clinical supervision as

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"supervision focused upon the improvement of the instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation and intensive intellectual analysis of actual teaching performance in the interest of rational modification." From this definition, clinical supervision takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of the data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor, form the basis of the programme procedures and strategies designed to improve the student's learning by improving the teacher's classroom behaviour.

Clinical supervision is problem-solving and is usually used in curriculum implementation (Chivore, 1995). The school head (supervisor) and the teacher may sit down and plan a lesson. The planning of the lesson is mutual and educational to both the teacher and the school head. The teacher then teaches the lesson under the guidance and supervision of the head. After the lesson delivery, the two sit together again to discuss the strength and weaknesses of the taught lesson. A follow up after the first lesson is recommended. The most important feature of this type of supervision is that it is open and there is no 'hide and seek'. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000) the concept of clinical supervision emerged as a result of contemporary views of weakness and dissatisfaction with the traditional education practice and methods of supervision. Under clinical supervision the focus of supervision is on the teacher as an active member of the instructional process (Cogan, 1973). According to Cogan (1973), the central objective of the process of clinical supervision is to help develop a teacher who is professionally responsible, can analyse his/her own performance, ready to open up for others to help him/her, and also be self directing. Indeed, the advocates of the concept believe that its focus is a face-to-face interaction between the teacher and supervisor to improve instruction and increase the teacher's professional growth (Acheson & Gall, 1980).

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Purpose of Clinical Supervision

One of the key objectives of clinical supervision is the improvement of the teaching and learning process which must ultimately benefit the learner. According to Adentwi and Barfi-Frimpong (2010) clinical supervision must lead to an improvement of the professional competence of the teacher. They therefore see clinical supervision to serve a diagnostic purpose in which the teacher's instructional problems would be diagnosed together with the supervisor with a view to establishing a healthy supervisory climate for the teacher and supervisor. In creating this cordial atmosphere the supervisors help the teacher in lesson preparation, monitor his actual classroom practice and provide timely feedback on his performance.

One other purpose of clinical supervision is to help teachers modify existing partterns of teaching in ways that make sense to them (Adentwi&Barfi-Frimpong, 2010). In this regard the evaluation process becomes much responsive to the needs and desires of the teacher in improving his classroom behaviours. The teacher therefore becomes the key determinant of the supervisory cycle and issues to be discussed. Clinical supervision is also to create an opportunity for an experienced supervisor to serve as a guide and help the teacher to select teaching goals that must be improved as well as issues to be highlighted during teaching.

Advantages of Clinical Supervision

In contemporary supervisory practice clinical supervision is more preferred to general supervision due to its thorough and help oriented nature. It brings about mutual understanding and cooperation between the supervisor and supervisee because in clinical supervision the supervisee is more willing to assist and cooperate with the diagnosis and prescription process ((Adentwi&Barfi-Frimpong, 2010). Due to the mutual trust arising out of the clinical nature of the process teachers are encouraged to

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cooperate in exposing their own instructional weaknesses with the view to finding solutions while at the same time trying to identify their strengths.

Through clinical supervision teachers become more self-directed and build a positive self-concept. Once a platform is created for the teacher to evaluate and assess his own teaching behaviour even without a supervisor, he feels more motivated in finding alternative means of improving his professional competence.

Another important advantage of clinical supervision over other models is its democratic nature. By this supervisees are able to develop a high sense of initiative and self- direction ((Adentwi&Barfi-Frimpong, 2010). Here the supervisor recognizes the immense potentials of the supervisee and taps them for the purpose of improving teaching and learning in the school. In effect clinical supervision brings a more positive approach to educational and teacher supervision in general and it is particularly recognized to have better attributes in improving instruction and pupils' learning in schools.

Other researchers like Miller and Miller (1987) have also argued strongly that clinical supervision has a better advantage over other models. They observed that the model allows for an objective feedback which will lead to improved results when given timely. They noted further that clinical supervision diagnoses instructional problems and provides valuable information to solve such problems. Teachers are able to develop new skills and lesson delivery strategies as a result of clinical supervision and this leads to improvement in instruction and increased result in children's learning. Through clinical supervision, supervisors are able to identify individual teachers' peculiar problems and offer solutions rather than the pre-determined rating scales and evaluation procedures found in other models.

Phases of Clinical Supervision

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Clinical supervision has evolved over the years from an original eight phases proposed by the original developers of the model. The original eight phases by Cogan and Goldhammer were as follows:

Phase 1: Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship-: this is the stage where rapport is established between the supervisor and teacher. This also helps the teacher to get some general understanding about the concept.

Phase 2: Planning with the teacher: at this stage both supervisor and teacher plan the lesson together, its anticipated outcomes, materials to use as well as strategies of teaching; while problems of instruction are shared for solutions.

Phase 3: Planning the observation strategy: the supervisor and the teacher agree on the objectives, processes and aspects of the lesson observation. At this stage the supervisor specifies his function in the observation and the supervisee become much aware of what is expected of him/her.

Phase 4: Observation stage is where the supervisor observes the actual lesson and records the actual events as they unfold in the classroom.

Phase 5: Analysis of teaching and learning process: the supervisor, after recording the events in the classroom, begins to analyse the whole process alone.

Phase 6: Planning the conference strategy: this is done initially by the supervisor but could be done jointly with the supervisee in subsequent times.

Phase 7: Post observation conference: this is where the supervisor and supervisee meet to review the observation data.

Phase 8: Renewed Planning: this is the final stage where the supervisor and teacher decide on what changes to be effected in the teacher's classroom behaviour. They then plan the next lesson and the changes the teacher will attempt to make.

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In recent years, however, other researchers have managed to reduce the original eight phases to between three and five (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Glickman, 1990). Acheson and Gall (1980) proposed three phases and described them as follows: Pre-observation conference, the actual observation, and post observation or feedback conference. Glickman (1990) rather proposed a five- phase model and describes them as follows:

1. Pre-conference with teacher: this is the preparatory stage where the supervisor meets with the teacher and spells out the reason and purpose for the observation, focus, method and form to be used, and fix time for post-observation conference.
2. Lesson observation stage: it involves the actual lesson presentation and observation. Methods may include participant observation, focused questionnaire, and space utilization. The supervisor only describes the events as they unfold, but not to interpret them.
3. Analysis of observation data: The supervisor, after observing the lesson leaves the classroom to analyse and interpret the observation data alone.
4. Post observation conference with teacher: Here both the supervisor and teacher discuss the observation and analysis and try to produce a plan or suggestions for instructional improvement.
5. Critique of the previous four phases. This last phase is where the supervisor and teacher review the format and procedures from the conferences to find out whether they were satisfactory or not and whether there was the need for revision. They also develop a plan to begin the cycle.

By its nature, clinical supervision looks more detailed in approach and seeks to create collaboration between supervisor and teacher. Some researchers therefore believe that

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clinical supervision, when used properly has a greater potential of improving teachers' instructional delivery. It tends to encourage innovation from teachers rather than remaining dependent on the supervisors. According to Thomas (2008), clinical supervision needs a great deal of time to be enforced effectively but this practice proves to be worthwhile to increase teachers' teaching performance. Khalid, Kumoji, and Veloo (2013) conducted an empirical study using 33 secondary school teachers (11 females and 22 males) to determine the effectiveness of clinical supervision. The findings of the study indicated that clinical supervision helps teachers in schools to find out the shortcomings and advantages of their teaching performances. In addition, the findings showed that clinical supervision helps teachers improve their teaching and makes learning more effective.

iv. Formative supervision

Formative supervision is a broad term encompassing what goes on when new curriculum supervision is being carried out. It is ongoing, developmental, co-operative, collaborative, non-judgmental, coaching, counseling-oriented and directed at improving teacher performance (Chivore, 1995). It is usually restricted to classroom and class performance on the part of the teacher. It is one of the contemporary supervision models that has evolved out of the use of clinical supervision. It seeks to help teachers establish themselves and gain much control over a new curriculum.

v. Summative supervision

Summative supervision is judgmental, comparative, adjudicative and final. It is meant and designed to make decisions about the competence and worthiness of a teacher. This type of supervision is one of the commonest and one open to abuse. This

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is particularly the case when school heads and circuit supervisors supervise their teachers for promotions and salary upgrading. The role of the supervisor is largely one of inspection, characterized by telling, directing and judging. However, teachers sometimes look upon inspection with some degree of anxiety, tension, fear and apprehension. It is necessary to consider that if the process of teaching and learning were alright, society could do away with all inspection; but in a changing society, the kind of perfection has almost remained a myth and hence there is always a felt need for some kind of inspection and supervision of educational activities in schools (Madziyire, 2000).

vi. Inquiry-based supervision (IBS)

Amongst the many models of teacher supervision is inquiry-based supervision (IBS). This model involves action research described by Stratemeyer in Sergiovanni and Starrat(1993) as, a process aimed at discovering new ideas or practices as well as testing old ones, exploring and establishing relationships between causes and effects, or of systematically gaining evidence about the nature of a particular problem. Sergiovanni and Starrat(1993) proposed that teachers be engaged in problem-solving, generate new ideas, discover new insights and practices and develop conceptual knowledge. This approach promotes continuous learning. In this case supervisors should create an environment that encourages research. Supervisors should guide personnel in research and finding strategies to implement changes and share ideas with colleagues. However, the Inquiry based supervision (I.B.S) model is time consuming as it involves research.This model targets solving pupil difficulties in a systematic way since it involves action research, but this is suitable for experienced hardworking teachers who will do thorough research. This model, therefore, encourages creativity among teachers and hence boosts teacher morale.

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2.7 The Concept of Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership is a relatively new concept that emerged in the early 1980s, influenced largely by research that found out that effective schools usually had principals who stressed the importance of leadership in this area (Brookover&Lezotte, 1982). Attention to instructional leadership, however, seemed to waver in the early 1990s, displaced by discussions of school-based management and facilitative leadership (Lashway, 2002). Recently, however, instructional leadership has increasingly assumed prominence as more and more emphasis begins to be laid on improving teaching and learning in schools and the need for schools also to be accountable. Principals are now under ever-increasing pressure to improve student achievement while educators are required to be accountable for what and how students learn on a daily basis (Thornton &Perreault, 2002). Consequently, heads of schools have little or no option than to focus much attention on how to provide effective leadership in schools that will lead to an improvement in teaching and learning.

2.7.1 Defining Instructional leadership

In trying to bring out a clearer understanding of instructional leadership the Educational Broadcasting Corporation (EBC) of the United States provided a toolkit for instructional leadership. The toolkit set out some specific components that should be included in an effective school principal's range of priorities:

- establishing a vision
- effecting change
- student achievement
- professional growth
- improving teaching and learning

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- gaining respect
- day-to-daymanagement and communication (Education Broadcasting Corporation, 2004). Instructional leadership can therefore be viewed and defined as having several essential components.

Researchers have however tried to define instructional leadership to reflect the core business of schooling which is teaching and learning and student growth and achievement. De Bevoise (1984) in putting instructional leadership under this perspective defines it as "those actions that a school principal takes or delegates to others in order to promote growth in student learning". In a more simple term Flath (1989) states that instructional leadership reflects those actions a principal takes to promote growth in student learning. This means that instructional leaders make teaching and learning and instructional quality the top priority of their schools. They empower their assistants and the staff in general to organize and arrange the teaching and learning environment in a way that will promote student's achievement.

Calabrese (1991) also sees instructional leadership as defining and promoting the school's mission, establishing parameters and goals for the school's instructional programme. By putting instructional leadership to reflect the creation of a learning community, Greenfield (1985) gave a broader definition and says that it involves actions undertaken by a school principal with the intention of developing a productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and a desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children. In a similar vein the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2001) defines instructional leadership as leading learning communities, in which staff members meet on a regular basis to discuss their work, collaborate to solve problems, reflect on their jobs, and take responsibility for what students learn. In a learning community, instructional leaders make adult learning a

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priority, set high expectations for performance, create a culture of continuous learning for adults, and get the community's support for school success. Instructional leadership therefore goes beyond administrative and managerial roles of school heads. It involves the creation of better learning environment in which both teachers and students will develop through quality instruction and professional support made possible by the school head or any other person charged with that responsibility.

2.7.2 Key Elements of Instructional leaderships

Inherent in the definitions and literature on instructional leadership are some key components: leadership, shared vision, professional growth and community/culture.

a. Leadership

Effective leadership is an important factor for promoting a good learning environment where students' learning and achievement is a top priority. For a headteacher to pride him/herself as an instructional leader he/she needs to exhibit good leadership qualities. These include creating and communicating a vision, gaining respect, improving teaching and learning, effecting change, student achievement, day-to-day administration and effective communication {Education Broadcasting Corporation, 2004}. Essentially the leadership role of the instructional leader must be aimed at promoting the professional development of the staff and creating a supportive and collaborative community that will create a good learning environment for student achievement.

b. Shared vision

Some researchers believe strongly that shared vision and a common purpose are two major components of instructional leadership at the school level (Stronge,

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2008; DuFour, 2002). For a school to achieve success in its core business of teaching and learning, it is important for the leader to establish a vision and a mission and then communicate and share the vision and mission with staff members. Lashway (1995) agrees in support for defining the mission of a school and also having a common purpose but he further adds that promoting positive learning environment, providing teacher feedback, managing curriculum and instruction are all key components of instructional leadership. Lashway further posits that instructional leadership requires a collaborative approach and connects this to a need for effective dialogue. Essentially, dialogue is a crucial component in creating and defining a school mission. This means that all members within the learning community (school) must be part of this process and the instructional leader plays a facilitative role to reach a consensus.

c. Shared leadership

One other area which is also seen as a key component of instructional leadership is shared leadership (Stronge, 2008). In the life of a school it is important for leaders to allow and enable others to act (Kouses& Posner, 2002). Stronge (2008) explains further and states that leaders influence others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how. This process requires the facilitation of individuals and shared efforts to accomplish common objectives. In support of this Lambert (2002) agrees that schools need to look beyond the principal (headteacher) as the sole instructional leader, and rather develop leadership capacity throughout the learning community.

d. Professional growth

Another area which instructional leaders need to seriously consider is the concept of professional growth. For a headteacher to be a successful instructional

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leader it is important for him/her to actively practice being a lifelong learner. This will make him capable of creating opportunities to promote the professional growth of the staff. Stronge (2008) has dealt extensively with this issue and states that an instructional leader needs to 'pay attention to and communicate about instruction, curriculum, and student mastery of learning objectives. The school head must be an active participant in the learning process and must participate fully in the staff training and professional development programmes that he/she arranges for the staff. Stronge also advised instructional leaders to be abreast with current research based strategies and best practices. In Stronge's opinion principals need to support instructional activities and programmes by modeling expected behaviours and consistently prioritizing instructional concerns and "strive to become a learner of learners".

e. Community/culture

Sergiovanni (1992) called for a redefinition of supervision to include the school as a community. He speaks about the relationship between instructional leadership and how schools are viewed. In his view when schools are seen as communities there emerges a new trend of authority which he calls 'moral authority'.

According to Sergiovanni (1992) this authority which comes from within is when someone believes in something and feels passionate about it. He therefore believes that moral authority is a more authentic way of leading others in a learning community. He avers that 'schools are special places where people care about teaching and learning and that teacher professionalism is valued more'.

2.7.3 Four lenses of instructional leadership

Smith (2010) in discussing instructional leadership, states that one's view of leadership incorporates some mixture of four lenses for viewing life in organizations,

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with one lens usually predominating. According to Smith the first lens, Traditional/ rational/ bureaucratic/ technical values positional authority and standard operating procedures with prescribed roles. The second lens human resources, also focuses on personal needs and the interface with the formal organization; viewing people as the primary resource sometimes known as the psychological view. The third lens, Cultural, is the organizations' norms of virtue, beliefs, and the shared ideas about how things get done here. The fourth lens, Political, relies on the community-based struggle over ideas of what is good, the uses of power, and the paradoxical strategic representations of life in the organization.

Putting all together provides a conceptual framework where the instructional leader is placed in the centre of an organization surrounded by important key roles to perform with the ultimate priority being student or children's achievement. This obviously requires the acquisition of leadership skills and the facilitation of collaborative efforts of all members.

2.7.4 Instructional leadership skills

An instructional leader must possess certain skills in order to successfully carry out the task of instructional leadership. These include interpersonal skills; planning skills; instructional observation skills; and research and evaluation skills (Lashway, 2002).

a. Interpersonal skills

Instructional leaders need to possess interpersonal skills which can be used tomaintain trust, spur motivation, give empowerment, and enhance collegiality. Relationships are built on trust, and tasks are accomplished through motivation and empowerment wherein teachers are involved in planning, designing, and evaluating

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instructional programs. Empowerment leads to ownership and commitment as teachers identify problems and design strategies themselves. Collegiality promotes sharing, cooperation, and collaboration, in which both the principal and teachers talk about teaching and learning (Brewer, 2001).

b. Planning skills

Planning begins with clear identification of goals or a vision to work toward, as well as to induce commitment and enthusiasm. The next step is to assess what changes need to occur and which may be accomplished by asking the people involved, reading documents, and observing what is going on within a school. As an instructional leader it is important to plan with key personnel of the school community so as to create a sense of oneness with a clearly defined school mission. These may not seem easy if one do not have skills in planning.

c. Instructional observation skills

The aim of instructional observation (supervision) is to provide teachers with feedback on their performance so as to consider and reflect upon. Not only can effective instructional leaders help guide classroom instruction through supervision, they can also play a primary role in bettering it. Instructional observation must seen one of the key tasks because it gives an opportunity for instructional leaders to be further involved in the daily classroom happenings of their schools.

d. Research and Evaluation skills

Research and evaluation skillsare needed to critically question the success of an instructional program evaluation. Effective instructional leaders can be armed with a plethora of information to make informed decisions about increasing learning at their schools.If principals (school heads) are to take the role ofinstructional leadership

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seriously, they willhave to free themselves from bureaucratictasks and focus their effortstoward improving teaching and learning.Instructional improvement is animportant goal, a goal worth seeking,and a goal that, when implemented,allows both students and teachers tomake a more meaningful learning environment. To achieve this goal takes more than a strong principal with concrete ideas and technical expertise. It requires a redefinition of the roleof principals, one that removes the barriers to leadership by eliminating bureaucratic structures and reinventing relationships.

Expanding the debate further, Whitaker (1997) identifies four additional skills that are essential for instructional leadership. In his view, effective instructional leaders need to

a. beResource providers. It is not enough for principals to know the strengths and weaknesses of their faculties; they must also recognize teachers' desires to be acknowledged and appreciated for a job well done. After all, teachers seek only tiny morsels of praise and the assurance that their heads are there to support them as resource providers.

b. beInstructional resources. Teachers count on their principals as resources of information on current trends and effective instructional practices. Instructional leaders are tuned in to issues relating to curriculum, effective pedagogical strategies, and assessment. For example, teachers must feel free to visit the offices of their heads and or curriculum leaders to seek suggestions on the best way to reach a child who is not grasping concepts.

c. beGood communicators. They need to communicate essential beliefs regarding learning, such as the conviction that all children can learn.

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d. create a *visible presence*. This includes focusing on learning objectives, modeling behaviors of learning, and designing programs and activities on instruction. Effective instructional leaders spend greater part of their day focusing on these objectives which also includes visit to classrooms to monitor children's learning and offer instructional support to teachers.

The instructional leader also needs to have up-to-date knowledge on three areas of education: curriculum, instruction, and assessment (DuFour, 2002).

Curriculum

It is important forprincipals to know about the changing conceptions of curriculum, educational philosophies and beliefs, curricular sources and conflict, and curriculum evaluation and improvement. This will put them in a better position to advice and support teachers in matters relating to curriculum.

Instruction

Again,principals/headteachers also need to know about different models of teaching, the theoretical reasons for adopting a particular teaching model, and the theories underlying the technology-based learning environment. This will put them in good position to understand the different teaching styles and approaches of their staff and further enable them to give appropriate inputs, recommendations or feedback. As an instructional resource himself it is incumbent on the instructional leader to be with contemporary issues about instruction so as to provide the needed relevant information to teachers.

Assessment

Furthermore, school heads must know about the principles of student assessment, assessment procedures with emphasis on alternative assessment methods, and assessment that aims to improve student learning. This puts the head in a better

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position to advise teachers on the assessment modes to be used for their pupils/students.

Underlying these three knowledge areas is a deep understanding of how humans learn. It may not be an overstatement to suggest that a principal or a headteacher is not fully equipped if he or she does not have a deep understanding of human learning (Johnson, 1996). The core business of a school is learning and recent research in cognitive science has produced a wealth of knowledge about human learning. It is therefore crucial that principals know and understand these theories so they may serve as a resource in enhancing instructional effectiveness. For example, if some students are unable to read and write at an appropriate level, the principal as instructional leader should take steps to alleviate the problem by supporting teachers' instructional methods, allocating resources and materials, visiting classrooms frequently, providing feedback on instructional methods and techniques, and using data to focus attention on improving the curriculum and instruction (Mendez-Morse, 1991).

2.7.5 Some instructional leadership approaches to supervision

Some researchers have over the years identified a number of different approaches that have been applied by instructional leaders who use some contemporary models of supervision like clinical supervision. These include the Directive, Collaborative and the Non-Directive approaches, which are applied either separately or a combination when using clinical supervision or other models that evolved out of clinical supervision. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) in examining clinical supervision observed that during post- observation conference, supervisors may employ one or a combination of the approaches to address issues which come out of the instructional delivery process to plan actions for instructional improvement.

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They contend that even though a supervisor may employ a combination of these approaches, he/she may be inclined to one of them.

The Directive Approach: This supervisory approach consists of two forms: the directive control approach and directive informational approach. In both situations, the supervisor and teacher go through the various stages of clinical supervision up to the post-conference phase where they formulate action plans for improvement in subsequent lessons (Glickman &Tamashiro, 1980). In the directive control approach the supervisor acts like the traditional supervisory approach where the supervisor details what the teacher is to do, and spells out the criteria for improvement (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). In using the directive informational approach, however, the supervisor provides some alternative suggestions from which the teacher may choose, rather than telling the teacher what actions he/she should take. In this situation the supervisor does not directly determine what action a teacher should embark upon, although the ideas may come from the supervisor through suggestions.

The directive approach in clinical supervision is very reminiscent of the traditional form ofSupervision where the supervisor is presumed to be more knowledgeable about instructionalprocedures and strategies than the teacher, and that his/her decisions are likely to be more effective than those of the teachers in terms of instructional improvement. In this regard some researchers suggest that the directive approach to supervision should be employed whendealing with new and inexperienced teachers (Glickman &Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman,1990). They caution however that such approach should only be used in an emergency situation where the teacher is new, totally inexperienced, or incompetent in the current classroom situation. In this case the supervisor must use his instructional leadership skills to help

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out the teacher and save him/her from grappling with instructional problems. Pajak (2002) also suggests the directive approach should be used on new and inexperienced teachers and argues that a new teacher may have difficulty grappling with a problem presented in a straightforward manner. Pajak, however, advocates for a minimal use of the directive approach and cautions that being overly directive can easily encourage dependency in the new teacher toward the supervisor.

The Collaborative Approach: Supervisors who use this approach believe that teaching is a problem-solving process in which two or more people pose a problem, experiment and implement those teaching strategies that are deemed relevant. In the view of Glickman (1990),the supervisor's role in this approach is to guide the problem-solving process, play an activepart in the interaction and help keep teachers focused on their common problems. The instructional leader and teacher mutually agree on the structures, processes, and criteria for subsequent instructional improvement.

In the collaborative approach to supervision both the supervisor and teacher show respect for each other's input and mutually negotiate the plan of action (Glickman, 1990). In this regard the final plan of action is collectively written to include views of the two parties who remain committed to execute it for instructional improvement in the school. In doing so the teacher and supervisor review, revise, reject, propose and counter propose until they both come to a mutualagreement (Glickman, 1990). Glickman (1990) further contends that the final product of the collaboration is a contract agreed upon by both parties and carried out as a joint responsibility in the following manner:

Presenting: the instructional leader confronts the teacher with his/her perceptions of the instructional area needing improvement;

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Clarifying: the leader asks for the teacher's perceptions of the instructional area in question;

Listening: the supervisor listens to teachers' perceptions;

Problem-solving: both the supervisor and the teacher propose alternate actions for instructionalimprovement (supervisor does not impose action plans on teacher);

Negotiating: the supervisor and teacher discuss the options and alter proposed actions until a joint plan is agreed upon.

In the collaborative approach to supervision there is a sense of trust and mutual respect because the assumption is that teachers and supervisors see each other as valuable partners in the supervisory process. This creates a more relaxed supervisory environment for the supervisee in the pursuit of his/her instructional practices, and probably makes him/her welcome the observation process with a positive mind set.

The Non-directive approach:in this approach the supervisor plays a more facilitative role as it is based on the premise that teachers are capable of analyzing and solving their own instructional problems. According to Glickman (2002) improvement in instructional delivery is likely to be meaningful when a teacher sees the need for a change and takes responsibility of it. Supervisors in the non-directive approach therefore play facilitative roles only and provide direction or little formal structures to the improvement plan. A non-directive approach to supervision is often employed when dealing with experienced teachers (Glickman &Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). In this vein instructional leaders who adopt this approach in clinical supervision may not go through all the five stage format when supervising experienced teachers. Such teachers can also be those who possess much knowledge in their specific subject areas and are capable of recognizing new trends and need for

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improvement. Glickman and Tamashiro also suggest that this approach should be employed when a teacher or a group of teachers has full responsibility for carrying out a decision, or care about solving a problem and the supervisor has little involvement. In this case, the supervisor do not lead the discussion, but rather solicit opinions, ask for clarification, reflect on issues being discussed, and present his/her opinions and suggestions.

2.7.6 Supervisory characteristics of Instructional leaders

Some theorists and empirical studies have observed that some supervisory characteristics have a greater potential of improving instruction. These characteristics include personal attributes that supervisors possess and exhibit in the course of their work, as well as their knowledge of content, expertise and skills, behaviour, and attitudes towards teachers. Apart from this there are also practices which include the activities they go through and the techniques they employ when supervising instruction in their schools. In a study conducted by Blasé and Blasé (1999) in the United States of America (USA) on teachers perspective on how principals promote instruction the participants provided data on a range of supervisor characteristics. This has made the work by Blasé and Blasé serve as a reference point for a number of researchers who severally point to the characteristics as essential and appropriate for instructional improvement.

i. Trust and Respect:Participants in the study by Blasé and Blasé (1999) identified several supervisor characteristics which have the potential of positively affecting teacher performance which will eventually lead to improve children's output. From their descriptions researchers have come to believe that teachers have trust, respect and confidence in a supervisor who is knowledgeable and an expert in instructional delivery. Teachers have high

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expectations in their school heads or principals to be knowledgeable in subject matter content in teaching strategies so that they (supervisors) can provide the needed assistance and support to teachers. Undoubtedly teachers' trust in the principal's ability to assist and support them in their instructional practices is essential in the supervisory process (Sullivan &Glanz, 2000). Suulivan and Glanz suggest that teachers must be able to rely on their supervisors for instructional assistance, moral boosting, and curriculum planning. They further suggest that supervisors should be honest to their teachers and be open to discussions and propose that supervisors must have a working knowledge of the curriculum and pedagogy and, be a "master teacher".

On her part Holland (2004) asserts that teachers would have trust and confidence in supervisors who demonstrate evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about what they do and how they do it. She believes that credentials alone do not inspire trust, but rather how they are applied in practice. She also believes that teachers would trust a supervisor with whom they can confide. Teachers will not trust a supervisor who discusses teachers' performances and instructional practices with other people, whether openly or surreptitiously.

Sullivan and Glanz, (2000) also believes that supervisors must be continuous learners by attending periodic trainings so as to be able to provide useful assistance, advice, and supportto teachers; and thereby develop the trust that teachers have in them. To them having knowledge alone is not enough but the ability to use the knowledge judiciously to teachers grow professionally is the ultimate objective. In a study conducted in Botswana by Pansiri (2008) on teachers' "perspectives on instructional leadership for quality learning" he

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found out that about 77 percent of teachers in public primary schools who participated in the study trusted their supervisors because they could assist teachers. This gives further credence that supervisors must command and gain the trust and respect of their teachers and demonstrate that teachers can confide in them.

ii. Listening:According to Sillivan and Glanz (2000) one of the key responsibilities of supervisors who practice instructional leadership effectively is listening to, and hearing the needs of teachers. Teachers who participated in Blasé and Blasé‟s (1999) study indicated that their supervisors listened to their concerns and tried to assist them in any way possible. Similarly, teachers in Pansiri's (2008) study in Botswana also alluded that their supervisors listened to and shared their concerns, as well as being accessible and approachable.

iii. Praise:Many have theorized and shown empirically that praising teachers is one key supervisor characteristics that significantly affects teacher motivation, self-esteem and efficacy (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). According to Blasé and Blasé (1999; 2004) praising teachers is a critical function of instructional leadership that fosters teachers' reflective behaviour, by reinforcing teaching strategies, taking risks, and innovation/ creativity. Pansiri (2008) also sees it as a critical function of pedagogical leadership and reported that about 70 percent of teachers who participated in his study said their supervisors praised them for demonstrating good teaching strategies and skills.

Planning for lesson observation:Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan andGoldhammer advised that supervisors must mutually plan their lesson observation with teachers, rather than surprising them with unexpected

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classroom visits with predetermined rating scales. This style makes teachers portray supervision negatively as a tool to expose their instructional problems. Blasé and Blasé (2004) suggested that supervisors should mutually decide with their teachers on what and how to observe before proceeding to the classroom to observe a lesson. Pansiri (2008) also observed in his study in Botswana that 75 percent of public primary school teachers who participated in the study indicated that they received their supervisors as instructional delivery partners because they planned classroom visits together. This actually improves supervisor- supervisee relationships, which sometimes tends to be tense due to suspicions on the part of teachers.

iv. Lesson Observation: A careful study of the various models of supervision discussed earlier show that lesson observation is one of the major functions of instructional leaders or supervisors. It has been used by many supervisors as the main tool in assessing teachers' content knowledge as well as their competencies in instructional delivery and strategies. This enables supervisors to identify teachers' challenges and offer the necessary support so as to enhance improvement in instructional delivery as well as professional development. During lesson observation it is imperative for supervisors to focus on what has been agreed upon to be observed during the pre-observation conference so as to stay on track and also be objective in the assessment (Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969; Miller & Miller, 1987).

Reports from empirical studies have shown that while some supervisors were able to visit classrooms to observe lessons, others could not (Pansiri, 2008). Furthermore there have been occasions where supervisors could not offer support to teachers during lesson observations and was revealed in the study

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by Pansiri (2008) in Botswana. Others, however, visitedclassrooms and wrote notes on what was exactly happening in the classrooms with the aim of providing relevant feedback to teachers on their instructional practices. Not much was shown by Pansiri about the proportions in each case, but it was clear that some supervisors could not meet the demands of their work.

v. Feedback:In supervisory practicesvisiting classrooms and providing feedback to teachers is considered one of the major roles of supervisors. Providing feedback help teachers to reflect on what actually took place in the teaching and learning process. Blasé and Blasé (2004) believe that feedback should not be a formality, but should serve as a guide for instructional improvement when it is given genuinely. Indeed, feedback in any form (whether formal or informal, written or oral) should focus on observations rather than perspectives. Blasé and Blasé (2004) further theorize that feedback reflectively informs teacher behaviour and this result in teachers implementing new ideas, trying out a variety of instructional practices, responding to student diversity, and planning more carefully and achieving better focus.

vi. Teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study reported school principals provided them with positive and constructive feedback about lessons hey observed. They indicated that the feedback provided by their principals were specific, non-judgmental and supportive, thereby encouraging them to re-evaluate their instructional strategies. Similarly, Pansiri (2008) also reported in his study that 70 percent of teachers in public primary schools in Botswana said their supervisors provided them with constructive feedback on classroom practices. From these empirical sources teachers have confirmed the

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relevance of feedback to teachers as a tool for helping teachers reflect on their teaching so as to improve.

vii. Modeling lessons:Supervisors who try to model lessons for teachers are seen as knowledgeable in their professional practice. Some researchers actually believe that conducting demonstration lessons can improve teachers' instructional practices considerably (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Demonstration lessons are not only used to assist young and inexperienced teachers, but they can also be used for veteran teachers as well. Researchers have noted that supervisors sometimes learn new things from teachers during lesson observations and try to transfer such techniques or knowledge to other teachers by modeling such behaviours to them (Rous, 2004).

Offering Suggestions: According to Blasé and Blasé (2004) offering suggestion to teachers in order to guide their instructional practice is a key supervisory practice that has been found to be fruitful. They observe that principals (supervisors) make suggestions in such a way as to broaden, or enrich teachers' thinking and strengths. They also note that suggestions encourage creativity and innovation, as well as support the work environment. Evidence from the works of Rous (2004) and Blasé and Blasé (1999) indicated that teachers overwhelmingly reported that successful principals (supervisors) offered suggestions to improve teaching and learning, vary their instructional methods, and help solve problems. The participants in those studies found principals' suggestions very useful and strongly enhanced reflection and informed instructional behaviour. Rous (2004) further noted that teachers were willing to try suggestions which were offered sincerely by their supervisors,

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because they believed that those suggestions could improve their effectiveness in instructional delivery.

viii. Promoting collaboration:Supervisors are expected to act as catalysts in bringing about effective collaboration between teachers. DuFour (2004) describes such collaboration as a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyse and implement their classroom practices to improve instruction. Other researchers also suggest that supervisors, in the course of their work must provide time and opportunities for teachers to effectively collaborate with one another to improve their instructional delivery skills and strategies (Blasé and Blasé, 1999; DuFour, 2004; Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001; Sergiovanni&Starratt 1993). Promoting collaboration therefore must be seen as a deliberate and conscious activity which effective instructional leaders do to enhance collegiality among teachers.

ix. Promoting professional development:Research has shown that providing in-service training in the form of seminars, workshops, conferences and symposia can promote teachers' professional practice. Additionally, providing literature about instruction, especially new research findings, equip teachers with expertise in their practice (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glickman, 2003). Supervisors have the responsibility to provide professional development opportunities to teachers by either organising workshops and seminars for them or sponsoring them to attend those that are organized by professional bodies and subject associations. Pansiri (2008) reported that 83 percent of public school teachers in Botswana admitted that their supervisors ran school-based workshops for them to address their curriculum needs while 73 percent of them were also given opportunities to facilitate in such workshops.

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2.8Sources from Empirical Studies

It is imperative that findings from some empirical studies be reviewed so as to identify some best practices and trends in the concepts under study. This section therefore reviews findings pertaining to instructional leadership; supervisors' knowledge in clinical supervision and its application, the kind of support teachers receive from supervisors and the professional relationship that exist between teachers and supervisors.

2.8.1Supervisors' Understanding and Practice of their Instructional Leadership Roles

A number of empirical research findings have shown that school supervisors perform various supervisory activities that reflect their understanding of their roles as instructional leaders. Findings from the studies of Blasé and Blasé (1999; 2004), Rous (2004) and Pansiri (2008), have all shown that supervisors demonstrated their understanding of their instructional leadership roles through the activities they perform and their supervisory characteristics. Blasé and Blasé (1999) conducted a study among American teachers and principals on effective instructional leadership. They found out that most American school principals who participated in the study understood and performed instructional leadership roles along two themes: Talking to teachers to promote teachers' reflective practice and promoting staff professional growth.

According to Blasé & Blasé (1999) teachers who participated in their study pointed out some supervisory characteristics of their principals which they considered as reminiscent of their roles as effective instructional leaders. The report further

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revealed that school principals who participated in the study usually made teachers' professional growth and reflective behaviour their topmost priority. They demonstrated this by offering useful suggestions on instructional behaviour, listening to teachers and sharing their experiences with them. They also gave feedback, praise teachers for good and innovative performance, visit classrooms and modeling lessons. The effect of these behaviours is the enhancement of teachers' effectiveness in instructional delivery with the ultimate aim of improving children's learning outcomes.Teachers in Blasé &Blasé's study also indicated their school principals' roles in promoting staff professional growth. To them, school principals who understood effective instructional leadership used a number of strategies to promote professional growth in teachers, and they did that consistently to enhance teacher effectiveness. These strategies included supporting and promoting collaboration among teachers, emphasizing the study of teaching and learning and developing coaching relationships among teachers.

Similarly, findings by Pansiri (2008) on effective instructional leadership in Botswana revealed that school supervisors' understanding of instructional leadership is reflected in their daily activities in schools. Pansiri's findings which corroborated that of Blase and Blasé (1999) also revealed that instructional leaders in Botswana also engage in school administration, management and community coordination activities. Respondents in Pansiri's research revealed that effective instructional leaders had good administrative structures in their schools, and also promote effective collaboration between their schools and the communities. Indeed promoting effective collaboration between the school and the community was seen as an important administrative role of an instructional leader in the African context. This is because in most African countries, which Ghana is no exception, schools are regarded as

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community owned and that it was always necessary to promote good and effective school-community relationship that will make community members show greater interest in their children's education. Thus from the work of Pansiri (2008) and Blasé & Blasé (1999) it can be noted that instructional leaders who understand their leadership roles well do not only focus on routine school administrative work, but also spend much time in promoting staff growth, instructional effectiveness and strong school-community relationship.

Other researchers like Rous (2004) have also referred to the work of Blasé & Blasé (1999) as a base for finding out how school leaders understand their instructional leadership roles. In her study in the US public primary schools Rous found out that school principals who participated in her study demonstrated their understanding of their instructional leadership roles in their daily activities at school. Such principals, according to Rous, also promoted healthy interaction among members in a way of promoting collegiality in the school community. It is an instructional leadership role which teachers in the study acknowledged to be helpful in their instructional delivery activities in their schools. Beside this teachers in the study by Rous also revealed that principals who understood their instructional leadership roles demonstrated some personal attributes like showing respect to teachers, seeking collaboration and showing interest in staff development issues. Furthermore, the teachers noted that principals encouraged them to be more innovative in teaching so as to improve teaching and learning in their schools. This assertion by the teachers in Rous' findings further confirms the earlier findings by Blasé & Blasé (1999) where teachers acknowledged the roles their principals play in making them more effective in the classroom. Although the studies above were not directly on the understanding of instructional leadership, the activities of the school

principals clearly pointed out how they understood their instructional leadership roles. Although Rous and the other researchers reported on effective instructional leadership their studies did not investigate how the school principals understand their instructional leadership roles.

Rogers (2009) also conducted a research in the US on instructional leadership among principals and their assistants. The study which was conducted in the state of Virginia revealed that apart from the principals, assistant school principals had also been trained in instructional leadership and as such performed a number of roles assigned to them by their principals. Rogers (2009) concluded that based on their understanding of instructional leadership, middle school principals assigned some specific roles to their assistants who are also trained as instructional leaders. These roles are 1) developing a school climate that is conducive to teaching and learning, 2) improving student discipline, and 3) communicating a concern for student achievement. Rogers further concludes that the more instructional leaders in a school the more involved assistant heads are with tasks that are associated with developing an academic climate. In effect supervisors who understand instructional leadership spend time developing academic climate for their schools either by themselves or by delegating such responsibilities to their assistants. It can therefore be concluded from the above discussion once supervisors understand their roles well as instructional leaders they will practice effective supervision that can motivate teachers to improve their performance in instructional delivery. This will lead to a desirable students' learning outcome in our schools.

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2.8.2 Knowledge acquired by supervisors in clinical supervision and how they use it in basic schools

To be able to engage in clinical supervision, school site supervisors as well as external supervisors need to be equipped with some skills and knowledge about clinical supervision. The literature is ripe with a number of theoretical knowledge and concepts supervisors must have, as well as skills needed to use clinical supervision (Sullivan &Glanz, 2000). However, there seem to be scanty research that focuses on empirical evidence on the use of clinical supervision. According to the American Board of Examiners (ABE, 2004) this apparent lack of adequate empirical evidence in the practice of clinical supervision in schools has led to a renewed interest in the United States of America in rigorous evidence-based research about approaches to practice, but few results as yet.

As a way forward, an empirically based research was done in United Kingdom, where an evidence-based experiential model of clinical supervision was formulated (Milne &Westerman, 2001). This research, however, did not produce evidence of practice by school supervisors. It rather emphasized instructional and methodological components of clinical supervision, and was tested in the field of mental health nursing rather than education. Milne and Westerman (2001) concluded in their research that knowledge about clinical supervision could be measured systematically and supervisory skills could also be enhanced through evidence-based practice. In a more specific term Kelehear (2010) noted that supervisors with such skills as observation skills, analytical skills, data collection skills, counseling and mentoring skills have better influence on their clients' success. To him, teachers whose supervisors used their knowledge about the stages of clinical supervision effectively with these skills saw some improvement in their professional practice.

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This therefore means that having conceptual knowledge about clinical supervision must be backed with requisite supervisory skills in order to help teachers achieve their full potentials through supervision.

Supervisory techniques such as counseling, mentoring, and motivating teachers during clinical supervision also exemplify the various characteristics of supervisors which were noted in the findings by Blasé and Blasé (1999), where supervisors talked to teachers on reflective behaviours and promoted their professional growth. Although the study by Blasé and Blasé (1999) was on instructional leadership and that supervisors were not assessed on their knowledge in clinical supervision, skills displayed in the form of supervisory characteristics were also applicable for effective clinical supervision. However, the acquisition of these skills does not mean supervisors do use clinical supervision and this has contributed to the seeming lack of empirical evidence in that area. This means that much more research is needed in the use of clinical supervision in schools, especially in the Ghanaian context so as to find out the extent to which knowledge and skills about clinical supervision can be put to practice.

2.8.3Support systems teachers receive from supervisors

Empirical evidence from various studies on effective instructional leadership points to a number of support systems given to teachers as a result of instructional leadership activities by supervisors (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Ayse Bas, 2002; Holland, 2004; Pansiri, 2008). Teachers who participated in the research by Blasé & Blasé (1999) in the United States of America indicated some kinds of support they received from their principals. According to the teachers such support promoted their instructional delivery effectiveness as well as their professional growth. The findings

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identified such support from the principals as giving feedback, modeling some instructional behaviours, providing literature on professional practice, and sharing their experiences with the teachers. Feedback, for instance, was identified by the teachers as a very good kind of leadership support as it helped them to engage in reflective practice, use instructional variety, improve instructional planning, and improve their self esteem. To them instructional leaders who give informative feedback, are like "mirrors" to the teachers and serve as "another set of eyes"; they are critical friends who engage in thoughtful discourse with teachers.

Another support system which teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study identified as very helpful was when supervisors model instructional behaviours or strategies. Modeling instructional strategies for teachers was seen to have a positive effect on teacher motivation and reflective behaviour. This finding was further supported by that of Pansiri (2008) in his study of instructional leadership in Botswana. Teachers in that study also pointed out the positive effects feedback and modeling of teaching strategies had on their reflective behaviour and teaching generally. This kind of assistance helps build teachers' confidence in classrooms, with a consequential effect in improved lesson delivery and children's learning. Indeed when teachers get the assurance that their supervisors can help them overcome pedagogical difficulties it reduces the level of anxieties they have about their instructional effectiveness.

In a study conducted in India by Tyagi (2009)the result revealed that teachers receive a lot of support from their supervisors which enhanced their classroom performance. This included access to relevant literature on professional practice, journals and magazines of teaching and learning. The teachers in the study considered this as a good support system since it increased their professional competencies and

instructional effectiveness. Pansiri (2008) also reported in his study in Botswana that about 83% of teachers in the study confirmed that their supervisors ran school-based workshops to address their curriculum needs. The teachers were very appreciative of the various support systems they received from their principals, intimating that it increased their efficiency in instructional delivery.Pansiri (2008), however, noted that some supervisors could not support their teachers especially in lesson observation and visiting classrooms. This was apparently due to additional administrative duties of the supervisors, which Pansiri noted, was affecting the effective performance of the principals' instructional leadership roles in supporting teachers' instructional effectiveness. Blasé and Blasé (1999) had earlier reported in their study that teachers acknowledged the valuable support they received from their principals which they believed promoted their professional practice. They said that their principals provided them with funds and access to attend workshops, seminars and conferences aimed at improving their classroom behaviours.

Selecting and effectively utilizing instructional materials is one key area where teachers need support. To enhance their instructional effectiveness teachers need to be provided with the necessary materials to use to make teaching and learning more effective. Results from empirical studies have indicated that some instructional leaders ensured that their teachers were provided with, and assisted to select appropriate teaching and learning materials to improve instruction (Rous, 2004).

According to Rous some principals in US public primary schools who took part in her study provided their teachers with resources, materials and funds to support classroom activities. She also found out in her study that other supervisors, however, failed to provide such support although they supported their teachers in other ways. In Botswana, for instance, Pansiri (2008) reported that about 59% of teachers in his

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study said they did not receive all the teaching and learning materials they needed for their classes. He further indicated that only 22% of the teachers said they rather received enough materials from their principals. However,Pansiricould not quantify the amount or number of materials the teachers received by means of supporting instruction. This kind of insufficient support in the area of instructional materials could be attributed to economic reasons and may not be peculiar to Botswana alone, but common in public basic schools in other developing countries like Ghana. In any case, however, it is an undeniable fact that when teachers are adequately supported with relevant instructional materials by their supervisors and other educational authorities they will be able to perform better in the teaching and learning process in schools.

2.8.4Relationship between and teachers supervisors

Relationships between supervisors and teachers have evoked some mixed reactions just as supervision itself has undergone various evolutionary stages and phases. Depending on the motive of supervision, many supervisors have adopted different styles in their supervisory activities, and these have mostly determined how the parties involved in supervision (supervisees and supervisors) have related to each other. Findings by Sergiovanni and Starrat (1993) revealed a rather unpleasant kind of relationship when supervisors mostly adopted the top-down approach in their work as inspectors. Teachers under this kind of supervision saw their supervisors only as a “band of executioners” and “fault finders” who were only interested in exposing teachers’ mistakes and finding faults with their instructional practices (Sergiovanni&Starrat, 1993). In this vein there existed the superior-subordinate kind of professional relationship (Glanz, 1994) with the expression of trust and respect very low. As supervisors began adopting different approaches to supervision that

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seemed more collaborative in nature relationships with teachers also got improved considerably.

Empirical evidence from the works of Blasé & Blasé (1999; 2004) revealed that teachers in the United States of America who participated in their study had cordial relationships with their supervisors (principals) due to their characteristics. According to Blasé and his colleague supervisors in their study showed respect to their teachers, listened to their problems, shared their experiences with the teachers, and praised them whenever they performed well in some concrete teaching behaviours. Findings by other researchers like Bays (2001), Rous (2004) and Holland (2004) have all shown the positive effects of good supervisor characteristics on the relationship between teachers and supervisors. Rous revealed that school principals created positive and healthy relationships with teachers when they showed respect to teachers, families and children. According to her, supervisors who neglected their teachers, and failed to show care and respect to them also lost the trust and respect of such teachers.

Holland (2004) confirmed this and indicates that supervisor who do not respect and care for teachers, and share in their experiences also lose the confidence of the teachers. Holland revealed that teachers will not trust a supervisor who discusses teachers' performances and instructional practices with other people, whether openly or surreptitiously. Thus, supervisors must try to create cordial professional relationship between themselves and their teachers by getting closer to them, sharing their challenges and engaging them in discussions that are geared towards professional growth.

Both Pansiri (2008) and Ayse Bas (2002) also reported of different kinds of relationship that exist between supervisors and teachers. While Pansiri report in his study in Botswana of a cordial relationship between principals and teachers due to

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supervisory characteristics of principals, Bas rather reported not too healthy a situation in Turkey. Some teachers who participated in the study by Ayse Bas in Turkey reported that they were not happy with some aspects of their supervisors' work because they failed to appreciate and praise their efforts. Although others reported cordial relationships with their principals, it was obvious that some kind of improvement was needed in the general working relationships.

Results of various studies examined above, have all proved that teachers would embrace supervisors who show them respect, care for their needs and act as critical friends in supporting them to improve their instructional effectiveness in classroom. As supervisors demonstrate good supervisory skills and practices as a result of their understanding of their instructional leadership roles, they also create bridges between themselves and teachers, thereby closing the professional gaps between themselves and the teachers they supervise.

2.9 Conceptual framework of the study

Instructional leadership and clinical supervision, as have been defined and explained earlier in this chapter, are two supervision models with a high potential of improving teachers' classroom behaviour and performance. Supervisors who practice instructional leadership in their schools need to deliberately create a supportive, productive and satisfying working environment that will help teachers perform well in their instructional delivery activities. Characteristically, instructional leaders may employ different models of supervision such as clinical supervision, and also use different but productive approaches in their activities. This will further lead to a desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children (Greenfield, 1985; Matsei, 1992).

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Under instructional leadership school supervisors must engage in effective instructional planning, instructional observation, communicating with teachers (Lashway, 2002) and planning staff development and appraisal programmes (Matsei, 1992) so as to improve teachers' instructional delivery and children's learning outcomes. In doing these, instructional leaders must maintain visible presence in their schools (Krueger, 1997; Whitaker, 1997), provide instructional resources and also act as instructional resource base for teachers (Whitaker, 1997). They must engage in a cycle of systematic planning so as to be part of the daily classroom activities in order to identify challenges facing teachers in instructional delivery and develop strategies to overcome them.

Effective instructional leadership entails that supervisors must "eat and sleep" teaching and learning and make them the top priorities in the school (McEwan, 1998). In this respect, supervisors under instructional leadership develop and apply different supervision styles and approaches that will improve teaching and learning in their schools. Instructional leaders' visibility in class must be used to motivate teachers, monitor instruction, be accessible and provide support and to have knowledge on what actually goes on in the school.

The use of clinical supervision to supervise teachers' classroom instructional delivery also brings supervisors closely to the classroom to be part of the daily classroom activities. This happens when supervisors plan lessons together with teachers, talk to teachers on ways to improve instructional delivery, engage teachers to provide informative feedback and show up in classrooms to observe instruction.

Although clinical supervision has undergone some modifications in terms of usage from its original eight stages it still entails the critical features that seeks to create a friendly atmosphere in teacher supervision. Whether one is using the eight-

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stage approach (Goldhammer, 1969), the five-stage approach (Cogan, 1973) or even the three-stage approach (Acheson & Gall, 1980) the principle remains unchanged. Thus in clinical supervision supervisors create a relaxed, friendly and conducive educational environment for teachers so that instructional delivery and teachers' performance would be improved.

A critical review of the elements of clinical supervision and instructional leadership reveals some important commonalities thereby making it easier for the two to be merged in approach. In clinical supervision, just as instructional leadership, the focus is on the teacher and how to improve his/her instructional performance. In applying clinical supervision supervisors engage teachers in a very relaxed and clinical atmosphere so as to systematically plan, develop and observe teachers' classroom instruction in a way that will be mutually acceptable to both. This possibly helps create good professional relationship between teachers and supervisors, thereby removing the negative perception teachers have about supervisors (Sergiovanni&Staratt, 1993). Clinical supervision and instructional leadership when used properly will improve teachers reflective behaviour and classroom practice for the overall improvement of children's learning and outcomes. An integration of the two concepts will provide a productive and supportive teaching and learning environment in the school so as to reflect its core business, which is teaching and learning (De Bevoise, 1984).

The characteristics of instructional leadership, which includes the application of different supervision models such as clinical supervision implies that supervisors who practice their roles as instructional leaders are mostly seen to be closer to their teachers and the children they teach. Instructional leaders immerse themselves in the teaching and learning activities of the school. They therefore seek the best approaches

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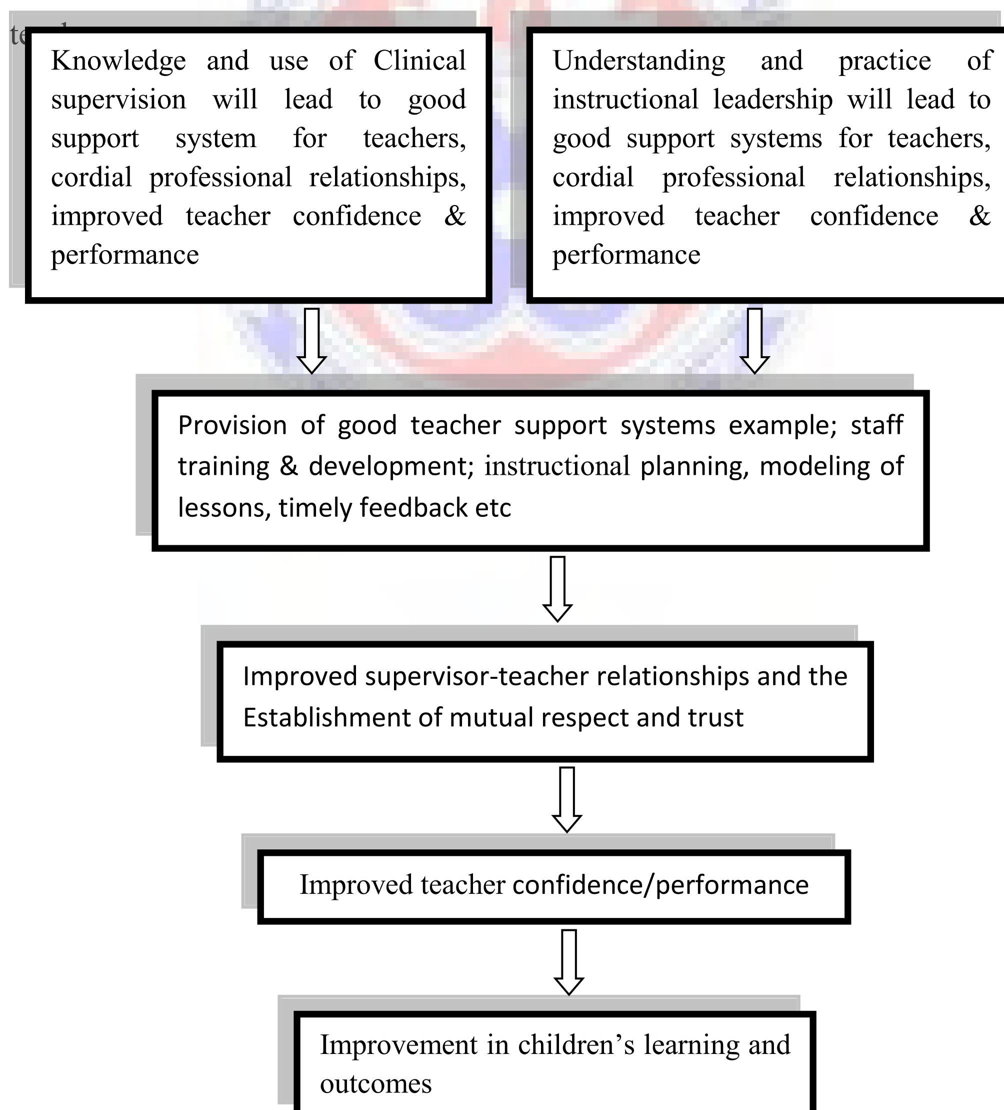
and practices in teacher and instructional supervision so as to help teachers improve their professional practice. The nature of clinical supervision and the stages of its use coupled with the expected advantages to the teacher makes it quite relevant for use by supervisors in instructional leadership with a view to creating a relaxed, friendly and productive teaching and learning atmosphere for teachers and children. An effective combination of instructional leadership and clinical supervision will lead to the creation of good support systems for teachers, improved professional relationships, improved teacher confidence and performance and a general improvement in children's learning. Figure 1 provides a pictorial representation of the framework:

Fig. 1 Combining instructional leadership and clinical supervision in supervising te



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2.10Chapter Summary

This chapter has dealt extensively with the concepts of supervision and instructional leadership. Various issues regarding school and teacher supervision has been discussed with emphasis on models of supervision where clinical supervision was discussed among others. It is important to note that supervisors who play the role of instructional leaders need to be abreast with a variety of teacher supervision models, especially those that engender creativity, friendliness, and promote teachers' professional growth. To this end supervisors need to be skillful and knowledgeable, and this requires a conscious effort of continuous learning as observed by Stronge (2008). Furthermore the chapter has discussed some approaches used by instructional leaders as well as some supervisor characteristics. Findings from empirical sources on the main research questions have also been reviewed with the view to ensuring that supervision in the context of instructional leadership will serve its purpose of improving teaching and learning in schools for improved students' achievement. In addition the chapter has provided a conceptual framework of the application of instructional leadership and clinical supervision emphasizing on some critical instructional leadership roles.

It must also be noted that supervisors in their quest to become effective instructional leaders, are not restricted to using a prescription of models but rather a combination of best practices. One should not be inclined into believing that applying some aspects of the traditional hierarchical type of supervision may be counter-productive. In times when the directive approach of supervision is required it is prudent for the person involved to employ the skills and art of supervision in order to smoothen the rough edges and perfect the desirable ones for the overall improvement in instructional delivery.

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It is clear from the foregoing that supervisors who understand their roles as instructional leaders avail themselves to offer the needed support to teachers and pupils. They are continuous learners who have a variety of models, skills and approaches of modern supervision to choose from. All these are done with the ultimate aim of improving teachers' instructional effectiveness for the overall improvement in children's learning.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology and the techniques and procedures employed in carrying out the study. It gives a detailed description of the research design, population, sampling techniques and procedures, method for data collection, instruments for data collection, validity of instruments, reliability of instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations,

3.2 Research Design

The study was a descriptive survey designed to find out how respondents understand and practice instructional leadership and use clinical supervision in schools. A mixed method survey design was employed and data was collected using qualitative and quantitative instruments. According to Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh& Sorensen (2006), a descriptive survey uses instruments such as questionnaires and interviews to gather information from people or subjects. Cohen, Mannion and Morrison (2000) also posit that survey research involves the collection of data to answer questions concerning the phenomenon under study and is used to describe the existing conditions. It also seeks to identify standards against which existing conditions can be compared and/or investigate the relationship that may exist between events.

The descriptive survey design was chosen for this study because in education and other social sciences the survey method is considered to be the dominant form of data collection (Fink, 2002). Investigators in a descriptive survey research mostly use questionnaires, but may use both interviews and questionnaire to gather information from respondents about their understanding of the subject under study (Ary, et al,

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2006). Furthermore, the descriptive survey design deals with things as they currently are (Creswell, 2003) and that investigators do not attempt to control or manipulate the variables (Kelly, Clark, Brown and Sitzia, 2003).

The cross sectional approach was also employed in the study in view of the limited time and inadequate funds to embark on an extensive survey. The cross sectional approach is usually designed to study a phenomenon, situation or issue by taking a cross section (representative) of the population at one point in time (Becker and Bryman, 2004; Merriam, 1998). It is considered an appropriate approach for the study because results from cross sectional survey could be generalized to represent the entire population of the study (Amin, 2005).

The study also employed both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Creswell (2003) suggests that a design can be qualitative, quantitative or mixed (triangulation). This study used the method triangulation which uses different methods to assess the same aspect of a phenomenon (Krathwohl, 1993). For example, one might compare behaviour observations with interviews or with questionnaire responses or compare observations of achievement in one classroom with measures of achievement. Triangulation is therefore used to provide support for a finding (Mathison, 1988) and the result is often inconsistency or contradiction.

Qualitative research methodology is usually used to explore a topic where the variables and theory base are unknown (Creswell, 2003) and the data collected are often expressed as spoken words, actions, sounds, symbols, physical objects, or pictures (Neuman, 2003). Conversely, quantitative research methodology is useful for studying research problems that require a description of trends or an explanation of the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research methodology allows researchers to focus on description and explanation, establish the overall

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tendency of responses from individuals in a study, note how certain tendencies vary among people, explain the relationship among variables, and determine whether one or more variables influence another variable (Creswell, 2003). The mixed approach is where both qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in a single study.

Within the domain of quantitative research, descriptive research and co relational are potential research designs option, where a particular phenomenon is studied without modifying that phenomenon. As widely accepted, the descriptive method of research is a fact-finding study that involves adequate and accurate interpretation of findings. Descriptive research describes a certain present condition. The purpose of employing the descriptive method is to describe the nature of acondition, as it takes place during the time of the study and to explore the cause or causes of a particular condition. The mixed method approach was employed so that the responses obtained from both the questionnaire and the interviews could be used to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research questions asked. Furthermore, using the mixed approach makes it possible for researchers to use the results from one instrument to confirm or corroborate findings from the other (Creswell, 2003).

3.3. Population

The population for the study comprised teachers, headteachers, circuit supervisors and a district head of supervision ofSekyere South District Directorate of the Ghana Education Service. These were drawn from a population of 1720 personnel representing 1597 teachers, 115 head teachers, 7 circuit supervisors and 1 district head of supervision.

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3.3.1 Sample and sampling procedure

The total sample size for the study was 126 participants comprising of 90 teachers, 30 headteachers, 5 circuit supervisors and 1district head of supervision. This sample size was deemed appropriate as it fairly represented the population under study. According Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002) a sample size can be large or small but the most important characteristic is its representativeness, not its size. Out of this number, a total of 111 respondents made up of 74 males and 37 females returned their questionnaires. They were mostly in the youthful age bracket as 93 of them(84%) were aged between 18 and 39 years, while 18 of them (16%) were also aged between 40 and 59 years. All except two were professionally trained teachers with 72 of them (65%) holding Diploma in Basic Education certificates, while 31 (27%) of them also have bachelor's degrees in education. Further details on the demographic characteristics of participants can be found in table 1.

The teachers and headteachers were chosen from three circuits in the district as well as five circuit supervisors and the head of inspectorate unit in the district. The circuits were labeled and identified as circuits A, B and C, and from each circuit 30 teachers and 10headteachers were selected. Sinceheadteachers and circuit supervisors are primarily responsible for internal and external supervision in basic schools and perform similar roles, it was deemed appropriate to use them in the study to find out their understanding of their roles as instructional leaders, and also their ability to use clinical supervision in their schools. Teachers were also selected for the study because they are directly affected by the work of the supervisors. They could therefore give adequate information on how they are supported by the supervisors as well as the kind of professional relationship that exist between them and their supervisors. The teachers were selected through a simple random technique whiles the headteachers

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and circuit supervisors were sampled using the convenience and purposive sampling techniques.

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Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Number of Respondents

Variable		Teachers	Headteachers	C/S	Dist.	Total	Percentage
Sex	Male	53	15	5	1	74	66
	Female	30	7	0		37	34
	Total	83	22	5		111	100
Age	18-29	49	3	0		52	47
	30-39	31	8	2		41	37
	40-59	3	11	3	1	18	16
	Total	83	22	5		111	100
Qualification	MSLC	1	0	0		1	1
	SSCE/A'L	1	0	0		1	1
	Cert A	3	1	0		4	4
	DBE	63	9	0		72	65
	Degree	16	10	4	1	31	27
	Masters	0	2	1		2	2
	Total	83	22	5	1	111	100
Prof. Status	Trained	81	22	5	1	109	98
	Untrained	2	0	0		2	2
	Total	83	22	5	1	111	100
Years Served	< 1	5	0	0		5	5
	1-2 Years	30	11	0		41	37
	3-5 Years	32	4	1		37	34
	6-10 Years	13	6	4		23	20
	10+ Years	3	1	0	1	5	4
	Total	83	22	5	1	111	100

Source: Field Survey, 2012

3.4 Method for Data Collection

The study employed the mixed method approach in data collection. Using this approach allows the researcher to collect enough quantitative and qualitative datatoanswer the research questions. In the mixed method approach researchers are able to use a variety of instruments to collect quantitative and qualitative data that

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wouldfacilitate a comprehensive analysis of the results. Using the mixed method approach in data collection was also expected to ensure validity and reliability of the data collected.

3.5 Instruments for data collection

Instruments used for data collection were questionnaire and semi-structured interview. These two instruments were used to enable the researcher gather enough quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions. The questionnaire was used because the participants were all literate, and therefore could read and respond to the items. Furthermore, closed-ended questionnaires can be answered more easily and quickly by respondents (Ary et al., 2006). Again, due to the large number of respondents, interviewing all of them would be unrealistic and therefore using the questionnaire would enable the researcher reach all the respondents.

The questionnaire consisted of three main sections. These are: 1. Introduction, 2. Demographic data of the participants and 3. Set of items for measuring the four (4) research questions. In all 38 items were used to measure the four research questions and were based on a five-point likert scale which was arranged as 'strongly agree (SA), agree (A), undecided (U), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). According to Borg and Gall (1983) this scale is popular, easy to construct, administer and also score.The coded items were further rated as follows: 5=strongly agree, 4= agree, 3=undecided, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree.

Research Question 1 which is for supervisors had 12 items intended to measure supervisors' understanding and practice of their roles as instructional leaders. The items were constructed based on three sub themes of instructional leadership developed from the review of relevant literature. These are: 1. supervisors' understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles in school

administration and management, 2. Supervisors' understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles in supporting curriculum and instruction delivery, and 3. Supervisors' understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles in promoting staff growth and professional development. Details of the items can be found in appendix C.

Research Question 2 which had ten 10 items was also designed to measure the knowledge supervisors have acquired in clinical supervision and how they use it in basic schools. Knowledge in this context refers to how supervisors understand clinical supervision and the skills they have for its use. The use of clinical supervision also refers to the actual practice of clinical supervision by supervisors. Details of the items on clinical supervision can be found in appendix D.

Respondents for Research Questions 3 and 4 were teachers. Research Question 3 had 10 items and was intended to measure the support systems teachers receive from supervisors while Research Question 4 had 6 items meant to measure the professional relationship that exist between teachers and supervisors. Further details on Research Questions 3 and 4 can be found in appendices E and F.

3.5.1 Interview

In order to get a deeper understanding of how the supervisors understood the concepts under study, a semi-structured interview schedule was constructed for the supervisors (headteachers and circuit supervisors) to help the researcher probe further into the responses on the questionnaire items. For the sake of convenience respondents were put in four focus groups where members could be met together for the administration of the interview schedule. A focus group is a group interview of approximately six to twelve people who share similar characteristics or common

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interests.A successful focus group discussion relies heavily on 'the development of a permissive, non-threatening environment within the group' where the participants can feel comfortable to discuss their opinions and experiences without fear that they will be judged or ridiculed by others in the group (Hennink 2007). Focus group discussions are more akin to natural social interaction among participants.

All the circuit supervisors were put in one group that was labelled as Group 1, while the headteachers were also put in three groups and were labelled as Groups 2, 3 and 4 respectively. The district head of inspectorate was met one-on-one separately from the circuit supervisors. I met the circuit supervisors' group (Group 1) at the district education office and the headteachers (Groups 2, 3 and 4) at their circuit centres on dates agreed upon.I administered the interviews personally in accordance with the interview schedule and assured participants that all recorded information was only for academic purposes and that no one would be personally mentioned. They were all encouraged to take part in the discussions.

According to Creswell (2002), in an interview survey the researcher records answers supplied by the participants for the study. The responses were recorded on tape while some were also hand written for ease of analysis and also to draw themes for conclusions. Through the interviews the researcher was able to elicit further responses from the supervisors on the subjects under investigation

3.6 Validity of Instrument

Validity is the most important consideration in developing and evaluation of measuring instruments (Ary et al, 2002). It is used to determine if an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. In order to ensure the validity of the questionnaire and the interview guides prepared for the study draft copies were sent

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tothe researcher's supervisor for a review. It was later piloted in a study and the responses gathered showed clearly that respondents understood the questions as they were fully and well answered.

3.7 Reliability of Instrument

To ensure the reliability of the instruments questionnaires were given to 20 respondents that comprised 13 teachers, 5 head teachers and 2 circuit supervisors between 12th and 16th March, 2012. Items on the questionnaires were discussed with the respondents to make sure that all forms of doubts and ambiguities were removed. They were then given time to complete and return the questionnaires. Furthermore, 3headteachers were also interviewed using the interview guide. The responses and comments were recorded on tape, transcribed and carefully studied by the researcher. Through the pilot testing some few questions were modified while one was deleted due to repetitions. A reliability coefficient test on the questionnaire items for each of the four research questions gave a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.76, 0.73, 0.76 and 0.71for sections of the questionnaire.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

An introductory letter was obtained from the Department of Educational Leadership, University of Education, Winneba, College of Technology Education, Kumasi, to enableme carry out the research work in the selected schools. This was submitted to the District Director of Education for permission after which copies were given to heads of selected schools and the head of inspectorate unit of the education directorate. The circuit supervisors assisted very well to organize the teachers and head teachers for a meeting so as to seek their maximum support and consent and also assure them of confidentiality.

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The questionnaires were later administered to the participants and a one week period was agreed upon as date for collection. With assistance from the circuit supervisors arrangements were made for teachers to submit the completed questionnaires to their headteachers who later also submitted them to their respective supervisors for collection. Of the 126 questionnaires distributed to participants 111 comprising of 83 teachers, 22 headteachers 5 circuit supervisors and 1 district head of inspectorate division were returned showing a return rate of 92% which was very high.

To be able to extract further information from the respondents on how they understand their roles as instructional leaders, the researcher further met the supervisors to administer a semi-structured interview schedule. They were put into four focus groups and each group was met separately at an agreed venue. They responded orally to the questions and permission was sought by the researcher to use tape recorders to record their responses. Notes were also taken so that the main points in their responses would not be lost. The audio recordings of their responses were later transcribed and coded for easy analysis.

3.9 Data Analysis Procedure

The data obtained from the questionnairewas analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics which allows researchers to use numerical values to represent scores in the sample. While allowing the researcher to use numerical values it also provides the researcher with data from which inferences on the participants could be made and the directions for answering the research questions (Borg and Gall, 1983). The data collected from the returned questionnaires were scored, edited and coded into the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), for Windows Version 16.00 software. This programme was chosen for the data analysis in view of the fact that it

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has tools needed to analyze the research questions. The SPSS was used to generate contingency tables showing means. Inferential statistics using chi square was employed to test whether results obtained for the items on the questionnaires were of any statistical significance.

The analysis of the data was done using responses for each item or question and means were assigned to the total sample responding to each question. In order to find out possible relationship in the responses of respondents the researcher assigned numerical scores and calculated mean scores. This was done to enable the researcher access data and interpret the results for statistical analysis. Tables were also provided with descriptions together with interpretations to the tables.

In analyzing the data collected through interviews a content analysis approach was used. According to Krueger (1998) such an approach enables the researcher to compare the words used in the respondents' answers. Contents of tape recordings were reduced into transcripts and carefully studied so as to look for themes and similarities of responses or ideas to the questions posed to respondents. These contents were further coded into specific categories to ease analysis and also to organize the large amount of material (text) into patterns that would be easy to detect (Cohen, et al, 2003). Basically, the qualitative approach was used in the analysis and interpretation of data from the interviews. Verbatim quotations were used in the presentation of results to present views of respondents.

3.10. Ethical Consideration

The ethical guidelines of research tend to focus on issues of privacy and confidentiality, informed consent, and participants well-being. Such guidelines may seem easy to manage in the eyes of some researchers, but textbooks tend to stress the complexities and dilemmas that researchers may live to encounter (Cohen &Manion,

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2001). In this regard all respondents or subjects selected for the research were assured of strict confidentiality and anonymity after their informed consent had been obtained. Informed consent refers to a process in which competent research participants voluntarily agree to participate in research projects based on a full disclosure of pertinent information (Patton, 1990). In this regard, Bryman's (2001) advice that consent should be sought was followed throughout the project.

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CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from the quantitative and qualitative data. These results are presented in line with the four research questions raised for the study. Results of the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire on each research question are presented first, and are followed by comments obtained from the semi-structured interview schedules. More specifically, the chapter entails the results on:

a. How supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders
b. What knowledge have supervisors acquired in clinical supervision and how do they use it in basic schools
c. What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors and
d. What professional relationship exists between teachers and supervisors

4.1 Research Question 1

How do supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders?

To answer this Research Question, two types of data were collected. These are quantitative data using questionnaire, and qualitative data using semi-structured interview schedule. The responses have been presented along three thematic areas.These are:(1) school administrative and management functions, (2) support to instructional delivery, and (3) support tostaff training and development.Results from the quantitative data are presented first followed by comments obtained from the qualitative data. To support the quantitative data an interview was conducted to enable the researcher gain some in-depth knowledge about the supervisors' understanding of their roles as instructional leaders.

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4.1.1 Results of the quantitative data

The results of the quantitative data on how supervisors understand their roles as instructional leaders are presented under the three thematic areas mentioned in 4.1. These have been done based on the literature reviewed for ease of analysis.

Results on how supervisors understand and practise their instructional leadership roles in school administration and management are presented in Table 2a.

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Table 2a: Responses on supervisors' understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles in school administration and management

STATEMENT	RESPONSES					
As an instructional leader I understand that I must	SA F(%)	A F(%)	U F(%)	D F(%)	SD F (%)	TOTAL F(%}
1. Control and direct teachers to discharge their duties	16 (59.3)	6(22.2)	4 (14.8)	1 (3.7)	0 (0)	27(100)
2. Ensure that teachers make good use of instructional time	21 (77.8)	4 (14.8)	2 (7.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
3. Ensure that teachers adhere to educational regulations	17 (63)	5 (18.5)	1 (3.7)	3 (11.1)	1(3.7)	27(100)
4. Observe teaching and learning in school	14 (51.9)	7 (25.9)	2 (7.4)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	27(100)
5. Monitor progress in pupils learning	15(55.6)	10 (37)	1 (3.7)	1 (3.7)	0 (0)	27(100)
Overall (Average total)	17 (63)	6.4 (23.70	1.6 (5.93	1.8 (6.67	0.2(0.7)	27 (100)

Key: SA=strongly agree; A= agree; PA= partially agree; D= disagree; SD= strongly disagree; F=frequency; %=percentage

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Table 2a above shows responses of supervisors understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles in school administration and management. From the table, 17 respondents representing63% say they strongly agreed while 6 of them representing 24% merely agreed. There are 7% of the respondents who however disagreed with 6% being undecided. A chi-square analysis of the result- χ^2 (4, N=27) =33.5, $p \leq .05$ indicates that majority of the respondents (87%) agree (strongly agree and agree) that they understand and practice their roles.

The result of how supervisors understand and practise their instructional leadership roles in providing support to instructional delivery is also presented in table 2b

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Table 2b Responses on Supervisors' Understanding and practice of their Instructional Leadership roles in Support to Instructional Delivery

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
As an instructional leader Iunderstand that I must	SA (F%)	A (F%)	U (F%)	D (F%)	SD (F%)	Total
6. Suggest to novice teachers how they should teach	9 (33.3)	9(33.3)	2 (7.4)	2 (7.4)	5(18.5)	27(100)
7. Help teachers solve instructional delivery problems	12 (44.5)	11(40.7)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
8. Provide instructional materials to teachers	9 (33.3)	8(29.7)	7 (25.9)	3 (11.1)	0 (0)	27(100)
9. Demonstrate new teaching techniques and methods to teachers	8 (29.7)	11(40.7)	2 (7.4)	4 (14.8)	2 (7.4)	27(100)
Total (average)	9.5(35.19)	9.75(36.11)	3.75(13.89)	2.25(8.41)	1.75(6.40)	27(100)

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As indicated in the table,9 respondents representing 35% say they strongly agreedwhile 10 of them representing 36% merely agreed. On the other hand, 8% of the respondents disagreed, 6% also strongly disagreed while 14% are undecided.A chi-square analysis gave a statistically significant result, χ^2 (4, N=27) =11.42, p ≤.05, meaning that majority of the participants (71%) in the study agree (strongly agree and agree) that they understand and practice their instructional leadership roles in providing support to instructional delivery.

Results showing how supervisors understand and practice their instructional leadership roles in staff training and development are also presented on the table below.

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Table 2c: Responses of Supervisors' Understanding and practice of their Instructional Leadership roles in Staff Training and Development

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
As an instructional leader I understand that I must	SA (F%)	A (F%)	U (F%)	D (F%)	SD (F%)	Total (F%)
10. Organize in-service training for teachers to upgrade their skills	14(51.9)	9 (33.3)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
11. Provide articles on new research findings on instruction	4 (14.8)	10 (37)	9 (33.3)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	27(100)
12. Provide opportunities for teachers' professional growth	4 (14.8)	13(48.2)	4 (14.8)	2 (7.4)	4 (14.8)	27(100)
Total (average)	7 (27.15	11(39.52)	6 (21)	2 (7.41)	1(4.92)	27 (100)

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Results as indicated in Table 2c shows that 7 respondents representing 27% say they strongly agree while 11 of them representing 40% also merely agree that they understand and practice their roles in staff development and training. In contrast 7% disagree that they understand and practice their roles while 21% are also undecided, but 5% strongly disagree. A chi-square analysis of the result χ^2 (4, N=27) =11.05, p ≤.05,however, showedthat majority of the respondents (67%) agree that they understand and practice their instructional leadership roles in staff training and development.

The results from the tables above have shown clearly that majority of the participants in the study do actually agree that they understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders.They understand and practice these roles in three instructional leadership functions namely school administration and management, support to instructional delivery and staff training and development.

4.1.2 Findings from the Interview Data

Finding from the interviews conducted to gain further insight into how supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders gave significant insightinto how they understand their instructional leadership roles as they agreed in the quantitative data. With regard to school administration and management findings from the interviews conducted indicated that participants understand and practice their role.

"In fact, my understanding of instructional leadership is to try and control teachers' behaviour, monitor teaching and learning, and help those who enter the field fresh from college so that they can establish themselves well and teach well." (quoted verbatim from Group 1)

The above quotation from a group was corroborated by other groups:

"*.We understandthat as managers of the schools we have to control the teachers well and ensure that they conform to educational regulations and also help them to teach well in their respective classes*" (quoted verbatim from group 3).

With regards to supporting instructional delivery findings from the interviewfurther indicated that participants understand this instructional leadership role.

*"We understand that our teachers must be supported to teach well and that is why we try to provide them with some resources they need in the classroom. In fact, in most cases,some of us procure instructional materials for teachers with our own resources." (*quoted verbatim from Group 4). The above statement was further supported by members of the other groups.

Most supervisors indicated in the interview that based on their understanding of their instructional leadership roles they sometimes organize school based in-service training for their teachers to update their skills and to help develop them professionally.

"We *most of the time organize school-based in-service training for our teachers in some specific subject areas. We invite lead teachers from the district and the district training team to help teachers in areas of deficiency" (*quoted from Group 2)

One other group also had this to say:

"*We understand that we must support our staff to develop professionally that is why we sponsor some of the teachers to attend workshops in their subject areas. We also try to organize school-based workshops for them.*

Results from the above interviews show clearly that supervisors in the study do understand their roles as instructional leaders. They have indicated by their responses that they perform a number of roles that demonstrate their understanding of

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their instructional leadership roles. These include organising in-service training for teachers, sponsoring teachers to attend training workshops and providing instructional materials to support instructional delivery.

4.2 Research Question 2:

What knowledge have supervisors acquired for clinical supervision and how do they use it in supervising teachers

Two types of data were collected to answer this research question. These are quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was put into two sections with the first part designed to answer questions on knowledge participants have acquired in clinical supervision. The second part also seeks to answer questions on how participants use clinical supervision as a supervisory model. To elicit further answers on the use of clinical supervision an interview was conducted to enable respondents talk more about how they use clinical supervision in supervising basic school teachers.

4.2.1 Results of the quantitative data

As indicated in4.2 the results of the quantitative data on clinical supervision are presented in two parts. The first part is on the knowledge supervisors have acquired in clinical supervision while the second part deals with their ability to use clinical supervision. This has been done based on literature review for ease of analysis.

Table 3a shows the responses of supervisors on the knowledge they have acquired in order to use clinical supervision in basic school.

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Table3a: Responses on knowledge supervisors have acquired to use clinical supervision in supervising teachers

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
As an instructional leader	SA F (%)	A F (%)	U F (%)	D F (%)	SD F (%)	TOTAL F (%}
1. I have adequate knowledge about clinical supervision	8 (29.7)	15(55.5)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
2. I have been adequately trained to use clinical supervision	7 (25.9)	10 (37)	7(25.9)	3 (11.1)	0 (0)	27(100)
3. I know that clinical supervision is more about teachers' classroom practice	4(14.82)	19(70.37)	1(3.70)	3(11.11)	0 (0)	27 (100)
4. I know that I must meet my teachers for discussion before lesson observation	5 (18.5)	14(57.9)	4(14.8)	4 (14.8)	0(0)	27(100)
Total (Average)	6 (22.22)	14.5(53.70)	4 (14.81)	2.5 (9.27)	0 (0)	27 (100)

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Results from Table 3a indicate that 6 participants representing 22% strongly agreed that they have acquired knowledge to use clinical supervision while 14 of them representing 54% also merely agreed. None of them strongly disagreed, but 9% of them disagreed while 15% was undecided.A chi-square analysis showed that majority of the participants (76%) agreed (strongly agree and agree) that they have acquired knowledge to use clinical supervision- χ^2 (4, N=27) =22.73, p $\leq$.05

Responses on how supervisors use clinical supervision in basic schools are also presented in table 3b

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Table 3b Responses on how supervisors use clinical supervision in basic schools

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
As a Supervisor andInstructional Leader	SA	A	U	D	SD	TOTAL
5. I note down teachers' mistakes in lesson delivery for discussion	14 (51.9)	10 (37)	3 (11.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
6. I give immediate feedback to teachers after lesson observation	10 (37)	13(48.2)	3 (11.1)	1 (3.7)	0 (0)	27(100)
7. I help teachers to analyse their own lesson delivery	8 (29.7)	15(55.5)	1 (3.7)	3 (11.1)	0 (0)	27(100)
8. I create room for teachers'suggestions on improving lesson delivery	12 (44.5)	11(40.7)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
9. I usually have pre- observation meeting with teachers	9 (33.3)	14(51.9)	4 (14.8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
10. I use post observation meetings to discuss trs' performance	20 (74.1)	7 (25.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	27(100)
Total (Average)	12.17(45.07)	11.67(43.22)	2.5(9.26)	.67(2.48)	0(0)	27 (100)

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As indicated on the Table, 12 participants representing45% strongly agreed; 43% merely agreed while 2% also disagreed. None strongly disagreed while 9% were undecided. A chi-square analysis of the results- χ^2 (4, N=27) =26.87, p $\leq$.05 shows that majority of the participants (88%) agreed that they use clinical supervision in schools.

Results as depicted in Tables 3a and 3b have shown that participants in the study do know what clinical supervision is about. These tables have also indicated that respondents usedclinical supervision in basic schools. What was uncertain, however, was whether clinical supervision was actually being practised in basic schools as reflected in the quantitative data.The interview schedule was therefore designed to find answers to this.

4.2.2 Findings from the Interview Data on the use of Clinical Supervision in schools

Results gathered from the interview on the use of clinical supervision contradicted that of the quantitative data. The results indicate that although participants in the study knew what clinical supervision is about as they had agreed in the quantitative data, they were unable to apply such knowledge as they said.

*"We know what clinical supervision is and we actually understand it,but we are not able to use it to supervise our teachers because what goes into it is very tedious and involves a lot of time and preparation" (*quoted from Group 3*).*

Groups 2 and 4 also supported and said: *"we all know about clinical supervision and we understand that it is good and we have to use it, but we cannot use it in our schools because the process is quite involving"*

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Some supervisors also indicated that once they teach in their various schools it will be difficult for them to supervise teachers using clinical supervision.

"If you look at what goes into clinical supervision you realize that it is a good model of supervision. We have learnt about this in our various trainings but we cannot use it because some of us teach as subject or class teachers". (quoted from Group 4)

Perhaps one major revelation was on the approaches the supervisors use in supervising teachers. School-based supervisors (headteachers) indicated that they only use the model whenever they are preparing newly trained teachers for confirmation exercises and some of the older ones for promotion interviews. They also use it for untrained teachers on their staff, both graduates and non-graduates. The circuit supervisors also intimated that they apply the concept mostly during confirmation and promotion exercises where they sit and plan with teachers on what they expect to see during instructional delivery. Their concentration has mostly been on young and inexperienced teachers. Some headteachers had this to say:

We scarcely use clinical supervision in our schools. Due to our schedules as heads we only use this kind of supervision to prepare our younger teachers for promotion and confirmations.

Circuit supervisors also said they rarely use clinical supervision in their daily rounds because the number of teachers they oversee in their respective circuits are too many.

We don't normally use clinical supervision because there are too many teachers in our circuits who need our attention. If it become necessary for us what to use we do is just some aspect of it."(quoted from Group 1)

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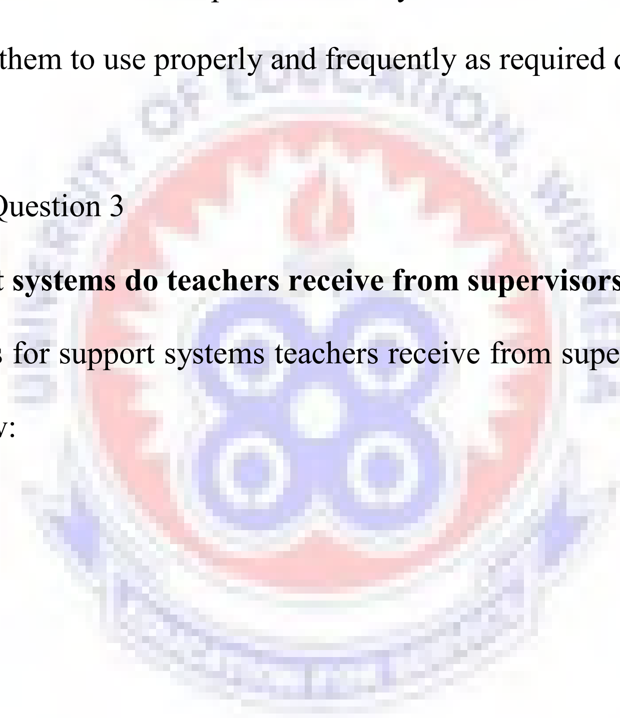
The responses above by the supervisors were corroborated by the Head of Supervision in the district. He also conceded that supervisors were unable to use clinical supervision as required of them and intimated that once parents continue to seek better results from their wards it was incumbent on supervisors to improve their work through constant training.

In effect the supervisors in the study agreed that clinical supervision was a very good model to use in basic school supervision. They have the knowledge but concede that it is difficult for them to use properly and frequently as required due to its demands.



4.3 Research Question 3

What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors?

Results for support systems teachers receive from supervisors are presented in the table below:

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Table 4 Responses on the support systems teachers receive from supervisors

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
Through supervision I am able to	SA (F%)	A (F%)	U (F%)	D (F%)	SD (F%)	Total (F%)
1. Receive feedback & recommendations	18 (21.7)	46 (55.4)	15(18.1)	3 (3.6)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
2. Analyze my own lesson delivery strategies	29 (34.9)	41 (49.4)	10(12)	2 (2.4)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
3. Receive regular inset to upgrade skills	22 (26.5)	27 (32.5)	16(19.3)	12(14.5)	6 (7.2)	83 (100)
4. Constantly build on my confidence	20 (24.1)	38 (45.8)	14(16.9)	9 (10.8)	2 (2.4)	83 (100)
5. Constantly improve upon my output of work	18 (21.7)	40 (48.2)	17(20.5)	7 (8.4)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
6. Utilize contact hours efficiently	18 (21.7)	46 (55.4)	14(16.9)	4 (4.8)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
7. Bring improvement in pupils' learning	21 (25.3)	42 (50.6)	17(20.5)	2 (2.4)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
8. Use appropriate TLMs and methods	25 (30.1)	37 (44.6)	14(16.9)	6 (7.2)	1 (1.2)	83 (100)
9. Update records regularly	18 (21.7)	44 (53.0)	18(21.7)	3 (3.6)	0 (0)	83 (100)
10. Prepare and plan effectively	34 (41.0)	39 (47.0)	8 (9.6)	2 (2.4)	0 (0)	83 (100)
Total (Average)	22.3(26.87)	40(48.19)	14.3(17.23)	5(6.02)	1.4(1.69	83(100)

As indicated in the table, 22 participants representing 27% strongly agree that they receive support from their supervisors while 40 of them representing 48% also merely agree. There were as many as 14 teachers representing 17% who were rather undecided while 6% also disagree that they receive support from their supervisors. Only 2% of teachers strongly disagreed. A chi-square analysis showed that the result is statistically significant - χ^2 (4, N=83) =57.3, p .05 and that majority of the teachers (75%) in the study agree that they receive support from their supervisors.

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4.4 Research Question 4

What professional relationship exists between teachers and supervisors?

To ascertain whether open and trusted cordial relationship do exist between teachers and supervisors as indicated by the supervisors, teachers were made to respond to six likert scale items. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Responses on the professional relationship existing between teachers and supervisors

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES					
My supervisor	S A (F %)	A (F%)	U (F%)	D (F%)	SD (F%)	Total (F%)
1. Has cordial relationship with teachers	29 (35)	34 (40.96)	17(20.48)	1 (1.2)	2 (2.4)	83 (100)
2. Treats teachers with love and respect	26 (31.3)	35 (42.2)	13 (15.7)	7 (8.4)	2 (2.4)	83 (100)
3. Acts as a counsellor to teachers	9 (10.8)	39 (47)	24 (28.9)	8 (9.6)	3 (3.6)	83 (100)
4. Provides platform for dialogue and understanding	20 (24.1)	36 (43.4)	20 (24.1)	4 (4.8)	3 (3.6)	83 (100)
5. Acts as superior and directs teachers	15 (18.1)	40 (48.2)	9 (10.8)	14(16.9)	5 (6.0)	83 (100)
6. Exposes my mistakes and humiliates me	1 (1.2)	25(30.12)	8 (9.6)	30(36.14)	19(22.9)	83 (100)
Total (Average)	16.67(20.08)	34.83(41.96)	15.17(18.28)	10.67(12.86)	5.66(6.82)	83(100)

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As can be noted from the table,17 participants representing 20% strongly agreed that there were open and trustedprofessional relationship between teachers and supervisors while 35 of them representing 42% merely agreed. In contrast, 6 teachers representing 7% strongly disagreedwhile 13% merely disagree with 18% being undecided.A chi-square analysis- χ^2 (4, N=83) =29.48, p ≤.05,showed that majority of teachers in the study (62%) agreed that there was an open and trusted professional relationship between supervisors and teachers.

Chapter Summary

Results from both the quantitative and qualitative data have revealed a number of findings.Both school-based and external supervisors reported that they understood their roles as instructional leaders. They understand and perform these roles in three thematic areas which are school administration and management, providing support to instructional delivery, and supporting staff training and development.

With regards to clinical supervision participants in the study have revealed that they know about the concept and can use in their supervisory activities. Evidence from the interviews conducted, however, showed that they are unable to use clinical supervision as a daily practice in their schools. In confirming what the supervisors said on instructional leadership, teachers in the present study also reported that they receive the needed support systems from their supervisors. These are mostly in the areas of instructional delivery, and staff training and professional development. Furthermore they enjoy good professional relationships with their supervisorsas a result of their supervision styles and characteristics.

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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results and major findings of the research which were based on the main research questions. The discussion begins with a brief summary of the major findings of all the four research questions. Findings under each research question are subsequently discussed in detail in line with the relevant literature.

5.1 Summary of Major Findings

Research Question 1: How do Supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders? Basic school supervisors, both headteachers and circuit supervisors were found to have clear understanding and also practice their roles as instructional leaders. The study showed that the supervisors understandand practise their roles in three thematic areas namely school administration and management, providing support to instructional delivery and supporting teachers' professional growth and development.

Research Question 2: What knowledge have supervisors acquired in clinical supervision and how do they use it in basic schools? Both headteachers and circuit supervisors in the study were found to have some knowledge about clinical supervision as a concept and a contemporary supervision model in schools. They are however unable to use clinical supervision in their supervisory activities.

Research Question 3: What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors? Teachers in the study were found to be receiving support from their supervisors in a number of ways. Greater part of their support is received in the area of instructional delivery and professional development.

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Research Question 4: What professional relationship exists between teachers and supervisors? Teachers and supervisors were found to have open and trusted professional relationship. Supervisors show teachers the love and respect they desired and also act as counselors to them.

5.2:Research Question 1: How do Supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders?

One of the major aims of this study was to investigate whether supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders. Instructional leadership in school supervision has now become an important aspect of educational supervision. It has increasingly been given an appreciable recognition by some educational administrators and researchers as having the potential to increase teacher efficiency and performance through supervision. In this regard supervisors are expected to have an understanding of this concept so as to play their roles well as instructional leaders.

According to the results (quantitative and qualitative) the supervisors have in-depth understanding and also practice their instructional leadership roles related to: 1. School administration and management, 2. Support to instructional delivery, and 3.Supporting staff professional development and growth.This finding is in line with the one by Pansiri (2008) and Rogers (2009). According to Pansiri's (2008) findings principals in Botswana showed effective instructional leadership roles by putting in place good administrative structures in their schools, provide support for teachers' professional growth and also engage in community relationships. Similarly, in Ghana, basic school supervisors are enjoined by their guidelines to build effective school-community relationships in order to enlist communal support for the development of the schools. Rogers' (2009) findings in the US state of Virginia, also indicated that school principals perform a number of administrative duties and also delegate

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responsibilities to their assistants and assign them to specific tasks aimed at improving instruction and children's learning. They also provide support for teachers in instructional delivery to make them more effective in class.

The finding further aligns with other findings by Stronge (2008) on administrative roles of instructional leaders. According to Stronge (2008) principals in American schools devote about 62.2% of their instructional leadership time to administrative issues, even after undergoing training in instructional leadership. This means that most instructional leaders understand and practice their roles more in relation to school administration and management. In the present study, however, the extent to which supervisors understand and practice their roles in school administration and management as against other instructional leadership roles was not measured as in the case of Stronge (2008). But the understanding and practice of this administrative role, however, interprets what has been stated to be the functions of supervision by Kadushin (2002). According to Kadushin (2002), supervision must have administrative, educational and supportive functions. The supervisor as an administrator and manager of the school or circuit must ensure the attainment of educational goals by seeing to it that educational regulations are adhered to by members of staff.

One possible explanation for this finding could be traced to the Ghana Education Service's own guidelines on supervision for basic school supervisors. The guidelines enjoin basic school supervisors (both heads and circuit supervisors) to administer and manage the schools and circuits, provide the necessary instructional materials for teachers and pupils and also provide opportunities for teachers' professional growth (MOE, 2010; MOE, 2002). This means that basic school

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supervisors already understand this role as a basic responsibility by virtue of their positions as head teachers and circuit supervisors.

Supervisors in the present study, as indicated in the qualitative findings, also indicated that their understanding and practice of instructional leadership do not relate to only school administration and management. They also support teachers in their instructional delivery activities. According the supervisors they provide the needed instructional support and resources to teachers so that they can teach effectively. The support is given in the area of giving suggestions to novice teachers, providing the needed instructional materials to teachers, even sometimes with their own monies, monitoring children's progress and also demonstrating new teaching techniques to teachers. This finding falls in line with those made by Blasé and Blasé (1999), Rous (2004) and Pansiri (2008). The findings by Blasé and Blasé (1999), Rous (2004) and Pansiri (2008), in the USA and Botswana revealed that instructional leaders provide materials to teachers and also talk to teachers on instructional delivery. This means that supervisors themselves need to be very abreast with current issues in instruction and lesson delivery strategies in order to give the appropriate support. Blasé and Blasé (1999) specifically revealed in their findings that principals (as called in the USA) who understand and practice effective instructional leadership promoted teachers reflective behavior by talking to them on instructional delivery strategies. Blasé and his colleague further revealed that the principals offer useful suggestions and give informative feedback that would improve teachers' performance in instructional delivery.

Both Rous (2004) and Pansiri (2008) also point out in their studies in the United States of America (USA) and Botswana that effective instructional leaders support instructional delivery activities of their teachers, providing them with

instructional materials and helping them to select appropriate ones. In Pansiri's findings in Botswana some school principals acknowledged that the support given in the area of providing instructional materials was not enough due to economic reasons. Similarly, findings from the qualitative data indicated that some participants in the present study purchase instructional materials for teachers using their own resources, which are also not enough. This is because the present policy places the responsibility of providing instructional materials on government who supplies these through the Ghana Education Service. Heads are expected to use part of their capitation grant to purchase any other materials which may be needed for instructional delivery, and in the event where such grant is not available supervisors are compelled to provide from their own resources. This explains why support given in this respect may not be sufficient although supervisors understand such a role. As observed by Pansiri (2008) in Botswana, harsh economic conditions in most African countries like Ghana actually affect the capacity of individual school principals (headteachers as in Ghana) to provide sufficient support in teachers' instructional delivery activities. It must be noted, however, that the provision of materials alone is not the only way by which instructional leaders must support instructional delivery. Understanding this role also means that instructional leaders must even be resource providers as well as being instructional resources themselves so that teachers can approach them for advice on instructional delivery (Whitaker, 1997). Headteachers and circuit supervisors by the understanding of their roles need to model lessons especially in new instructional techniques to teachers so as to improve on their lesson delivery effectiveness.

The study further indicated that supervisors in the study understand and practice their role in promoting the growth of their staff professionally. The qualitative data indicated that supervisors organize in-service training programmes for

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their teachers. They also sponsor the teachers to attend workshops and seminars that are organised outside the school. This finding is in line with that of Tyagi (2009). Tyagi'sstudy in India showed that most instructional leaders directly sponsor their teachers to attend professional workshops and seminars aimed at building and enhancing their professional capabilities. These workshops and seminars are either organised by professional bodies, subject associations or instructional experts in collaboration with the ministry responsible for education. In Ghana, the Ghana Education Service (GES) sometimes organise and sponsor teachers to these workshops in order to build their capacities in their work. Additionally some professional bodies like the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and some subject associations occasionally run professional training seminars and workshops for teachers. These teachers have mostly been sponsored by their headteachers.

As a way of ensuring regular training for teachers the Ghana Education Service has orgainised special training for some selected subject teachers who are referred to as curriculum leaders (CLs) in every district. These teachers, together, with the district training officer constitute the district in-service training team to assist schools and teachers to improve on their teaching.

Studies by Blasé and Blasé (1999) also support this finding and indicate that instructional leaders can either provide such trainings by themselves in collaboration with curriculum leaders or they can also sponsor teachers to attend seminars, workshops and conferences organized by professional bodies and subject associations. Blasé and Blase (1999) further revealed that effective instructional leaders sometimes deliver articles and literature on instructional practice to their teachers. These are done with the aim of improving teachers' professional behaviour. The situation is different

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in Ghana because in most Ghanaian basic schools there are no library facilities where supervisors can read for information on teaching and learning (Baffour-Awuah, 2011), and this factor may explain why supervisors may be limited in that respect. Even most district or municipal capitals do not have good libraries where teachers and students can read for information. One would however expect that computer laboratories with network facilities can be utilized, but the question of access to internet facilities and the computer literacy levels of supervisors remain an issue in itself.

Notwithstanding their limitations supervisors still provide the little support they can offer to demonstrate how they understand their roles as instructional leaders. According to the literature it is part of the responsibility of supervisors to provide in-service training in the form of conferences, workshops and symposia and also provide literature about instruction to equip teachers with professional expertise (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glickman, 2003). In this regard supervisors cannot be blamed much for doing little in this instructional leadership function. This may effectively sum up the assertion by respondents that they need further training, which obviously must not be only in instructional leadership but other aspects of supervision as well.

5.3 Research Question 2: What knowledge have supervisors acquired in clinical supervision and how do they use it in supervising teachers?

The results indicate that supervisors who participated in the study have the requisite knowledge to use clinical supervision in basic schools. Evidence from the quantitative data further indicated that the supervisors use clinical supervision in basic schools. On the contrary, however, the interview dataindicated that the supervisors were unable to put their knowledge in clinical supervision to effective use. This finding confirms the concerns expressed by the American Board of Examinations

(ABE) about the seeming lack of empirical evidence on the use of clinical supervision in American schools (ABE, 2004 cited in Rogers, 2009). According to the ABE (2004) there is no empirical evidence to show that principals of American schools employ clinical supervision to help teachers in their instructional delivery, although they know much about it. This means that the situation with the Ghanaian supervisor is not in isolation because even principals in advanced economies like the USA where clinical supervision as a model of supervision was started can still not apply their knowledge practically.

The finding also aligns with the one by Milne and Westerman (2001) in the United Kingdom. Their findings were made from empirical evidence of clinical supervision in the health sector and they could only conclude that knowledge about clinical supervision could be measured systematically and supervisory skills could also be enhanced through evidence-based practice. Their findings revealed a lack of practice in the use of clinical supervision even within the health sector. This means that not much evidence could be gotten on the use of clinical supervision in education within these two advanced economies. The implication is that supervisors who would want to use clinical supervision in education do not have enough evidence-based literature in terms of best practices to use as a guide. In the case of Ghana for instance it appears there is not much literature available on the use of clinical supervision in educational institutions, and this obviously calls for much research in that area.

Although some headteachers and circuit supervisors may be using some elements of clinical supervision as revealed during the interviews, the present situation seems to suggest some kind of a gap between knowledge and practice.

One possible explanation for this finding is that all the supervisors in the study are professional teachers who hold either diploma or bachelor degrees in education. Few

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of them also have second degrees and that they have learnt about clinical supervision in their various institutions of learning, as indicated by them during the interviews. Furthermore, guidelines in their manuals relating to models of supervision also talk about clinical supervision (Ministry of Education, 2010; 2002). Despite their knowledge, they are still unable to use clinical supervision because the process was tedious.

Some reasonscited by the supervisors,as depicted in the interviews, for their inability to use clinical supervision effectively were the size of circuits, other administrative duties and the tedious nature of the process. Circuit supervisors who complained about the size of circuits indicated that the number of teachers in a circuit were too many for them to use clinical supervision as a model. Given the amount of preparation and the nature of the supervision process when using clinical supervision one may be inclined to see reason with the explanation by the circuit supervisors.

Even headteachers who are in charge of fewer teachers in terms of numbers also complain of other administrative schedules as well as teaching in the classrooms. This situation has largely contributed to the inability of supervisors to apply their knowledge in clinical supervision, coupled with the lack of literature on evidence-based practice. It appears the situation above may not be peculiar to the supervisors in this present study alone as other research finding have shown that school principals do shed part of their administrative duties to their assistants to enable them supervise teaching and learning activities. Rogers' (2009) study also indicated that school principals shed off some of their instructional support roles to their assistants due to other administrative assignments. Similar findings by Pansiri (2008) also show that basic school heads in Botswana also engaged in other administrative duties like community coordination, and this took part of their instructional leadership times in

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supporting teachers' classroom practice. Other instances were also reported by Tyagi (2009) in India. The instances above as reported by these researchers mean that supervisors can effectively use clinical supervision in schools if other administrative engagements are reduced.

Although supervisors in this study were unable to use clinical supervision effectively in basic schools, evidence from the interviews suggested however, that some of them occasionally used the three stage model of clinical supervision (Acheson & Gall, 1980) in their schools and circuits. The use of this model, although not frequently, could however be a good basis to use to build the capacities of supervisors on how to apply clinical supervision in their routine supervisory activities. If supervisors could discuss with teachers what to be expected in their lesson observations and follow it up with post observation discussions then they are making good efforts to improving teachers' instructional delivery through the provision of timely feedback (Lashway, 1995).

In the supervision process feedback is an important issue which supervisors cannot overlook. Indeed giving feedback is in line with Cogan's (1973) conception that the purpose of supervisors working collaboratively with teachers through clinical supervision is to provide direct expert assistance to them in order to help improve instruction. Findings by Blasé and Blasé (1999) and Pansiri (2008) all point to the positive impact of informative feedback on teachers' classroom performance. Therefore, if supervisors can properly put their knowledge in clinical supervision into practice in their various schools and circuits, teachers would be able to improve their teaching considerably for the ultimate improvement in children's learning outcomes.
Respondents further indicated during the interviews that what they practice as clinical supervision is done selectively for younger and inexperienced teachers as well as

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untrained teachers. This means that the supervisors in the study are using the directive informational approach of supervision (Glickman &Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). This supervisory approach is used to help young and inexperienced teachers by giving them direct expert advice to enable them improve on their classroom practice. There may be some variations in the way different supervisors engage their teachers after lesson observation, but the good thing is that supervisors now recognize the importance of giving teachers the opportunity to explain and to engage in reflective discussions after lesson delivery. This practice falls in line with the idea by Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973) who are believed generally as the pioneers of the clinical supervision concept. The implication is that the Ghana Education Service (GES) will have to take a second look at how supervisors are appointed to basic schools, taking into consideration their experience and background in contemporary supervision practices. It also implies that the inspectorate division of the GES must examine the supervisory practices of basic school supervisors with the view of preparing current handbooks that will explain some contemporary models of supervision. This finding on clinical supervision also implies that in research it is very important to adopt the mixed method approach so that one can effectively use data from different sources to either confirm or disprove a particular finding from one data set.

5.4 Research question 3: What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors?

According to the findings teachers in this study did recognize and appreciate the kind of support systems they receive as a result of supervision. The support comes in the areas of instructional delivery and professional development. In the area of instructional delivery, the findings indicate that teachers receive support from their

supervisors in lesson planning and preparation, suggestions on how to improve lesson delivery, provision of instructional materials and receiving feedback, among others. This finding is in line with those by Pansiri (2008), Holland (2004), Rous (2004) and Blasé & Blasé (1999) on how supervisors support their teachers in both instructional delivery and professional development. Evidence from the studies conducted by Pansiri (2008) in Botswana shows that teachers who participated in his study lauded their principals for providing instructional materials and also providing them with timely feedback. According to Pansiri's findings about 83% of teachers in his study reported that their headteachers organize and ran school-based workshops to address their curriculum needs. Similar appreciations had been expressed by teachers in the studies by Rous (2004) and Holland (2004). In India, for instance, teachers in Tyagi's (2009) studies reported that their principals support them with literature on instructional techniques and also sponsor them to attend workshops and seminars. These training opportunities help them to improve on their professional practice.

The findings as reported by the teachers in the study means that supervisors are doing well in their roles as instructional leaders and this also confirms the supportive functions of supervision as indicated by Kadushin (2002). This finding also corroborates what has been said earlier by the supervisors regarding the understanding and practice of their roles as instructional leaders in supporting teachers in their instructional delivery activities and also promoting their professional growth. It is also in line with the tenets of preventive supervision where supervisors act in anticipation of teachers challenges to help offset them (Madziyire, 2000). The implication is that teachers would always see their supervisors as partners in planning and delivering instruction in their schools. Again it will also deepen the trust, respect and confidence teachers have in their supervisors. Empirical evidence from the work of Pansiri (2008)

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and Blasé and Blasé (1999) have proven that teachers show a lot of respect to supervisors who support them in instructional delivery.

In most Ghanaian basic schools, for instance, headteachers have largely been known to be responsible for providing instructional materials to teachers. They have to convey these materials from their respective district depots to their schools in order to make sure that teaching and learning goes on effectively. As has been noted by Whitaker (1997) instructional leaders must be resource providers as well as being resource base for their teachers who invariably look up to them for the needed support and encouragement. This means that at any point in time teachers look up to their supervisors for the necessary support systems that would make them effective in their performance as teachers.

It must also be noted that supporting teachers can be in the area of providing opportunities for growth through in-service trainings, workshops, seminars, and the supply of articles and journals on instruction and professional practice. Evidence provided by teachers in India, Botswana and the United States of America indicated that school principals sponsor their teachers to attend seminars and workshops to improve on their professional behaviour (Tyagi, 2009; Pansiri, 2008; Blasé & Blasé, 1999). The provision of these support systems, therefore, has become a professional responsibility of supervisors and this, no doubt, enhancesteachers' professional development and further make them more effective in their instructional delivery (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glickman, 2003). The implication is that modern supervisors need to be continuous learners (Stronge, 2008) so as to be able to render their best services to their clients. It is therefore imperative for educational authorities to collaborate with relevant professional bodies to organize trainings, workshops and seminars for school supervisor so as to equip them with modern trends in their work.

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There are situations, however, where supervisors were found not to be supportive enough. Bays (2001) indicated in her study about some teachers who reported that their principals could not be contacted when teachers needed them for instructional support. Rous (2004) corroborated Bays' finding and said that teachers in her study admitted that sometimes their principals were unable to help them solve their instructional delivery problems. Admittedly, most Ghanaian basic schools have no access to library facilities and computer internet services, and this presumably may explain the deficiency of school-based and circuit supervisors in providing information on new research findings about instruction. However, as leaders it is incumbent on them to link up and collaborate with others so that they can update their knowledge base for their own professional growth and for the benefit of teachers and pupils as well.

5.5 Research Question 4: Professional Relationship between Teachers and Supervisors

Findings from the study have revealed that teachers and supervisors have an open and trusted professional relationship. The finding aligns with what Pajak (2002) has theorized as the characteristics of modern supervision. Pajak (2002) believes that supervision is both a collaborative and humanitarian process as depicted in instructional leadership, and at some stages supervisors engender good relationships with teachers and recognize the value of individuals as human beings.This helps supervisors to build mutual trust between themselves and the teachers and know the exact and varying capacities of the teachers they deal with.

A possible explanation for this finding could be the supervisors' own understanding of their instructional leadership roles thereby providing support for the teachers in a more cordial and mutually respected atmosphere. Perhaps one other reason that can be

adduced to this finding is to do with supervisor characteristics. Empirical studies by Blasé and Blasé (1999; 2004) show that supervisors who listen to their teachers and share their challenges normally earn the respect and trust of their staff. Additionally when instructional leaders praise their teachers occasionally for their instructional delivery, it promotes good professional relationship amongst them as well as boosting the teachers' confidence.

This finding also confirms the observation made by Pansiri (2008) in his study in Botswana where the teachers reported that they like their supervisors because they listen to them and share their instructional challenges. The implication is that supervisors who understand and practice instructional leadership effectively can promote very cordial professional relationship between teachers and themselves (supervisors) by exhibiting such qualities as listening to teachers and also praising them when necessary.

One important point worth noting from this finding is that as teachers acknowledge the existence of an open and trusted professional relationship with supervisors, teachers are now appreciating the need for an independent appraisal of their work. Indeed, when supervisors demonstrate good supervisory characteristics they are able to court the support and cooperation of their teachers. In contrast, however, it is also possible that some teachers may not be pleased with their supervisors and felt that the supervisors tried to expose their mistakes and only find fault with what they did all in the name of supporting them. A similar sentiment has been expressed by teachers in the findings of Ayse Bas (2002) in Turkey. The teachers in AyseBas' study were not happy with the way supervisors visited their classrooms unannounced and this created a rather tensed relationship between the teachers and the supervisors. To this extent, teachers found it difficult to open up to

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supervisors, thus, creating some tense moments in their respective schools. This, however, does not mean that supervisors should not employ methods that will make teaching and learning improve, even if this will inconvenience some teachers. It is obvious that supervisors today are applying their skills well, adding them up with some amount of art as has been observed in modern supervision by Claude (1992) who sees supervision as both a skill and an art.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the various findings of the study. Based on their understanding of their instructional leadership roles basic school supervisors perform a number of supervisory functions which have been identified in the literature and are in line with instructional leadership. This therefore means that basic school supervisors do understand their roles as instructional leaders and practice these roles. Basic school supervisors in the study also demonstrated that they have knowledge about clinical supervision and even indicated in the quantitative data that they use it. On the contrary, however, evidence from the qualitative data showed that they were unable to use clinical supervision as required because it is tedious and that other responsibilities and the size of circuits do not make it convenient for them to use it. Evidence from the interview showed that some supervisors sometimes use the three stage model of clinical supervision when preparing teachers for promotion and confirmation exercises. The implication is that educational authorities in Ghana need to either reduce the size of circuits or reduce the administrative responsibilities on basic school headteachers in order to make them more effective as instructional leaders.

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Teachers in the current study also acknowledged that supervisors give them support in their instructional delivery. These include lesson planning and preparation, provision of instructional materials, suggestion on how to improve lesson delivery and giving feedback on lesson observation. Furthermore, teachers acknowledged the existence of an open and trusted relationship between them and their supervisors. This has effectively reduced the tension and acrimonious situations that had been characterizing supervision in Ghanaian basic schools in the past. In its stead supervision has helped to create peaceful and conducive environments in schools thus making it more pleasant for teachers and their supervisors to meet occasionally to share experiences to improve instructional delivery.

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CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to find out how supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders and their knowledge and use of clinical supervision in supervising teachers. It also sought to find out the kind of support systems teachers receive as a result of supervision and the professional relationship existing between teachers and supervisors. In this regard four research questions were raised to guide the study. These were

1.How do supervisors understand and practice their roles as instructional leaders?

2. What knowledge have supervisors acquired in clinical supervision and how do they use it in supervising teachers?

3. What support systems do teachers receive from supervisors?

4. What professional relationship exists between teachers and supervisors?

6.1 Summary of Major Findings

Findings from the study were discussed under the four main research questions as listed above. On instructional leadership findings revealed that supervisors actually understood their roles as instructional leaders. They perform a number of supervisory functions that are all in line with instructional leadership practices. These functions fall under school administration, support to instructional delivery and support to teachers' professional development.

On clinical supervision findings showed that although supervisors in basic schools have knowledge about the concept they are unable to use it as a supervisory model in schools. While headteachers complained of many administrative duties that made it difficult to prepare and use clinical supervision in their schools, circuit supervisors on

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the other hand are restricted by the number of teachers they supervise in a circuit. They however seem to be using the three stage modelof clinical supervision, and effectively use the post observation conference to help teachers find solutions to some instructional problems.

The study further showed that teachers received a number of support systems from their supervisors as a result of the application of instructional leadership roles by supervisors. These support systems are in the areas of instructional delivery and professional development. The study revealed that teachers received much support in instructional delivery through suggestions, supply of instructional materials, feedback systems, and lesson planning and preparation. They however needed more support in professional development.

With regard to professional relationship findings from the study indicated that there were cordial interpersonal relationships between supervisors and teachers. Most of the teachers who participated in the study now see their supervisors as counselors and working colleagues who show them love and respect. However, evidence from the study also shows that some teachers still believe that their supervisors still act as bosses or superiors and that they try to expose their mistakes and humiliate them. Undoubtedly these supervisors may have been using the directive control approach of supervision as a practice. The other possibility is that either such teachers still do not appreciate the need for an independent appraisal of their work or supervisors still use the traditional system of inspection.

6.2 Conclusions

Based on the discussions of the findings a number of conclusions could be made with regard to supervision in Ghanaian basic schools. The first conclusion is that supervision in Ghanaian basic schools can be improved if Supervisors are trained

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to understand and practice their roles well as instructional leaders and also be exposed to contemporary supervision practices like clinical supervision. Interviews with both supervisors and the district head of supervision revealed that not much training is received by basic school supervisors in terms of contemporary models and practices in supervision. They therefore depend on what they learnt during pre-service trainings as teachers and some few in-service training in school administration after their appointments as headteachers and circuit supervisors. Those with higher educational degrees also attained them in specific subject areas rather than supervision, both as a concept and as a practice. This has in a way narrowed their understanding on a number of contemporary supervisory models, thereby affecting the performance of their roles as instructional leaders.

The second conclusion is that the size of a circuit has an effect on the quality of supervision by circuit supervisors. Results from the interviews with circuit supervisors revealed that circuit supervisors oversee more than 100 teachers in a circuit, and these are spread over twenty or more schools. Due to this they are unable to support teachers as effectively and regularly as may be required. Circuit supervisors related the number of teachers in their circuits to the use of clinical supervision as a contemporary model to help teachers' instructional delivery and professional development. They intimated that their inability to effectively apply clinical supervision in schools was as a result of the large number of teachers they supervise.

The third conclusion is that headteachers' administrative and classroom responsibilities tend to prevent them from performing their roles well as effective instructional leaders. Some headteachers intimated during the interviews that they teach either as class teachers or as subject teachers in basic schools. In view of this

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they are unable to perform their instructional leadership roles in teacher support and development as well as instructional support very well. Similarly using such models as clinical supervision becomes a problem as they themselves will also have to prepare for their own lessons and attend to other administrative responsibilities. Indeed principals (as they are called in other countries) in basic schools in such countries like the USA, India and Botswana do not teach as either class or subject teachers.

6.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of the research:

i. The Ghana Education Service (GES) should give basic school supervisors regular in-service training in modern supervisory practices such as instructional leadership and clinical supervision so as to improve the quality of supervision in schools. Such training will equip them with contemporary techniques in supervision that can help them supervise instruction effectively. It will also help them understand their roles very well as instructional leaders and better position them to give the needed support to teachers to improve teaching and learning in basic schools. It will also improve the supervisor-teacher interpersonal and professional relationships greatly thereby eroding some of the negative perceptions teachers have about supervisors. As frontline supervisors it is also important for them to learn continuously (Stronge, 2008) so that they will be abreast with modern trends in their work while at the same time trying to add value (Addison and Haig, 2009) to themselves and their teachers.

ii. Again, it is recommended that professional teacher associations like the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT), the Ghana National

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Association of Teachers (GNAT), and the Coalition of Concerned Teachers (CCT) collaborate with the GES and subject associations like the Ghana Association of Science Teachers (GAST), Mathematics Association of Ghana (MAG) and others to organize seminars and workshops for basic school heads and circuit supervisors. This will equip the supervisors with adequate content and pedagogical knowledge in the various subject areas so that they (supervisors) can discharge their roles well as instructional resources (Whitaker, 1997) for the teachers.

iii. As a medium to long term measure it is further recommended that the Ghana Education Service (GES) link up with colleges of education and other teacher training institutions in the country to develop and run programmes on supervision under which instructional leadership, clinical supervision and other contemporary models of supervision would be studied as a course. This will help prospective beneficiaries of the programme acquire relevant skills and knowledge for effective supervision in basic schools. It will also make it possible for the Ghana Education Service to have access to professionally trained supervisors who are instructional leaders to handle supervision in pre-tertiary institutions in the country.

iv. It is further recommended that the Ghana Education Service (GES) reduces the size of circuits which have twenty or more schools, with more than hundred teachers, and more supervisors appointed so as to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of supervision in basic schools. The situation where circuit supervisors supervise more than 100 teachers scattered over twenty or more schools make it quite difficult for them to provide the needed supervisory services to teachers.

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v. Again, the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the GES should provide both headteachers and circuit supervisors the needed financial and logistics support to make them perform effectively as instructional leaders in their respective schools and circuits. This will enable them provide the needed support to teachers in their instructional delivery so as to improve the quality of teaching and learning in basic schools.

vi. It is also recommended that the Ghana Education Service should fully detach all heads of basic schools in Ghana. This will enable the heads concentrate fully on their supervisory and administrative duties so that they can lead and promote good instructional supervision in basic schools. In some countries like the United States of America (Stronge, 2008; Blasé and Blasé, 1999; 2004; Rous, 2004; Rogers, 2010), India (Tyagi, 2009) and Botswana (Pansiri, 2008) where instructional leadership in school supervision has been found to be effective the heads are fully detached and are even known as principals who do not actually teach either as class or subject teachers. They therefore have time to perform their duties as effective instructional leaders.

vii. Lastly, it is recommended that the Ghana Education Service (GES) review the criteria for recruiting and appointing supervisors (headteachers and circuit supervisors) to basic schools. The criteria must include, among other things, higher academic qualifications, at least a first degree, as well as the person's predisposition to supervision and leadership training. This however, does not negate the importance of the prospective supervisors' professional status and experience as teachers. This will undoubtedly improve the quality of personnel charged with supervision in basic schools so that teaching and learning would be improved to achieve the desired results.

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6.4 Suggestions for further research

The main purpose of this project was to investigate how supervisors understand and practice their supervisory roles as instructional leaders in basic schools. It also sought to find out how supervisors use clinical supervision in basic schools as part of their supervision practice. The study however did not find out the challenges supervisors face in using clinical supervision, and the relationship between the academic qualification of supervisors and their understanding and practice of their roles as instructional leaders. It is therefore suggested that further studies be conducted to find outthe extent to which clinical supervision is being practiced and the challenges supervisors face in using clinical supervision.

It is further suggested that since the study was on the understanding and practice of supervisors' instructional leadership roles there is the need for further research into how much time supervisors spend on administrative issues as against other instructional leadership activities. Since this study was limited to Sekyere South District in the Ashanti region of Ghana it is important for further studies to be made in other districts or municipalities in the country so as to make better generalizations.

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA- COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN HUMAN PERFORMANCE TECHNOLOGY,

RESEARCH ON SUPERVISORS' UNDERSTANDING AND PRACTICE OF THEIR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES AND THEIR KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION IN SUPERVISING TEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DATA COLLECTION

Survey on supervisors' understanding and practice of their instructional leadership roles and their knowledge and use of clinical supervision in supervising teachers

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this study is to collect information on how supervisors understand and practice instructional leadership as well as their knowledge and use of clinical supervision in supervising teachers..

Thank you for agreeing to help me by completing this anonymous survey which should take less than thirty minutes. Please feel free to indicate your response because no response is treated as wrong.

....

Benjamin Cudjoe

0243462175

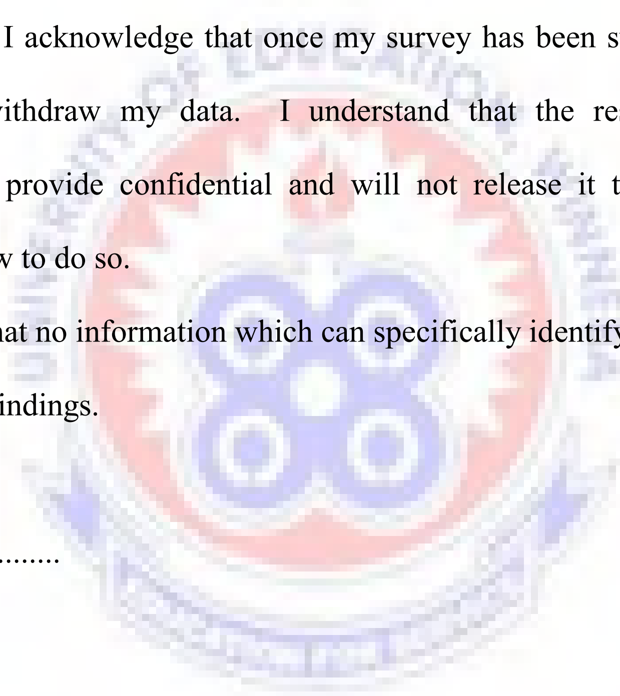
University of Education,Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

Participant Consent

I have read the information about the purpose of study of this survey. Any questions I have about this research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this research. By handing over the survey to the researcher, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I am aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details which may personally identify me by the research.

I know that I may change my mind and withdraw my consent to participate at any time; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data. I understand that the researcher will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law to do so.

I understand that no information which can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.



....

Signed

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Appendix C Questionnaire for supervisors on understanding and practice of Instructional Leadership

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

Please insert/tick details or circle the appropriate category for you.

Sex: Male/Female

Age: Up to 29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+

Your Location: Rural / Urban

Your highest qualification: ___________

Your professional status: Trained / Untrained

Your position: Teacher/Headteacher/Circuit supervisor

Number of years you have served in your current position: ____________

Please indicate your responses by ticking one of the options.

STATEMENTS As an instructional leader I understand that I must	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Control and direct teachers to discharge their duties					
2. Ensure that teachers make good use of instructional time					
3. Ensure that teachers adhere to educational regulations					
4. Observe teaching					

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and learning in school					
5. Monitor progress in pupils learning					
6. Suggest to novice teachers how they should teach					
7. Help teachers solve instructional delivery problems					
8. Provide instructional materials to teachers					
9. Demonstrate new teaching techniques and methods to teachers					
10. Organize in-service training for teachers to upgrade their skills					
11. Provide articles on new research findings on instruction					
12. Provide opportunities for teachers' professional growth					

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Appendix D Questionnaire for Supervisors on their knowledge and use of Clinical Supervision

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

Please insert/tick details or circle the appropriate category for you.

Sex: Male/Female

Age: Up to 29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+

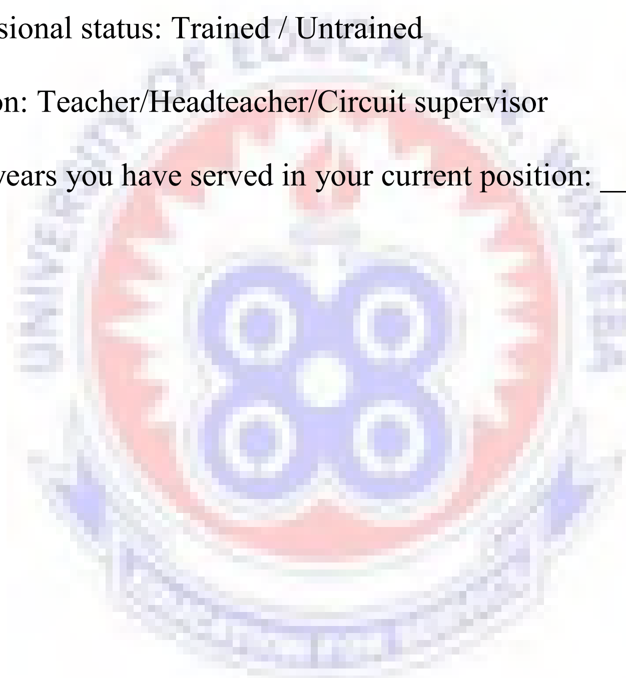
Your Location: Rural / Urban

Your highest qualification: ___________

Your professional status: Trained / Untrained

Your position: Teacher/Headteacher/Circuit supervisor

Number of years you have served in your current position: ____________



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Please respond to these statements by ticking one of the boxes that best suits your understanding as sincerely as possible. No response is treated as wrong

STATEMENTS					
As an instructional leader	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. I have adequate knowledge about clinical supervision					
2. I have been adequately trained to use clinical supervision					
3. I know that clinical supn is more about teachers' classroom practice					
4. I know that I must meet my teachers for discussion before lesson observation					
5. I note down teachers' mistakes in lesson delivery for discussion					
6. I give immediate feedback to teachers after lesson observation					
7. I help teachers to analyse their own lesson delivery					
8. I create room for teachers' suggestions on improving lesson delivery					
9. I usually have pre- observation meeting with teachers					
10. I use post observation meetings to discuss trs' performance					

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Appendix E Questionnaire for teachers on support systems they receive from supervisors

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

Please insert/tick details or circle the appropriate category for you.

Sex: Male/Female

Age: Up to 29; 30-39; 40-49; 50-59; 60+

Your Location: Rural / Urban

Your highest qualification: ___________

Your professional status: Trained / Untrained

Your position: Teacher/Headteacher/Circuit supervisor

Number of years you have served in your current position: ____________

Please respond to these statements by ticking one of the boxes that best suits your understanding as sincerely as possible. No response is treated as wrong

Statements					
Through supervision I am able to	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Receive feedback & recommendations					
2. Analyze my own lesson delivery strategies					
3. Receive regular inset to upgrade skills					
4. Constantly build on my confidence					
5. Constantly improve upon my output of work					
6. Utilize contact hours efficiently					
7. Bring improvement in pupils' learning					
8. Use appropriate TLMs and methods					
9. Update records regularly					
10. Prepare and plan effectively					

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Appendix F Questionnaire for teachers on professional relationship with supervisors

Please respond to these statements by ticking one of the boxes that best suits your understanding as sincerely as possible. No response is treated as wrong.

STATEMENTS					
My supervisor	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Has cordial relationship with teachers					
2. Treats teachers with love and respect					
3. Acts as a counsellor to teachers					
4. Provides platform for dialogue and understanding					
5. Acts as superior and directs teachers					
6. Exposes my mistakes and humiliates me					

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Appendix G Interview Schedule for supervisors

1. How do you understand your role as an instructional leader?
2. How does the understanding of your instructional leadership role reflect in your work as a supervisor?
3. How do you support teachers' instructional delivery in your schools?
4. How do you promote the professional growth of your teachers?
5. What do you know about clinical supervision?
6. How do you use clinical supervision as a model of supervision in your school or circuit?