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EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL COLLEGIALITY ON TEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS IN FAITH-BASED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

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A Thesis in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for award of the Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership) degree

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, KIRK KWAME SIABOUR, declare that, this thesis, with the exception of quotation and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE…….

DATE…….

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR FRANCIS K. SAM

SIGNATURE……

DATE……

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DEDICATION

To my cherished nephew and nieces, Frederick Dente, Grace Dente, Margaret Dente and Blessing Afia Boakyewa Yiadom.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Objectives of the study were to establish the existence of instructional collegiality, the effectiveness of teacher collegiality, find out how instructional collegiality affect teachers' effectiveness, and to significance of instructional collegiality among teachers in faith-based schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. A descriptive survey design was employed for the study using the quantitative approach. The target population for the study comprised all the 460 teachers in the 38 faith-based Junior High schools. The simple random sampling technique was used to select 172 teachers for the study. Closed-ended questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. The data were computed and analysed descriptively using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The study found, among others, that teachers considered and responded appropriately to feedback received from colleagues, and collectively analyzed their teaching practice. There was a positive relationship between instructional collegiality and teacher effectiveness. Availability of openness to different opinions and presence of teachers' sense of responsibility were some of the factors that show effect of instructional collegiality on teacher effectiveness. Based on the findings the study recommends that the Metropolitan Director of Education should organize training workshops for school heads and teachers to address effective instructional collegiality to improve the success of the school.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter discussed the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and organization of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Since the introduction of formal education in the Gold Coast (now Ghana) in 1843 by churches (Faith-based Schools-FBS), Education has undergone enormous changes as a result of educational policy initiatives introduced by various governments. According to Naameh, (2009), religious education began in the Garden of Eden, a fact not often cited by education historians but one substantiated by Scripture. In II Peter 1:3, the apostle says that the knowledge of God is all we need for life and godliness.

The positive role that Churches or Faith-based schools have played in the development of education in Ghana, and still continues to play, in education delivery today is largely acknowledged by Ghanaians as these faith-based schools provide holistic education that include religious and moral upbringing of the school going child. The Church or faith-based Organization derives her right to establish and direct schools for any field of study, kind and grade, from the mandate of Christ to educate and bring all people to the knowledge of their creator (Naameh, 2009). The Church considers it a duty to educate young people as part of her responsibility of announcing the way of salvation to all men, of

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communicating the life of Christ to those who believe in her unfailing solicitude of assisting people to be able to come to the fullness of life (Naameh, 2009).

Faith-based schools, provide Christian education coupled with sustained discipline, as its focus. The faith-based schools make several great achievements in the BECE and WASSCE and members believe that their excellent academic performance was linked with their Christian religious training and collegiality. The belief is that students who receive Christian training coupled with strong discipline and teacher collegiality tend to excel in their academic, social, moral, and economic lives; they are well prepared to face the challenges of life, and to work hard in their future endeavors.

People in general, whether in social or work situations, are influenced by their relationships with others. In one of the classic studies in organizational behaviour, Ayeni and Phospoola (2007) found that worker satisfaction and productivity are influenced by social interaction. Teaching as an art and science thrives on social interaction. Adentwi (2000) stated that, during teaching and learning, there is an interaction between the teacher, the student and the subject matter. In reality, there is constant interaction between teachers and supervisors all in the quest to ensure that quality instruction is delivered during instructional session. That is what is termed collegiality. Research has consistently underlined the contribution of strong collegial relationships to school improvement and success.

Barth (2006), Goddard, (2007) and Tschannen-Moran (2001) argued that high levels of collegiality among staff members are one of the characteristics found most often among successful schools especially in faith-based schools. Teachers are increasingly being admonished to move away from the traditional norms of isolation and autonomy towards greater collegiality and collaboration (Louis & Marks, 1998).

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Lortie (2005) drew attention to the problem of isolation and school improvement in his work. He defined a school as cellular structured classrooms, which means that classrooms are isolated from each other and do not allow teachers to interact with each other in the school. According to Lortie (2005) isolation prevents improving creativity and teaching instructions. When it comes to the possible solutions to teacher isolation, Berry (2005) suggested teacher collaboration as a way to stop teacher isolation.

Traditionally, schools have been isolating places where collegial cooperation among educators is not a common practice for them to make the time to talk or work together. Teachers need opportunities to collegiate with each other to best serve their students, to make their work more meaningful, and to transform schooling in a way that keeps it vibrant and relevant (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney & O'Brien, 2003).

The term collegiality refers to the cooperative relationships among colleagues. Teachers make important career decisions based on collegiality or whether there is positive social interaction in their schools. In the best case, collegiality is high and teachers are fulfilled in their careers. In too many other cases, teachers leave the profession because of difficulty with coworkers and administrators, not because they dislike teaching. However, the exact meaning of the term remains conceptually vague in the literature. It is often used interchangeably with 'collaboration'. Goddard (2007) however, tries to differentiate between collegiality and collaboration by defining collegiality as teachers' involvement with their peers on any level, be it intellectual, moral, political, social, and/or emotional.

According to Goddard (2007), collegiality encompasses both professional and social/emotional interaction in the workplace while collaboration mostly relates to the

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professional sphere of relationships. Berry (2005) defined collaboration as teachers' cooperation aimed at achieving the school objectives. Hord (1986) explained the difference between collaboration and cooperation. He claimed that cooperation is considered as an action where two or more teachers consent to improve their individual practice through working together. While collaboration means sharing obligations and involving teachers in decision making about shared teaching practice. Kruse (1999) claimed that notions of collaboration, cooperation and collegiality are different concepts, but they are interrelated.

According to Kruse (1999), cooperation between teachers happens when they provide basic assistance to their colleagues without sharing common values whereas collegiality is described as joint learning and discussion about teaching practice and students' achievements. Kruse (1999) therefore views collaboration as shared values, decision making about teaching practice and interaction between teachers, which promotes students' performance and the professional development of staff. Thus, collegiality/collaboration means shared values through teachers' learning which influences teaching practice and students' achievements. Moreover, shared decision making about common goals and practice plays a pivotal role in school improvement, and is based on cooperation between teachers and collegial relationships.

The conception that, educators perform better when working together professionally is supported by organizational theory models which emerged earlier in the corporate sector. Such conceptions view authentic teamwork as an essential characteristic of the successful organization as its members interact regularly to share their ideas and expertise and develop common understanding of organizational goals and the means of attaining them (Leonard & Leonard, 2003).

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Strengthening interpersonal relations among teaching personnel is thought to influence school professional culture and leads to increased involvement and ownership among teachers. It also plays a significant role in improving teaching and instructional practices and fostering innovation (Brown, 2000). Other studies that report positive outcomes of teacher collegiality include more positive attitudes toward teaching (Brown, 2000), enhanced job satisfaction, reduced stress and burnout, high morale, professional growth and development, reduced staff turnover, assistance to new and beginning teachers (Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2007), and increased levels of trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Jackson (2004) studied the workplace relationships of Canadian teachers with their peers in relation to their professional well-being and learning. They assert that healthy peer inter-collegial relations are characterized by positive encouragement, support, sharing, recognition, trust, and mutual respect and caring for each other. Teachers who perceived positive peer relationships in their workplace felt comfortable seeking professional help from their peers. The communication among them was fluid, continuous, informal, and embedded in rich workplace interaction and learning. These teachers were involved in coaching, mentoring, being role models for observation, effective work teams, action research, critical dialogue, and collegial problem solving (Jackson, 2004). Jackson (2004)'s study concluded that the impact of collegiality resulted in a good level of job satisfaction, commitment, and positive attitudes towards students, teaching, learning, and one's peers.

A study conducted by Huang (2006) examining collegiality among secondary science teachers suggests that teachers in Taiwan had generally favorable perceptions about their inter-personal relations with peers. Teachers of his study valued collegiality and expressed their enjoyment in supporting, encouraging, and

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cooperating with their peers. They did not prefer to stay in their classrooms all the time. Instead, teachers teaching the same subject shared a common office, an arrangement that promoted healthy collegial interactions and better communication. Teachers felt comfortable in giving comments on each other's practice, discussing their students' progress, and learning from each other particularly during in-service training.

Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney and O'Brien (2003) provide an interesting discussion about the concept of collegiality in the Pakistani context. The study focusing on rural public primary schools of all four major provinces in Pakistan indicates that teachers in collegial schools have personal as well as professional relationship with each other. Teachers were observed to be convivial. Teachers conversed with one another, preferred to have lunch in groups, came to school together, and even visited each other's homes. Teachers helped each other in school-related work and solved both administrative and instructional problems jointly. Teachers felt comfortable in seeking help on instructional as well as classroom management issues (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney & O'Brien, 2003).

The study claimed that strong collegiality among teachers was one of the recurring elements found in all the high-performing schools. Abell, et.al. (2003) therefore, suggested that school administration should encourage their staff to become learning communities so that the participants could bring valuable knowledge to the school setting and exercise joint problem-solving and teamwork techniques.

Another study conducted by Whisnant, Elliot and Pynchon (2005) on government primary schools in Karachi, illustrates that teachers in schools where reforms had been initiated showed greater collaboration for planning and teaching. According to their study, the major aspects of teacher collaboration in Pakistani

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schools include joint discussions on teaching issues, joint reflection on teaching practices, coordination to plan effective lessons, learning new teaching approaches together, and involvement in collective administrative work.

However, a recent study conducted by Whisnant, Elliot and Pynchon (2005) highlighted the lack of effective communication and collegial support among senior and junior faculty members in higher education institutions in Pakistan. They claimed that the internal culture of the selected universities and colleges of their study was individual oriented. The faculties lacked team oriented approach to perform various tasks. Therefore, the researchers implied a need for developing a collegial working environment in higher education institutions and suggested that some platforms for teachers to work collectively must be built in order to enhance team oriented culture where all faculty members could perform collectively for institutional development (Whisnant, Elliot & Pynchon, 2005).

In Ghana, Senior High School teachers share the same office and do lots of interaction in the staff common room. Again, there is the practice where subject departments have intermittent meetings to discuss the concerns of the students and the teachers, evaluate students' performance and also plan for the coming term (DuFour, 2004). These avenues are supposed to be a platform of knowledge sharing and notes comparing for the teachers. This is supposed to be a general practice for Ghanaian Junior High Schools, and faith-Based Junior High Schools are not an exception.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Cooperation among teachers is widely regarded as one of the most powerful factors for the improvement of the teaching profession at schools. School collegiality concerns the quality of the relationships between and among professionals in a school

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environment. Few resources directly help teachers build the human relations and skills necessary to build a collegial school environment (DuFour, 2004).

Teacher collegiality is necessary in an era of continuous change and improvement. It is seen as an opportunity to involve many individuals in solving the complex educational problems of modern times. A wider range of demands can be addressed by using a collaborative approach than by individual isolated efforts (DuFour, 2004). Researches have established that, schools that do not support collegiality among their staff and allow their teachers to work alone in their classrooms waste human resources and contribute to disenchantment with teaching as a career (Whisnant, Elliot & Pynchon, 2005; DuFour, 2004; Huang, 2006).

Collegiality in any organization does not happen by chance, it needs to be structured, taught, and learned. Thus, laying the groundwork for a collaborative and collegial culture and teachers working in isolation cannot produce the same results as interdependent colleagues (Whisnant, Elliot & Pynchon, 2005).

In Ghana, teachers are judged by the performance or learning outcome of their students. In some of the schools, teacher output/effectiveness is measured by the number of students who pass in their subject during the Basic Education Certificate Examination. In some of the schools in the study area, there are awards for the best teacher in the school (Ghana Education Service, 2010). This could make the teachers compete among themselves as against the need to collaborate. This system of practice in our schools seems to promote self-interest as against the group interest.

The issue of collegiality has attained much attention from educational scholars and researchers (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Hausman & Goldring, 2001) over the years in the developed countries like the United States, the outcomes of the studies can neither be generalized to the developing countries nor can their implications be

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applicable to educational institutions in developing countries as a result of the differences in context and environment.

Although potentially pivotal role of collegiality in teacher development has been widely discussed in the literature, it appears no empirical study has been conducted on the effect of collegiality on teacher effectiveness in faith-based schools in the study area. Ababio (2015) conducted a study on teacher collegiality in the Manhyia Sub-metro of the Kumasi Metropolis and found that teacher collegiality exist and contributed to the success of basic schools in the KO cluster of schools which has different culture and climate as far as faith-based schools are concerned.

These have motivated the researcher to investigate the perceived effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis since there are some gaps in the literature that already exist.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceived effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

Specifically the study sought to:

1. find out the existence of instructional collegiality in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis.
2. examine the effectiveness of teacher collegiality in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis
3. establish whether there is significant relationship between

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collegiality and teacher effectiveness in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis

4. establish the significant effect of collegiality on teacher effectiveness in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis

1.5 Research Questions

1. How does the instructional collegiality exist in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis?
2. What is the effectiveness of teacher collegiality in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis
3. Is there any relationship between instructional collegiality and teacher effectiveness
4. What is the effect of instructional collegiality on teacher effectiveness

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will be significant in the following perspectives:

The study will be a valuable reference material for policy makers and stakeholders in education on the crucial role of instructional collegiality among teachers in general play in the teaching and learning process so as to incorporate them in decision making.

Again, the study will upgrade the knowledge of educational authorities in the study area about the current state of instructional collegiality among teachers, the challenges and how best it can be improved for the good of instructional practice in the study area.

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Finally, the study will contribute to the existing literature on instructional collegiality among teachers specifically those in faith-based schools in Ghana. The completed work may be used as a valuable secondary source of information to augment the existing store of knowledge on the subject, and also serve as a blueprint for future research.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to instructional collegiality, and teacher effectiveness. All other issues apart from these were not considered in this study. Again, the study is delimited to only faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The foremost challenge was the unwillingness of some teachers to participate in the study. Most of the teachers were not enthused about participating in the study as they claimed findings for such studies have never been implemented to improve relationships in the school environment. Others were also skeptical about participating because of fear of being victimized for expressing opinions about the school.

To address these challenges, the purely academic nature of the exercise was explained to participants and was also assured of the confidentiality of the outcome of the study. This did not allow a clear view of the study since some responded unwillingly and others failed to do so. These limitations notwithstanding, the researcher was able to collect all the data needed for the study.

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1.9 Definition of Terms

Instructional Collegiality: The sharing of ideas, support, respect, and community among a group of instructors (teachers). Collegiality is related to respect and is about being courteous with all that you relate with.

Curriculum: All that the learners go through under the auspices of the school. According to Doll (1989), curriculum is the 'what' of the instruction – what is intentionally taught to students in a district, school or classroom. The elements of curriculum are sequence and continuity, scope and balance.

Teacher Effectiveness: Teacher effectiveness in general does not have a specific definition but in with several studies conducted, it can be put in this form; generally, effective teachers plan carefully, use appropriate materials, communicate goals to students, maintain a brisk pace, assess student work regularly, and use a variety of teaching strategies. They use class time well and have coherent strategies for instruction. They hold the expectations that their students can learn and believe that they have a large responsibility to help (Cohen, 2003). This list is far from complete.

Organizational commitment: It is an organizational member's psychological attachment to the organization. Organizational commitment play a very large role in determining whether a member will stay with the organization and zealously work towards organizational goals.

Collaboration: Collaboration may be defined as development of a model of joint planning joint implementation, and joint evaluation between individuals or organization (Hord, 1986).

Cluster: Is a group of similar things or people positioned or occurring closely together.

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1.10 Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter One presented the introduction which talked about the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study. The Chapter Two was devoted to literature review related to teacher instructional collegiality in school. Chapter Three dealt with the methodology which described the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, pilot-testing, reliability and validity of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations. Chapter Four looked at the results and discussion. Chapter five, dealt with the summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations of the study, and limitations of the study.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The study was conducted to investigate the impact of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ashanti Region. The chapter also contained the works that have been done by other researchers which were considered relevant to the study under the following sub-headings.

1. Theoretical Framework Underpinning the Study
2. Concept of Teacher Collegiality
3. Teacher Collegiality and Students Achievement
4. Teacher Organizational Commitment
5. Teacher Organizational Commitment and Students Achievement
6. Factors influencing instructional collegiality
7. Effect of Teacher Collegiality on Educational Organization
8. Importance of instructional collegiality
9. Teacher effectiveness
10. Relationship between instructional collegiality and Teacher output
11. Conceptual framework
12. Concept of mentorship
13. Structure of mentorship programme

2.1 Theoretical Frameworks Underpinning the Study

The study was guided by the situativity theories. Teacher learning and professional development within schools may be framed within learning communities

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and situativity theories. Situativity theory emphasizes learning occurring within a particular social environment, through group discussion, shared understanding and input, as well as practical activities to work with new ideas (DuFour, 2004). Learning is, therefore, reinforced when others on-site are involved to share and develop ideas together as happens in the broader social context of communities of practice: '*The meaning that is most personally transformative turns out to be the learning that involves membership in these communities of practice'* (Hargreaves, 2010 p.45). Johnson, Berg and Donaldson (2005)'s research on school-wide change and post-professional models, investigate these situative learning approaches of restructuring and re-conceptualizing schools. The school-wide change and post professional models focus on ensuring teacher ownership of the learning environment, provision of time to address change and to increase school effectiveness. Through balancing individual/schools/systems needs and experimental risk-taking and reflection, a restructuring of schools may occur and new concepts of schools may emerge. This restructuring and re-conceptualizing involves: *'rethinking schedules, staffing patterns and grouping arrangements to create blocks of time for teachers to work and learn together'* (McLaughlin, 1993 p. 214).

2.1.1 Teacher Collaboration

Theoretical models and frameworks such as the Teacher Collaboration Improvement Framework (TCIF), designed by Gajda and Koliba (2008) out of their research, and worked with the Vermont State Department of Education, which identifies six key action steps in effective teacher collaboration models, Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy describes the theoretical foundation applicable to teachers' perceptions of their locusts of control in collaborative professional

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development. Lortie (2005) drew attention to the problem of isolation and school improvement in his work. From the early eighties of last century on, a whole series of books and articles has been published, reflecting a growing interest and belief in the benefits of collaboration and collegiality. Several studies provided empirical evidence for the claims about the benefits, but at the same time contributed to a more balanced view. In spite of the positive claims, however Little (2005) had to conclude, after reviewing the literature, that "the term collegiality has remained conceptually amorphous and ideologically sanguine. Advocates have imbued it with a sense of virtue – the expectations that any interaction that breaks the isolation of teachers will contribute in some fashion to the knowledge, skill, judgment, or commitment that individuals bring to their work, and will enhance the collective capacity of groups or institutions (Lortie, 2005).

Teachers' collaborations sometimes serve the purposes of well-conceived change, but the assumed link between increased collegial contact and improvement-oriented change does not seem to be warranted (Little, 1990). For example, in 1982 Judith Warren Little published a study based on extensive interviews with administrators and teachers from 6 schools (primary and secondary), that were highly heterogeneous in terms of student outcomes and staff participation in professional development (in-service training). She found that a strong sense of collegiality among the staff, manifesting itself in collaborative practices and discussions, positively contributed to teachers' participation in staff development activities and in innovative teaching practices. She concludes: "By celebrating the place of norms of collegiality and experimentation, we place the related matters of school improvement, receptivity to staff development, and instructional leadership squarely in an analysis of organizational setting: the school as workplace" (Little, 1982, p. 339).

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In her book *Teachers' workplace: the social organization of schools* (1985) Susan Rosenholtz takes up that idea in a study of "effective" elementary schools in the US and how their organization (working conditions) positively contributed to compensate for the uncertainties as well as threats to teachers' self-esteem that are inherent in the teaching job. On the basis of both questionnaire and interview data, she concludes that sharing educational goals, forms of collaborative work (sharing, helping and help seeking) and forms of teacher leaders had a positive impact on teachers' experience of their job. While uncertainty is endemic to teaching, even under the best of circumstances, norms of self-reliance in isolated schools leave teachers even more uncertain about a technical culture and instructional practice. Ironically, as teachers contemplate the enormous challenges before them and how or whether they should confront them, perhaps the best weapon they could wield against uncertainty lies in colleagues, particularly teacher leaders, within their own schools" (Rosenholtz 1985, p. 69.

In the United Kingdom Moolenaar, Sleegers and Daly (2011) used extensive case study-methodology to analyse the staff relationships in primary schools. In some of the schools, they identified a distinctive "collaborative culture". Collaboration among teachers was self-evidently part of the daily work life and reflected a specific set of beliefs and values, constituting the school's organisational culture. The culture was built on four interacting beliefs. The first two specify ends: individuals should be valued but, because they are inseparable from the groups of which they are part, groups too should be fostered and valued. The second two relate to means: the most effective ways of promoting these values are through openness and a sense of mutual security (Moolenaar et al., 2011). These examples empirically demonstrated the benefits of collaboration and collegiality, but also revealed the complexity of the issue

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and thus challenged researchers to acknowledge and include this complexity in their work.

The list of benefits attributed to teacher collaboration is impressive: providing moral support and promoting confidence; increasing efficiency and effectiveness of teaching; reducing overload and setting boundaries to teachers' task; promoting teacher reflection and thus teacher learning and finally contributing to continuous school improvement (Hargreaves 2010; Johnson 2007). These benefits, however are not automatically achieved by collaboration, nor accomplished by any form of teachers working together. Little concludes her review of the literature by setting the agenda and said that for teachers to work often and fruitfully as colleagues requires action on all fronts. The value that is placed on shared work must be both said and shown. The opportunity for shared work and shared study must be prominent in the schedule for the day, the week, the year. The purpose for work together must be compelling and the task sufficiently challenging.

The material resources and human assistance must be adequate. The accomplishments of individuals and groups must be recognized and celebrated (Little, 1990). Little's agenda already indicates that a more balanced, differentiated and differentiating approach to the issue is necessary.

2.2 Concept of Teacher Collegiality

2.2.1 Teacher Collegiality

Collegial management suggests that teachers should play a participatory role in the management of a school. Sergiovanni (2001) defined collegiality as the responsibility given to teachers to become an integral part of the management and leadership processes of the school that are guided by that school's shared vision. It is a

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process of assimilation that involves encouraging personal visions to establish a vision built on synergy. It is a vision that is both personal and congenial. It is my vision and our vision (Leonard & Leonard, 2003).

Rather than supporting a responsive reaction (transactional) form of leadership, collegiality places emphasis on being value driven and change directed (transformational). In other words it encourages all teachers to actively participate in their school's development and transformation. Collegiality can be perceived as a style of management which is collaborative, transformational and based on shared objectives (Davies, 1983). Achieving collegiality in a school can be regarded as a process rather than a happening. If this is so, then various strategies need to be put into place to enhance the process of collegiality. Bush (2008) offered similar strategies that can be employed in order to achieve teacher collegiality in schools. The participation of the teaching staff in strategic planning must be encouraged in order to identify goals and objectives for the school through shared goal setting activities. The creation of a shared vision is one of these activities. A sense of belonging, mutual respect and self-evaluation should be encouraged as this may remove the belief that the principal is the expert in such matters (Bush, 2008).

Members of the teaching staff should be treated as partners rather than as subordinates as this will encourage co-operative decision-making. The professional development of the teaching staff has to be fostered as this will enhance the opportunities for teachers to become leaders and will also increase their sense of autonomy and interdependence. In other instances, the term collegiality refers to the cooperative relationships among colleagues. However, the exact meaning of the term remains conceptually vague in the literature. It is often used interchangeably with ‘collaboration’. Goddard (2007), however, tries to differentiate between collegiality

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and collaboration by defining collegiality as teachers' involvement with their peers on any level, be it intellectual, moral, political, social, and/or emotional. According to Goddard (2007), collegiality encompasses both professional and social/emotional interaction in the workplace while collaboration mostly relates to the professional sphere of relationships.

2.2.2 Mentoring

Everyone recognizes the need to provide assistance to beginning teachers, specifically during their first years in the classroom (Little, 1990). It would seem that mentoring programmes should be able to provide beginning teachers with an adequate level of emotional support and with a structure for discussing students in a positive way. However, while there is increasing research on mentoring programmes and recognition that the 'mentor/protégé relationship provides a vehicle for reflection and dialogue. Current mentoring models appear to perpetuate the assigning of unequal status to teachers (Little, 1990; Meyer, 2003). Cole (2004) has also pointed to the limitations that 'assigned partnerships' can have, both in terms of their usefulness and their long-term viability. It is still unclear in what ways these programmes would need to be organised to facilitate collegial relationships that lead to professional development, for the mentor as well as the mentee.

2.2.3 Interdisciplinary Teams

Many schools, particularly at the middle school level, have established interdisciplinary teams of four or five teachers who share a group of students. The greatest concern with this arrangement seems to be that teachers generally have no say in the formation of teams and, therefore, it can be an instance of 'contrived

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collegiality' (Hargreaves, 2010). According to a research by Hargreaves (2010), the two respondents, Karen and Laurie were involved in interdisciplinary teams, and they were interviewed. While Laurie's team was doing a significant amount of co-planning and thematic teaching, Karen's team limited their discussions to observations and methods with individual students. The co-planning task of Laurie's team appeared to produce a more salient shared goal that facilitated self-directed inquiry, reflection and instructional support. It is unclear at this point what factors contribute to an interdisciplinary team's success in being a site for professional development. One critical factor, though, appears to be time. Both Karen and Laurie said that time was the greatest obstacle to professional development, and interdisciplinary teams rarely have more than an hour a day, sometimes an hour a week, for their planning (Cook & Friend, 1991).

This is a far cry from the 3-4 hours that Karen and Laurie spent each weekend over many years engaged in inquiry and reflection about their teaching. Another factor may be inexperience with co- planning and shared inquiry. Few teachers learn these skills while candidates in teacher education programmes (Cook & Friend, 1991) and so may not automatically be successful with this, even if they were provided with adequate time during the school week.

2.2.4 Teacher Networks

Groups of teachers who converse outside of school, either electronically or in face-to-face 'study' group meetings or networks, show great potential as sites for focused, ongoing, and self-directed inquiry by teachers (McLaughlin, 1993). These voluntary groups are now increasingly being viewed in North America, Israel and the United Kingdom as a legitimate forum to promote teacher development. Teachers in

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these informal networks, which may or may not be sponsored by a university or school district, come together – united by a common interest in a particular subject matter, issue or type of teaching – to interact as both teachers and learners. During meetings, teachers converse, share stories, plan instruction or even share results of their own action research projects (Gibson, 2004). For teachers like Karen, who almost left the profession twice, once because she was unsupported and once because she felt she was not developing satisfactorily as a teacher, membership in a teacher network would have been valuable. It was only by chance, what she called a 'fateful confluence,' that she was able to collaborate with Laurie on topics of interest that were current in the professional literature. Establishing teacher networks and developing a culture of teacher inquiry, holds some promise for reducing the randomness or serendipitous nature of professional development (Allen & Johnston, 1992). One unresolved problem with networks, however, is their potential for creating an 'us-versus-them' mentality between those in and outside of the network.

2.3 Teacher Collegiality and Students Achievement

Collective teacher efficacy is linked to enthusiastic teaching and strongly related to student achievement (Goddard, 2007). Creating a sense of professional community in schools permits networks of teachers to encourage the achievement of each other's students through social support and to engage in higher order thinking and knowledge that goes beyond what is usually taught in the classroom (Louis & Marks, 1998).

There has been a concern that traditional curricula delivered and assessed in traditional ways, promote a surface approach to learning rather than deep or even a strategic approach (Entwistle, 1992). High level educational outcomes are being

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increasingly linked with quality teachers and there is a need for ongoing professional learning to ensure that teaching practices are updated within an era of considerable educational reform where small groups of teachers come together as a team to help one another improve students' learning. The team members share and reflect on their practices and personal experiences, observe each other's, study and apply research and best practices together (Education Northwest, 2012). Successful schools stand unique from less successful schools because of time for teacher interaction, teacher observation and teachers teaching one another (Campo, 1993). It is a fact that higher collegial relations within teaching staff leads to higher instruction and in turn, increases students' academic achievement (Schmoker, 1999).

However, Education Northwest (2012) discovered the view from their research that although collegiality was strongly associated with the social support for achievement and authentic teaching, it had no direct influence on students' achievement. Similarly, the research by Supovitz (2002) supports the view that collegiality has no direct link with students achievement. Christman and Supovitz (2003) said that the link between greater teacher collegiality and improved student academic was not as secured as firstly believed. Interventions designed to improve teamwork among teachers'; promoting sharing of common practices did not completely reflect effective teaching and student performance. Re-achievement claims that schools with higher levels of teacher collegiality have greater achievement scores. This may be the core reason for adopting collegiality among staff. It is believed that higher collegial links within teaching staff lead to higher quality instruction and as a result, increased students' performance academically (Schmoker, 1999).

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Generally, nurturing a collegial culture in a school is believed to benefit students learning more than focusing on structural change to improve students' learning. The schools where professionals embrace collective responsibility for students' achievement, students' exhibit higher performance in core subjects. For instance, a comparative study of two high-performing and two low performing schools in Michigan indicated that teachers in the high performing schools reported more occurrences in collaboration as compared to teachers in low-performing schools. It was therefore recommend that school culture needs to change to be less isolating and more collaborative (Christman & Supovitz, 2003).

A study that specifically focused on teacher collaboration as one of the best practices in elementary schools in Tennessee found that the high performing schools had some kind of mandated time for horizontal collaboration in place, although the frequency of these collaborative activities differed from daily common planning time to required meetings once every two weeks (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Smith and Ingersoll (2004) further indicated that fourth-grade students have higher achievement in mathematics and reading when they attendant schools characterized by higher levels of teacher collaboration (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

2.4 Teacher Organizational Commitment

According to Ketchand and Strawer (2001), the need for more complex, scholarly demanding procedures to teaching emphasize that teacher commitment will continue to be pertinent for excellent education. Teacher commitment is nourished by conditions that serve as key elements in the workplace without which, the commitment level of teacher will not be fully realized: They are; job design characteristics, feedback, autonomy, participation, collaboration, learning

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opportunities, resources and security. Organizational commitment is seen as the pivot around which the success of every daring organization evolves. Organizational commitment is seen as an organizational members' psychological attachment to the organization. Organizational commitment plays a vital role in determining whether or not a member will stay with the organization and contribute zealously towards the achievement of the organizational goals for the total success of every established and ready to succeed organization of which the school is not an exception (Ketchand & Strawer, 2001).

Ketchand and Strawer (2001) further indicated that organizational commitment entails an individual's sense of belonging and positive contributions towards the realization of an organizational target. A common definition of organizational commitment include membership with the organization, shared common goals and values between the organization and the individual employees and progressing membership in the organization (Meyer, 2003). Employees are recognized as committed to their organization when they deliberately retain their association with the organization and devote maximum efforts to achieve organizational goals (Mowday, 1998).

In the words of Lee (2012), although collaboration is possible in larger schools, collective learning occurs more easily and naturally in smaller schools. Similarly, teachers' varied personalities and beliefs also enrich collegiality when yoked positively at the working environment. Teachers have their own ideas regarding effective teaching and learning, however, collaboration requires all faculty members to come to a consensus regarding their beliefs and goals (Kruse, 1996). For getting consensus, they need to trust themselves. Until trust is built among them and a consensus has been met on the school's vision, isolation and separate agendas will

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continue to prevent teachers from working together (Schmoker, 1999), and becoming lifelong learners (Leonard & Leonard 1999). Professional must also have a belief in the relationship between individual success and collegial success and must share common interest (Kruse, 1996).

Teachers must sacrifice some of the autonomy they value so high in order to reap the potential benefits of greater collegiality and collaboration (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Diez and Blackwell (2002) state that as teachers are trained to work independently in their classrooms, they are unwilling to relinquish some of their autonomy for successful collaboration. Diez and Blackwell stated further that by developing collaborative networks among teachers and providing structured opportunities for peer review, schools can enrich the organizational climate while providing classroom teachers a potentially powerful vehicle for instructional improvement. Rosenholtz (1985, p.73) advocates this claim "collaboration setting and stress are norms of continuous school and self-renewal. It is assumed here that progress in teaching is a collective rather than individual business and that analysis, evaluation and experimentation with colleague in organizational set-up are condition under which teachers improve professionally.

According to Morris and Sherman (1981) from the behavioural approach, organizational commitment has been studied from the output of rewards / contribution exchange processes between employers and employees On the other hand, the psychological approach looks at organizational commitment from the view of the attachment or identification of employees with the organization at which they work. Meyer (2003) proposed a three-component model of organizational commit according to the nature of the bond that exists between an employee and employer as follows;

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Affective commitment

Affective commitment is defined as the employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. Meyer (2003) pegged Affective commitment as the "desire" component of organizational commitment. An employee who is effectively committed strongly identifies with the goals of the organization and desires to remain a part of the organization. This employee commits to the organization because he/she "wants to". This commitment can be influenced by many different demographic characteristics: age, tenure, sex and education but these influences are neither strong nor consistent. The problems associated with these characteristics are that while they can be seen, they cannot be clearly defined. Meyer (2003) gave this example that "positive relationship between tenure and commitment may be due to tenure related differences in job status and quality. In developing this affective commitment concept, Meyer drew largely on Mowday, Porter and Steer (1979)'s concept of commitment, which in turn drew on earlier work by Bezzina (2006).

Continuance commitment

According to Meyer (2003), the continuance commitment is the "need" component or the gains verses losses of working in an organization. "side bets", or investments are the gains and losses that may occur should an individual stay or leave an organization. An individual may commit to the organization because he/she perceives a high cost of losing organizational membership. Things like economic cost (such as pension accruals) and social costs (friendship ties with co-workers) would be cost of losing organizational membership. But an individual does not see the positive cost as enough to stay with an organization they must also take into account the availability of alternatives (such as another organization), disrupt personal relationship and other side bets" that would be incurred from leaving their

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organization. The problem with this is that these "side bets" do not occur at once but that they "accumulate with age and tenure" (Meyer, 2003).

In a nutshell the continuance commitment is seen as the degree with which you believe that leaving the organization would be costly. If you have a high level of continuance commitment, you will stay with an organization because you feel that you must stay. For instance, you may fear leaving your job may lead to an unacceptable length of unemployment. On the other hand you may feel you will lose a certain degree of status if you quit a well-respected organization (Meyer, 2003).

Feelings of obligation

Meyer (2003) indicated that an individual commits to and remains with an organization because of feelings of obligation, the last components of organizational commitment. These feelings may derive from a strain on an individual before and after joining an organization. For example, the organization may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels a "moral" obligation to put forth efforts on the job and stay with the organization to "repay the debt". It may also reflect an internalized norm, developed before the person joins the organization through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one's organization. The employee stays with the organization because he/she "ought to". But generally if an individual invest a great deal they will receive "advanced rewards". Normative commitment is higher in organizations that value loyalty and systematically communicate the fact to employees with rewards, incentives and other strategies. Normative commitment in employees is also high where employees regularly see visible examples of the employers being committed to employees' well-being (Meyer, 2003).

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According to Meyer (2003), an employee with greater organizational commitment has a greater chance of contributing to organizational success and will also experience higher level of job satisfaction. High levels of job satisfaction, in turn, reduces employees turnover and increases the organization's ability to recruit and retain talent. Meyer based their research in this area more on theoretical evidence rather than empirical, which may explain the lack of depth in this section of their study compared to others. They drew off Wiener's (2005) research for this commitment component. Normative commitment is the degree to which one feel obligated to the organization or believe that staying is the right thing to do. Here you believe you ought to stay.

Meyer (2003) indicated that one cannot base his/her commitment level to just one of the three components of commitment. To them, a commitment profile is the interaction between these three commitment components. The three components can have a significant effect on retention, work performance and member well-being. There is a negative relationship between affective, normative and continuance commitment and member's intention to voluntarily leave an organization. In other words, low affective, continuance and normative commitment increases the likelihood that a member will leave the organization while high levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment are related to high retention rates. Meyer (2003) further indicated that affective commitment has been linked to performance. For example employee with a high level of affective commitment will be less absent from work, be high performers and are likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior such as helping other members, putting forth extra effort and being an advocate for the organization. Meyer further explained that job satisfaction was basically the way individuals thought and felt about their multifaceted work experience. Louis (1995)

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examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment among 109 workers and reported that there are positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Another study by Coleman and Cooper (1997) explained that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and normative commitment.

Rajendran and Raduan (2008) also found in their study that job satisfaction has a positive influence on affective normative commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) define job involvement as a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job. Mathieu and Zajac suggested that job involvement describes how interested, enmeshed, and engrossed the worker is in the goals, culture, and tasks of a given organization. In organizational research, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and the concept of perceived organizational support (POS) have been applied to explain the psychological process underlying the employee attitudes and behaviours (Settoon, Bennet & Liden, 1996). Review of perceived organizational support literature uses social exchange theory interpretation of organizational commitment to explain how an employee's commitment to an organization is influenced by the organization's commitment to employee (Jackson, 2004). Many researchers have investigated the effects of perceived organizational support on important work outcomes such as affective commitment and turnover intention (Eisenberger, 1986).

2.5 Teacher Organizational Commitment and Students Achievement

In the words of Reyes and Fuller (1995), teacher organizational commitment is regarded as one of the common characteristics present in successful and effective schools. Reyes and Fuller (1995) examined schools which promoted shared values

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among employees; they reported that high teacher commitment to school has a positive relation to students' Mathematics achievement in middle and high schools. Kushman (1992) found a positive link between teacher organizational commitment and student achievement in public elementary and middle schools. Vital findings from research examining the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and students' performance advocates that teachers committed to schools engaged in conduct that lead them to achieve school goals and enhance students' achievement (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Committed human resources are organizations greatest assets that every organization cannot do without. To build excellent and experienced professionals, academic staffs are always encouraged to remain committed to their institutions. Committed employee should receive superior attention in order to ensure, the college or the institution will not be burden with high cost if the employees quit and take with them their rich experiences and skills. Meyer (2003) recognized that organizational commitment is a leading factor impacting the level of achievement in many organizations. A lot of studies have been conducted on the relationship between organizational and the success of the institution though there is very little research done to identify factors that impact organizational commitment among academics.

2.6 Factors Influencing Instructional Collegiality

There are many different factors that play an important role in supporting teacher collaboration. Fullan (2007) identified several factors which influence teacher collaboration. They are:

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1. personal and professional factors include openness to different opinions, volunteering, a sense of responsibility, motivation and relationships with colleagues;
2. the team social atmosphere is supported by respect, common goals, the ability to listen to each other and talk;
3. Organizational factors include teachers' schedules, deployment of resources, distribution of tasks and support from management staff.

However, Berry (2005) divided these factors into two main areas: structural conditions and interpersonal dynamics. Structural conditions refer to the factors existing in a school and district, and interpersonal dynamics refer to teachers" behaviors and attitudes.

2.7 Effect of Teacher Collegiality to the Teacher

The task of collegial practices such as co-planning units of interdisciplinary work and de-privatization which involves team teaching and professional observation helps to build the modern classroom teacher with current approaches and methodologies to teaching which calls for self-discipline and dedication on the part of the teacher to improve the teaching approaches which are employed by teachers. Collegiality in itself – calls for shared responsibility which to the largest extent encourages the individual teacher to feel confident and secured at the workplace since complex issues encountered are collectively solved. Research points to collegiality as an important component in educational change and professional development (Little, 2005).

However, teaching especially in second cycle institution has been consistently found to be an isolated activity with teachers lacking opportunities and mechanisms

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for collegial support and exchange (Lortie, 2005). Too many teachers plan their lesson and its related activities in isolation and are rarely given the opportunity to share knowledge or improve their practice by interacting with other teachers during the school day (Darling-Hammond, 2002). Several teachers especially those in technical career-related programmes often complain feeling isolated and end up leaving the teaching profession (Ruthland & Bremer, 2002). Team work among colleague is the ultimate network available and sure to provide an important avenue to address these issues.

According to Moolenaar, Sleegers and Daly (2011) teacher networks promote collective teacher efficiency. Collective teacher efficacy is defined as one's beliefs about their competence to successfully complete a particular task or activity be it individually or collectively. Networks allow teachers to share lesson plans with one another, develop protocols to guide decision-making processes, and communicate with each other about their day-to-day work (Berry, 2005). The networks' activities also include structured study groups for teachers that provide a public forum in which teachers are able to reflect on their efforts after instructional hours and engage in dialogues with their colleagues and in turn yield positive improvements in current instructional approaches and strategies (Hollins, MclnLyre, DeBose, Hollins, & Towner, 2004).

Learning in the social context of a community encourages teachers to support each other and to practice their teaching techniques on each other and it renews their sense of efficacy (Lieberman & Miller, 2011). A current study on teacher collegiality reported that teacher face-to-face connections with their colleagues are valuable when the interactions occurred within their school (Vavasseur & MacGregor, 2008). For instance direct interactions networks within schools contribute to professionals

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learning, instructional practice and shared leadership (Sammons, 2007). Additionally, in math and science, face-to-face networking also has a positive effect on development of purpose, focused work, shared leadership and collaboration when teachers share quality information and use innovative approaches to improve professional learning (Sammons, 2007).

Vavasseur and MacGregor (2008) also reported that connections with other teachers when occur beyond the walls of teacher's schools improves the teacher's quality of work. Given the time constraints that many teachers confront, these networks provide an option that would not be otherwise available in face-to-face interactions and in addition open up a wider net of possible social resources than those available in the immediate physical setting. The opportunity to work in collegial environment is vital in teacher professional development as it disseminates best practices and establishes strong career pathways.

Collegiality furthermore increases teacher's commitment to teaching (Hausman & Goldring, 2001) and potentially reduces high teacher turnover rates (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Also teachers who hold on to collegiality enjoy the two-way exchange of information and sharing of ideas which helps to create status equalizing situations so that all partners can be regularly involved in scholarly interactions and gain new knowledge without the establishment of typical top down relationship. With collegial teachers, their culture requires that all partners be willing to enter each other's worlds and to consider the conditions of these worlds specially and seriously enough to become comfortable there (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Teacher collegiality is recognized as a core aspect of teacher professional growth and development. The basic features that fall under the labels of teacher individualism, isolation and privatism, are greatly perceived as threat to teacher

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professional growth and development. The school environment in our modern world is believed to be the best place for teachers to learn and grow professionally. Schools are beginning to restructure in ways that provide more opportunities for staff to share common views and aspirations together (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Collegial communities create such a cooperative atmosphere that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers and provides a continuous supports for staff professional enhancement. Many educators and researchers have supported the methods of teachers' growth and development that are based on continuous collegial interaction and supports. It is recognized that teacher collegiality could modify instruction; therefore, teachers need to acknowledge the value of working together and to focus on what they have in common (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Under the norms of privatism, much good teaching skills go on unacknowledged, while teachers who work in collegial settings becomes more open to new ideas, teaching methods and resources. It is suggested that collegiality among staff leads to increased teacher satisfaction and adaptability. It breaks the isolation of the classroom and brings career records and daily satisfaction for teachers. Collegiality stimulates enthusiasm among teachers and reduces emotional stress and burnout. It also creates a sense of belonging among organizational members and makes the bonds more cohesive (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Collegial cultures make teachers more committed to their organization and profession. It is reported that collaborating teachers perceived themselves as more committed to their goals and to their students. It is found that collegiality influences the motivation and professional commitment of teachers and the limit to which they are ready to change classroom practices (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Collegiality helps teachers to bear with uncertainty and respond effectively to fast guide change and

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create a climate that values risk taking and progressive improvement. It is believed that teachers who engage in collegiality become more flexible in times of change and cope better with recent demands that would exhaust the strength and resources of teachers working independently. Collegiality is considered as the most important pertinent energy giver and it is claimed that when teachers have strong emotional attachment with colleagues their teaching energy is high (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Hargreaves (2010) listed benefits of collaboration among school staff as, moral supports, increased efficiency, improved effectiveness; reduced overload, synchronized time perspective between teachers and administrators (i.e. shared and realistic expectations about timeframes for change and implementation); situated certainty of collective professional wisdom, political assertiveness, increased capacity for reflection; organizational responsiveness; opportunities to learn, and continuous learning.

2.8 Effect of Teacher Collegiality on Educational Organization

Smith and Ingersoll (2004) stated that collegiality is seen as one of the most important features in determining the quality of a school. It is claimed that the issue of developing collegiality may be integrated to the taste of improving schools. Collaboration appears to be the unifying idea that characterized many of the recent developments in the successful schools of the 1990s. Even the new literature on school improvement is growing the ability among staff to function effectively as professional collegial communities. A workplace study of 76 schools in 8 districts in Tennessee confirmed the importance of social context as the researcher concluded that professional communities in schools advocate for the adoption of collegial

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practices because educators in those social environment naturally seek for improvement strategies (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Smith and Ingersoll (2004) conducted another study in less advantaged public schools in Chicago affirmed that schools with strong and effective professional learning communities improved four times faster than schools without, proper professional collaborative practices in place. Teacher collegiality is necessary in a period of progressive change and improvement. It is seen broadly as an opportunity for many individuals in finding solutions to complex educational problems of modern times. A broader range of demands are easily addressed by using a collaborative approach than by individuals working in isolation. Schools that do not support collegiality among their staff and allow them to work alone in their own classrooms turns to waste human resources and contribute to disenchantment with the teaching profession (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Fullan (2007) observed that, collegiality in any environment does not grow overnight as a mushroom but its needs to be structured, taught, nurtured and learned. It has been recorded that building the foundation for a collaborative and collegial culture among superstar teachers working in isolation cannot produce the same outcome as interdependent staff. The issue of collegiality produces greater results only when a significant number of professional become convinced that it will actually improve teaching and learning. Finally, the rich outcomes from research conducted on teacher collegiality confirmed that effective collegiality in schools is a vital avenue for nourishing and enhancing staff professional growth and development (Fullan, 2007).

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2.9 Importance of Instructional Collegiality

Collegiality is seen as a key aspect of teacher professional development and a vehicle to increase teacher knowledge. The qualities and characteristics that fall under the labels of teacher individualism, isolation, and privatism are widely perceived as threats or barriers to teacher professional growth and development. Schools in recent years are believed to be the best places for teachers to learn and grow professionally and schools are beginning to restructure in ways that provide more opportunities for teachers to teach together (Berry, 2005). Collegial communities create such a cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers and provides a continuous support for staff professional enhancement.

Many educators and researchers (Fullan, 2007; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004) have advocated the methods of teacher growth and enhancement that are based on continuous collegial interaction and support (Fullan, 2007). It is suggested that teacher collegiality could modify instruction; therefore, teachers need to recognize the value of working together and to focus on what they have in common. Under the norms of privatism much good teaching goes on unacknowledged while teachers who work in collegial settings become more open to new ideas, teaching methods, and resources.

DuFour (2004) posited that collegiality among staff leads to increased teacher satisfaction and adaptability. It breaks the isolation of the classroom and brings career rewards and daily satisfactions for teachers. Collegiality stimulates enthusiasm among teachers and reduces emotional stress and burnout. It also creates a sense of belonging among organizational members and makes the bonds more cohesive. Collegial cultures make teachers more committed to their organization and to their profession (Berry, 2005). It is reported that collaborating teachers perceived themselves as more

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committed to their goals and to their students. It is also found that collegiality influences the motivation and career commitment of teachers and the extent to which they are willing to modify classroom practice.

Collegiality provides more systemic assistance to beginning teachers (Brown, 2000). It avoids the sink-or-swim, trial-and- error mode that novice teachers usually face during the initial stages of their career. Collegiality brings experienced and beginning teachers closer together to reinforce the competence and confidence of the beginners. Schools having a good collaborative culture and strong atmosphere of collegiality have lower attrition rates as compared to other schools (Fullan, 2007).

Collegiality helps teachers to cope with uncertainty and complexity, respond effectively to rapid change and create a climate that values risk taking and continuous improvement. It is stated that teachers who work together become more flexible in times of change and cope better with new demands that would normally exhaust the energy and resources of teachers working on their own. The key to promoting change in schools is through establishing collaborative cultures based on the principles of collegiality, openness, and trust (DuFour, 2004).

Norms of individualism and non-interference have efficacy of their own practice which eventually limits the possibility of improving student learning (Fullan, 2007). Collegiality is considered as the most important energy giver and it is claimed that when teachers have strong emotional connections with colleagues their teaching energy is high. Hargreaves listed eleven benefits of collaboration among school staff: moral support; increased efficiency; improved effectiveness; reduced overload; synchronized time perspectives between teachers and administrators (i.e., shared and realistic expectations about timeframes for change and implementation); situated certainty of collective professional wisdom; political assertiveness; increased capacity

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for reflection; organizational responsiveness; opportunities to learn; and continuous learning (Berry, 2005).

Teachers benefit greatly from the collective generation of ideas and suggestions, enhanced communication, willingness to seek and give help, improved practice, and enhanced repertoires of techniques. Other miscellaneous studies that have reported positive outcomes of collegiality for teachers include more positive attitudes toward teaching, open communication among colleagues, high morale, and increments in the levels of trust (Fullan, 2007).

Researchers like Lee (2012), Fullan (2007), Berry (2005) have pointed out that teacher learning can be positively improved through collaboration with colleagues, through sharing ideas, experience, and resources, through giving feedback in order to become reflective about the teaching practice, and through supporting each other. Moreover, according to the study of Goddard, (2007) there is a link between teacher collaboration and students" achievements. In other words, as the teachers are improving teaching skills and knowledge, they start to influence classroom instructions. DuFour (2004) stated the importance of collaboration in providing high quality education: The purpose of school is to see to it that all of our students learn at high levels, and the future of our students depends on our success. We must work collaboratively to achieve that purpose, because it is impossible to accomplish if we work in isolation.

Berry (2005) defined collaboration as teachers cooperation aimed at achieving the school objectives. Hord (1986) explained the difference between collaboration and cooperation. He claimed that cooperation is considered as an action where two or more teachers consent to improve their individual practice through working together. While collaboration means sharing obligations and involving teachers in decision

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making about shared teaching practice. Kruse (1999) claimed that notions of collaboration, cooperation and collegiality are different concepts, but they are interrelated. According to Kruse (1999), cooperation between teachers happens when they provide basic assistance to their colleagues without sharing common values whereas collegiality is described as joint learning and discussion about teaching practice and students‟ achievements. Therefore, according to Kruse (1999) collaboration is defined as shared values, decision making about teaching practice and interaction between teachers, which promotes students‟ performance and the professional development of staff.

Thus, collaboration means shared values through teachers learning which influences teaching practice and students achievements. Moreover, shared decision making about common goals and practice plays a pivotal role in school improvement, and is based on cooperation between teachers and collegial relationships. The importance of teachers' continued professional development cannot be underestimated (Lieberman & Miller, 2011; Hargreaves, 2010), especially during this era of increasing demands on teachers' expertise and higher expectations for their accomplishments. Also, there is a continuous demand for more rigorous standards and school restructuring, as well as calls for more inclusionary practices to accommodate an increasingly diverse student population. With regard to the standards movement, Gibson (2004) conclude, 'professional development is central to any change effort in schooling, and there is a growing awareness of this point on the part of policy makers, administrators, parents and teachers alike' (p. 134). All these demands, however, can be exhausting and demoralizing for teachers, as Hargreaves (2010) point out: Too much educational reform and restructuring is destroying teachers' confidence, draining their energy, eating up their time and taking away their hope.

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First of all, our analysis of the data revealed two important, but distinct types of collegiality – collegial interactions that helped produce an emotionally supportive work environment, and collegial interactions that truly engendered significant professional development. Our synthesis of comments made by Karen and the beginning teachers indicate that a supportive, collegial environment is one in which colleagues keep open the lines of communication, and listen to both the concerns and ideas of others. Good colleagues respect their students and discuss their needs, not their inability to learn. Supportive colleagues do not make inquiries for the purpose of evaluating another's work, rather they converse with peers out of genuine interest in what they're doing (Hargreaves, 2010). Supportive colleagues take pride in each other's accomplishments and recognize the efforts of others, not seeing themselves as in competition with one another. Knowing that beginning teachers continue to leave the profession in high numbers – indeed, nearly 50% leave within the first 6 years– we should be particularly conscientious about seeking ways to promote more supportive environments in which teachers can interact with students and each other (Huling-Austin, 1989).

However, as important as a supportive environment was to Karen remaining in teaching, and as much as the novice teachers seemed wistful about not having more encouraging colleagues, a supportive environment alone is not a sufficient condition for teacher development. While positive, there is an informal, perhaps superficial quality to the interactions. For our set of teachers, it was only the more personal, collaborative, and intensive relationships with colleagues – what Little (1990) might call the 'strong ties' – that showed potential to foster ongoing professional development.

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For colleagues to truly 'collaborate' and take ownership of the process of inquiry together, they need to have some shared values, goals and/or a common vision of teaching. They must have a relationship that is characterized by trust, care and mutual respect. They have to be comfortable sharing self-doubts without feeling like a failure, as well as celebrating successes without feeling arrogant. In a true collegial relationship, peers must be willing to give and receive both constructive feedback and reinforcement (McLaughlin, 1993). The time required to do these things means that there must be a serious commitment by all participants to the issue at hand. An additional challenge to those seeking to promote true collegiality, of course, is that while the formation of such relationships cannot be left to fate or happenstance, neither can they be coerced, mandated or prescribed (McLaughlin, 1993).

2.10 Teacher Effectiveness

Goe, Bell and Little (2008), comment on what constitutes effective teaching and an effective in their paper *Approaches to Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness: A Research Synthesis.* As stated by many other contributors in the discussion of effective teaching and effective teachers, the authors of this paper also recognize the diverse ways by which effective teaching has been defined as a result of the changes in methods for measuring teachers. Due to the absence of a univocal standard or definition of the term, there are commonly used methods to determine the effectiveness of teachers. As well as classroom observations meant to assess teacher practices against a standard of successful teaching, some value-added models measure the contribution of individual instructors to their pupils' achievement improvements.

The authors argue that measuring a teacher's effectiveness solely on the performance of his students' standardized test scores is not enough and flawed as a

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definition for effective teaching. They claim that a teacher does more than to just prepare his students to pass standard tests, and also because teachers are not solely responsible for students' tests results. They offer a nuanced definition of effective teaching with five points:

1. Effective teachers have high expectations for all students and assist pupils in learning, whether assessed by value-added or other test-based growth metrics, or by other means.
2. Effective teachers impact a student's academic performance, attitude toward learning, and social conduct.
3. Effective teachers employ a variety of tools to create and arrange engaging learning opportunities; assess student progress formatively, adjusting teaching as required; and evaluate learning using various sources of data.
4. Effective teachers help to create classrooms and schools that respect diversity and civic engagement.
5. Effective teachers work together with other educators to guarantee student achievement, especially for those with special needs and those at high risk of failing. They also work with administrators, parents, and other education professionals.

This definition takes into consideration all other things students get exposed to by their teachers. As much as teachers' primary mandate is to guide students to academic excellence – pass their tests – it is not the only thing that teachers end up doing, because there are more they expose students to whether willingly or unwillingly.

Goe et al., identify some methods for measuring teacher effectiveness. There is classroom observation, principal evaluation, instructional artifacts, portfolio, teacher self-report measure, student survey, and value-added model.

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Classroom observation is when teachers are observed by raters or supervisors from time to time and a report is given about the teacher's act of duty. The teacher's practices and interaction with students are taken into account as a measure of her effectiveness. The principal observation is usually based on classroom observation. This is used to determine the fate of teachers whether they will have tenure or get dismissed. Instructional artifact as a measurement of teacher effectiveness includes checking her lesson plan, class assignments, scores, and students' work, to check the quality of work by the teacher. Portfolio is the documentation of the behavior and responsibility of a teacher. Teacher self-report measure is when the teacher has to report what she does in class. This can be assessed through surveys, interviews, or instructional logs. Student survey is when the views and opinions of the students are taken since they have direct contact with the teacher and can provide a candid picture of the teacher's responsibilities and execution of duties. Value-added model is used to assess a teacher's role in students' test score gains.

After discussing the methods of measuring teachers' effectiveness, Goe et al. (2008) suggest a comprehensive view of teacher effectiveness. They argue that the five-point definition of teacher effectiveness they provided, proves that focusing only on students' test results doesn't show the broader picture of the effectiveness of teachers. However, many states in the United States assess teachers' effectiveness by focusing on outcomes from a single of one of the measures for teacher effectiveness. Usually, classroom observation is preferred, and sometimes value-added model is preferred. Utilizing one or both of these techniques to assess teacher effectiveness misses the numerous essential ways in which teachers contribute to their student's success and well-being in their classrooms and schools. As a result, developing a complete score for instructors that incorporates many metrics is one approach to

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gather the information that isn't captured in most classroom observation procedures or scores produced using value-added models.

What Goe et al. (2008), have done in this research synthesis is to challenge a somewhat conventional perspective on what constitutes effective teaching and when a teacher can be called an effective teacher. Since you cannot solely rate a teacher's effectiveness based on how her students perform in some national standardized test, teachers' effectiveness should encompass the totality of their interaction with students – their attitude, their mentorship, their counseling, their encouragement, and how they shape the students' cognitive abilities beyond the subject they are being taught. The authors include a social responsibility to teachers aside from the academic responsibility assigned to them. In the case of Ghana where our traditional values encourage a moral responsible attitude of every individual, the views shared by Goe et al.(2008), resonates with the average Ghanaian teacher.

Stronge, Ward and Grant. (2011), add their voice to the discussion of effective teaching. In their paper, they also mention the complexities of defining effective teaching or who an effective is. As correctly said, "teacher quality is a complicated phenomenon, and there is little agreement on what it is or how to quantify it." Indeed, there is substantial disagreement on whether we should evaluate teacher effectiveness based on teacher inputs (e.g., credentials), the teaching process (e.g., instructional methods), the output of teaching (e.g., impacts on student learning), or a combination of these aspects (Lewis, Parsad, Carey, Bartfai, Farris & Smerdon 1999). However, their paper seeks to determine an effective teacher by looking at classroom performances of students from scores in mathematics and reading.

From their findings, Stronge et al. (2011) state that student accomplishment is only one type of educational outcome metric. It does not examine the extent to which

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high- and low-performing instructors' instructional techniques, use of questioning, and classroom management strategies differ. It assesses the outcome and is a factor to consider in effective teaching, but it does not assess the process or instructional techniques that lead to higher student accomplishment. They continue that there is no empirical data to tell the difference between what less effective teachers do differently from more effective teachers.

They observed some differences between teachers they deem effective and less effective. It was observed that effective teachers had fewer student disruptive behaviors as compared to less effective teachers. Less effective teachers experienced interruptions in their classes every 20 minutes on average, whereas effective teachers experienced disruptions once per hour. Another difference is classroom management. Effective teachers performed considerably better in the two categories of classroom management. One aspect of classroom management includes creating routines, monitoring student conduct, and spending time wisely and productively. The other is concerned with classroom organization, which involves assuring the availability of required resources for student usage, the physical arrangement of the classroom, and optimal use of space. There are also Personal characteristics. There was a substantial difference in the two categories of personal characteristics between effective and less effective teachers. Teachers in the first sense performed better in terms of fairness and respect, as well as having positive connections with pupils.

The research from Stronge et al (2011), only establishes what Goe et al. (2008) sought to improve in their attempt to define effective teaching. Stronge et al reduce the measure of effective teaching to students' performance from reading and mathematics tests. They indeed stated in their findings that there is no empirical data to show exactly the differences between teachers that had students scoring low marks

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– less effective, and teachers that had students scoring high – effective teachers. The main determinant of an effective teacher according to the research by Stronge et al. is students' performance in a standard test which is objected by the views of (Goe et al, 2008)

Ko, Summons and Bakkum (2013) argue that to measure teacher effectiveness, we look at students' performance, instructor behaviors, teaching methods, and classroom behavior that are established to improve the students' outcomes. Effective instructors must be clear about the instructional goals, possess adequate knowledge about the substance of the curriculum and the teaching techniques, and communicate effectively with students about what is expected of them, following suitable teaching approaches and material to make learning effective, should be informed and aware of the students, tailoring instruction to their needs, anticipating misunderstandings in their current knowledge, teaching students meta-cognitive strategies and offering opportunity for them to master them, covering higher as well as lower-level cognitive objectives, giving feedback on students' comprehension and performance, blending their education with those of other subject areas, and assuming accountability for the student's results.

As a teacher, your effectiveness is determined by your ability to teach efficaciously, as well as your ability to evaluate your students and determine what they need to learn. You also need to know how to ask the right questions to engage and challenge your students, and consolidating understanding is regarded to be an effective use of assessment for learning (Ko et al., 2013).

Following an assessment of the discussion by Stronge et al. (2011), Aina et al. (2015) argue that an effective teacher expects to learn a lot. Teachers with low expectations of their student's ability to grasp a subject will not care if their pupils do

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not comprehend it after their instruction. The instructor should be motivated to find out why the students didn't comprehend the idea, and maybe teach it again to enhance understanding of the teacher has set a high bar for students' knowledge of the subject. They continue that when it comes to educating students in the sciences, effective teachers employ a variety of technology. Depending on the expertise of the user, technology may be used in a variety of ways to teach and earn. Technology is a must-have for today's effective educators. Excellent instructors do not overlook complicated concepts or themes in the curriculum; rather, as an effective teacher, he or she will do all necessary to guarantee that such concepts are useful to the pupils.

Assessment and feedback are critical components of student development. Aina and Adedo (2013), establish that feedback was shown to be highly significant in teaching and learning since it improves student learning. Every competent teacher understands how, when, and what kind of evaluation and feedback is required in his or her class. We have several forms of assessment; regardless of the form, assessment activities consume a significant amount of time for instructors and play an essential role in both teachers' and students' lives.

A decent learning environment is the responsibility of a successful teacher. An excellent and unsuccessful teacher may easily be distinguished by how they manage their classroom throughout a lesson. It is the responsibility of a great teacher to properly manage the classroom to ensure that students learn. To achieve good educational outcomes, instructors must have the ability to arrange classrooms and govern their students' behavior. A teacher's effectiveness depends on basic administrative abilities, such as an understanding of classroom dynamics, according to Orji (2014)

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Engaging students both inside and outside of the classroom is essential to student learning. To increase classroom learning, teachers must engage students in a meaningful way. Another reason why physics students may not perform well academically is a lack of connection between teacher and student, according to Aina (2013). Interest and achievement in a subject are determined by the teacher-student relationship (Onah & Ugwu, 2010). Students can be motivated to achieve their goals by creating classroom environments that encourage good cultures and healthy interactions.

Aina et al, (2015) adds that interaction between teachers and students is highly important in school since it helps pupils succeed. The primary base for teaching is the contact between the instructor and the learner. For kids with behavioral and learning issues, a positive teacher-student connection may be even more important. Student learning is most effective when they can freely express themselves, which might be when they are alone with the teacher.

Learning occurs best in a setting with good interpersonal connections and interactions, in which learners feel valued, acknowledged, respected, and admired. Students who have a deep and supportive connection with their instructor are more engaged and work harder in the classroom, have greater perseverance in the face of challenges, and are better able to manage stress (Aina et al., 2015).

Aina et al. (2015) mention that other significant factors in determining a teacher's effectiveness are motivation, topic understanding, and student assignments. Students who have lost interest in science classes due to the abstract nature of the topic or because of professors' poor teaching techniques might benefit from motivation. According to Christiana (2009), students' motivation is crucial to their learning process and success. It's never a good thing when this drive is absent due to

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incompetent teaching. Student academic performance will suffer if a teacher is ineffective in the classroom. Because of the significance of teacher efficacy, it is not suitable to hire untrained teachers in schools.

Content knowledge is a critical component for any good instructor. Teachers will teach their students what they know. There will be problems with both quality of learning and academic achievement, according to if a teacher lacks the necessary topic expertise. He or she will be ineffective in the classroom. There is a correlation between a teacher's self-efficacy and their topic understanding (Obodo, 1990).

There is a strong correlation between teacher self-efficacy and student results, according to research. Podell and Soodark (1993) found that instructors with high self-efficacy are more likely to create higher student results because they are more persistent in assisting students who have issues. Several studies have shown that instructors who are confident in their abilities to teach yield better student outcomes across a wide variety of academic subjects (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003).

Efficacious instructors, according to Bandura (1993), devote more time to students' learning, help them achieve their goals, and encourage intrinsic drive. Self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness are positively correlated. Self-efficacy of the teacher is responsible for individual variations in instructors' performance. A school's academic standard might be raised by increasing the efficacy of its teachers. Moving effective instructors to low-performing schools might potentially improve student performance in those schools (Aina et. al, 2015).

To be effective, instructors must possess the information and skills necessary to attain their objectives (whether personal or school's) and be able to use that knowledge and skill effectively to accomplish their objectives (Anderson, 2004). It is both additive and cumulative that teachers' effectiveness has on students' academic

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success. Teachers' effectiveness increases students' academic achievement (Sanders & Rivers, 1996).

2.10 Relationship between Teacher Collegiality and Teacher Output

Teacher collegiality is hypothesized to have a strong association with student achievement (Goddard, 2007). Research literature on education reform and school improvement suggests that improved student performance may be fully realized only when teachers routinely function as teams and abandon their traditional norms of isolationism and individualism (Leonard & Leonard, 2003). Teacher collegiality is regarded as one of the most common attributes found in all successful and effective schools. Successful schools can be differentiated from less successful schools by establishing time for teacher talk, teacher observation, and teachers teaching each other (Campo, 1993). It is believed that higher collegial relations among teaching staff lead to higher quality instruction and, in turn, increased student academic achievement (Schmoker, 1999).

Louis and Marks (1998) from their research found that though collegiality was related strongly with the social support for achievement and authentic pedagogy, it had no direct effect on student achievement. Similarly, the research conducted by Supovitz (2002) also supports the view that collegiality cannot be linked directly to improved student achievement. Supovitz and Christman (2003) stated that the link between greater teacher collegiality and improved student academic achievement was not as direct as initially believed. Interventions designed to improve teamwork and communication among teachers, fostering sharing of best practices, and strengthening teacher relationships did not necessarily translate into more effective teaching and better student performance.

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Research examining the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and student achievement suggests that teachers committed to their schools engaged in behavior that lead them to achieve school goals and enhance students' achievement. Kushman (1992) found a positive correlation between teacher organizational commitment and student achievement in urban elementary and middle schools. Woolfolk (1993) also suggest that higher organizational commitment is related to higher student academic achievement. Reyes and Fuller (1995) studied communal schools which fostered shared values among employees; they indicated that high teacher commitment to school was related to students' mathematics achievement in middle and high schools.

2.11 Conceptual Framework

The study is built around the conceptual framework that, continuous instructional collegiality among teachers lead to individual and collective professional development and improvement in teaching in schools. Figure 2.1 presents the conceptual framework for the study.

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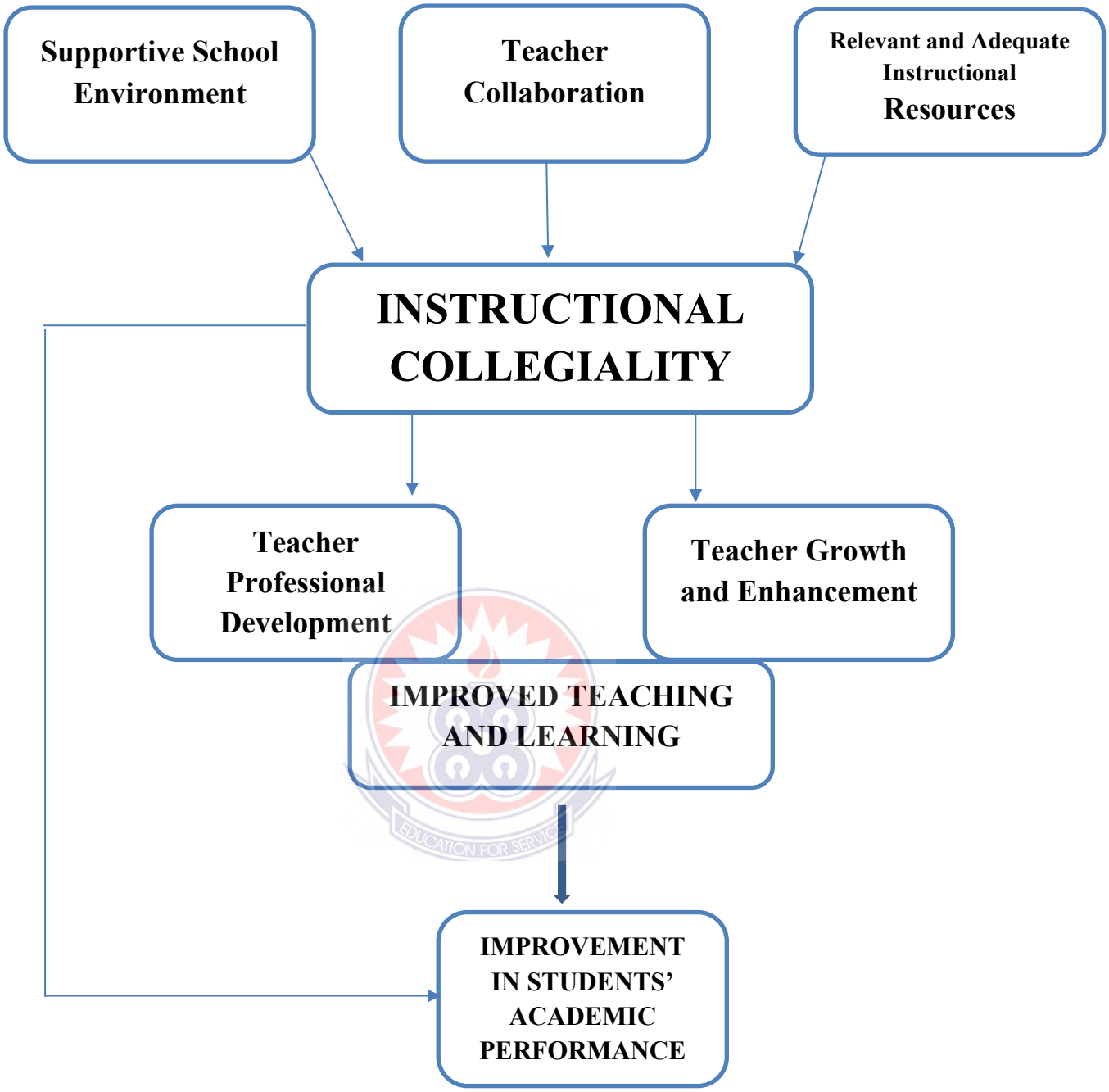

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework on Instructional Collegiality in Schools (Author's own construct)

From Figure 1, it can be observed that instructional collegiality flourishes under the banners of Supportive school environment, teacher collaboration and relevant and adequate instructional resources. Teacher collegiality leads to teacher

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professional development and teacher growth and enhancement which are evident in an open communication among colleagues, positive attitude towards teaching, collective generation of ideas and innovation and use of appropriate pedagogical skills. The end result is the improvement in teaching and learning which is mostly evident in the academic performance of students.

Cole (2004) pointed out that there is a relationship between mentorship and teacher collegiality, and therefore mentoring programs should be well organized to facilitate collegial relationships that lead to professional development, for the mentor as well as the mentee. What then is mentorship? The next sub-heading was devoted to the concept of mentorship.

2.12. Concept of Mentorship

The concept of mentorship is thought to originate in Greek mythology. "In the Odyssey by the Greek poet, Homer, Odysseus one of the characters, was to go and fight in the Trojan War. He was leaving behind his son, Telemachus and realised that he might be away for quite a while. While he was away Telemachus would need coaching and guidance, he therefore hired a trusted friend, with the name Mentor to be his son's tutor (Tepper & Taylor, 2003).

Tepper and Taylor (2003) suggests that in order "to determine the meaning of an expression one would have to ascertain the conditions under which the members of the community use – or, better, are disposed to use – the expression in question" Often the concepts presented are suggestive, identifying the attributes of mentoring rather than stipulating the meaning of the concept itself and, in particular, its boundary conditions. More than a few researchers fail to even provide a definition of mentoring (Allen & Johnston, 1997; Burke & McKeen 1997; Chao 1997; Green &

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Bauer 1995; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). The few formal, stipulated definitions provided in the mentoring literature sometimes do not have the coverage or plasticity required for research to move easily to new topics. We suggest that many of the current problems in conceptualizing mentoring and, consequently, developing theory, stem from an inattention to the conceptual needs of a growing field of study. Conceptual development of mentoring has for some time been stunted. Concepts and, thus, theory seem held hostage to early precedent.

Its contemporary popularity notwithstanding, serious research on mentoring began relatively recently (Kram, 1980). While it is impossible to identify a single work and say categorically that it is the beginning of mentoring research, one can make a good argument that Kram (1980)'s dissertation and her 1983 *Academy of Management Journal* paper provided a beginning to the contemporary research tradition. The 1983 article is still the most frequently cited journal article on the topic of mentoring, and her conceptualization of mentoring has been either directly quoted or reworked only slightly in many subsequent studies. In her seminal paper, Kram identified four stages of mentoring, but at no point provided an exacting definition. Eby, Butts, Lockwood and Simon (2004), noted that mentoring involves an intense relationship whereby a senior or more experienced person (the mentor) provides two functions for a junior person (the protégé), one function being advise or modelling about career development behaviours and the second function being personal support, especially psycho-social support.

The early, relatively imprecise Kram conceptualization of mentoring has influenced subsequent work to a considerable extent. While the early definition (or, more accurately, the early *discussion*) of the term was entirely suitable for the topic's 1980's level of explanatory and empirical development, subsequent application and

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conceptual stunting is more troubling. Eby (1997) provides an appropriation of the Kram conceptualization that is quite typical:

> *'Mentoring is an intense developmental relationship whereby advice, counselling, and developmental opportunities are provided to a protégé by a mentor, which, in turn, shapes the protégé's career experiences. This occurs through two types of support to protégés: (1) instrumental or career support and (2) psychological support.'* (p.126)

Other researchers (Chao, 1997; Ragins, 1997) use close variants of this definition. To be sure, there has been a great deal of refinement and articulation of mentoring concepts and measures. However, as we see in Table 1, most of the branches connect to the same conceptual taproot. For example, Eby (1997) expands the Kram (1985) conceptualization to the idea of peer mentoring, moving away from the original focus on the mentor-protégé dyad. Whitely, Dougherty, and Dreher (1991) distinguish between "primary mentoring" (i.e. more intense and longer duration) and more ephemeral "secondary mentoring," but still beginning with the Kram conceptualization. Chao, Waltz and Gardner (1992) use Kram's conceptualization in connection with both "formal" and "informal" mentoring. Ragins (1997) examines diversity and power relations, beginning with the Kram conceptualization. Scandura (1998) examines a number of questionnaire items, factor analyzing them and interpreting the results in terms of the dimensions initially suggested by Kram.

Perhaps one reason why early, somewhat imprecise concepts continue to hold sway is, ironically, the fragmentation of the literature. Early mentoring concepts seem

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to be the only glue holding together highly diverse research. Still, there have been some extensions and departures in conceptualization. For example, researchers now address the possible negative outcomes of mentoring, where barriers prevent mentors from providing guidance to protégés (Eby, McManus, Simon & Russell, 2000; Eby & Allen, 2002; Scandura, 1998). Eby and colleagues define negative mentoring as the specific incidents that occur between mentors and protégés, mentors' characteristic manner of interacting with protégés, or mentors' characteristics that limit their ability to effectively provide guidance to protégés (Eby, McManus, Simon & Russell, 2000). Some researchers have extended their mentoring definitions to include alternative forms of mentoring such as peer mentoring (Bozionelos, 2004), formal and informal mentoring (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992), and diversified mentoring, relationships where individuals of different racial, ethnic, or gender groups engage in mentoring (Ragins, 1997). While one can perhaps argue that the core meaning for mentoring remains in wide use, it is certainly the case that multiple meanings have added complexity and in some instances ambiguity. Conceptual clarity seems to have hampered theory development. As Merriam (1983 p.165) notes, "how mentoring is defined determines the extent of mentoring found."

2.14. Structure of Mentorship Programme

Mentoring programmes encompass various aspects that require meticulous planning, implementation and monitoring for effective results (Hamilton, 2003). According to Hamilton (2003), at the initial phase of the mentoring programme the following aspects need to be communicated to the mentor, mentee and the supervisor of the programme.

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Firstly, the rationale of the mentorship programme; secondly the objectives; thirdly the responsibilities of the participants and lastly the regulation regarding confidentiality and other issues which may arise (Hamilton, 2003).The lack of these considerations could pose risks for an organisation as pointed out by Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002). A mentorship programme that lacks explicit objectives and details can cause frustration and ultimately lead to poor mentoring, thus an attempt to introduce a follow-up programme could be rejected by the potential participants to the programme.

Furthermore, Kardos and Johnson (2008) note that not all mentoring programmes are carefully structured and mentors are not always aware of what is expected of them. Hence mentoring programmes that are disorganized are not a useful tool for the mentor and mentee and should be avoided as they will serve no purpose for the effective development of the mentee.

It is thus evident that if mentor teachers are not aware of the purpose of a mentor programme it could influence their role as mentors negatively (Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010). A vital step when developing a mentoring programme is to assess the needs and expectations of the mentees and mentors, otherwise the danger is that the programme can be underutilized and consequently be ineffective (Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002). Garvey and Alfred (2000) suggest that the following considerations be taken into account when developing a mentoring programme: (a) The role of the mentor must be specified and clear;(b) The organisation must understand the purpose of mentoring; (c) Mentoring is a process and it facilitates the learning of the mentee; (d) Both the mentor and the mentee must be committed; (d) Mentoring requires hard work and (e) the focus of the mentorship program must be on

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the mentee (Garvey & Alfred, 2000). Mawoyo and Robinson (2005) alluded to the fact that a mentoring programme should address the specific needs of the mentee.

Also, Quick and Siebörger (2005) postulates that gradual changes by all stakeholders can lead to an improvement and this can be achieved by coordinating the realistic intricacies of the teaching practice programme. Moreover, Hamel and Jaasko-Fisher (2011) argue that it is vital to develop a mentoring programme in relation to the live experiences of mentors and interns. Hamilton (2003) suggests several methods and principles to structure formal mentoring programmes that will facilitate the success of the programme which is to communicate, coordinate, monitor, be flexible and integrate. In light of these methods firstly, a detailed explanation should be provided to management and staff regarding the objectives of the mentoring programme. Secondly, staff should be informed when the mentees will be joining them and how the mentorship programme will align itself with the staff development activities. Thirdly, mentors should be trained to create an awareness of their role as mentors and what type of support will be offered during the mentoring programme. Lastly, clarity should be provided regarding the person who is responsible for initiating the first meeting. To arrange the first meeting between mentors and mentees a social event such as a lunch can be hosted to ensure that everyone taking part in the programme meet. The development of the mentoring relationship can be checked on a regular basis, for example once a month. In addition, in-depth interviews or questionnaires can be designed by an external person to evaluate the success of the programme (Hamilton, 2003).

A mentor's role encompasses that of a friend, parent and supervisor, thus a brief orientation session will not be sufficient to equip the mentor regarding the foregoing aspects (Hamilton, 2003). Mentees also need training to inform them

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regarding their role expectations of the mentorship programme, such as how to learn from experience and how to formalise their relationship with the mentor. The foregoing sentiments will minimise problems and enhance the learning of the mentee. Maphosa, Shumba and Shumba (2007) contended that in order to establish a meaningful mentoring programme more attention should be focused on the way the programme is structured. The realities of teaching practice should be investigated to provide appropriate guidance to mentors. The enhancement of mentoring programmes can only be possible if colleges of educations and schools co-ordinate the programme collectively to ensure effective mentoring (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007).

To facilitate the aforementioned recommendation Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) asserted that colleges of educations should take it a step further and arrange workshops with the schools to equip and assist mentor teachers, whilst Quick and Siebörger (2005) have shown that collaboration between mentor teachers and teachers at the various colleges is vital. The greater the collaboration the greater assistance the mentees will receive regarding their professional development during teaching practice. In addition, when there is a strong collaboration between colleges and schools, mentees will receive a better quality of mentoring and, consequently, a more meaningful learning experience (Mawoyo & Robinson, 2005).

It is evident that collaboration between the stakeholders could result in realizing the optimal benefits of mentoring. Schools' contribution to mentoring programmes during teaching practice can be valuable if the colleges of education communicate with them directly and give appropriate guidance of what is expected of school-based mentors (Quick & Siebörger, 2005). Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) suggested that at the start of the mentoring programme all the stakeholders involved in the mentoring programme should: (a) develop an understanding of what the

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mentoring programme entails; (b) discuss and clarify the aims of mentoring; (c) describe clearly the needs of the mentees; (d) compile structured time frames for mentors and mentees to dialogue and (e) construct an instrument to evaluate the mentoring programme. The foregoing suggestions will ensure on-going self-reflection of the mentees, thus developing their levels of competency. These considerations are supported by Frick, Arend and Beets (2010) who pointed out that a mentoring programme that focuses on developing the teaching competences of the student teachers, and which illustrates empathy and understanding from the mentor can be a valuable tool to enhance teacher preparation. It is important that individuals are not forced into mentoring and that only individuals who are willing to be mentors be allowed to do so (Garvey & Alfred, 2000). The skills and qualities of the mentor will differ according to the aims of the mentoring programme and the manner in which the organization would like to achieve the objectives (Hamilton, 2003).

Knowledgeable and skilled mentors should not be the only focus to ensure a successful mentorship programme (Hamilton, 2003). The responses of the mentees who participated in the study of Allan (2007) indicated that the choice of mentors should also be based on their personal qualities, as opposed to only their professional status within an organisation.

This provides a clear indication that the criterion for choosing mentors should be based on the teachers' skills and qualities. Mentoring programmes are most likely to fail if appropriate support is not provided from management and the coordinators of the programme (Hamilton, 2003). Mentoring programmes may cause less time for other obligations and conflict with the mentor's personal life and other commitments (Winberg, 1999). Therefore, before a teacher commits to the role of a mentor they should consider how it may impact on their other activities within the school context.

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2.14.1. Characteristics of a Good Mentorship Program

A good mentorship program gives all the responsibilities and describes the role of the mentor (Winberg, 1999). Many times mentors do not know how to help their mentees. They are confused about their role; are they more of a guide, instructor, advisor, friend or all of the above? Frick, Arend, Beets, (2010) described mentoring as a complex role that encompasses criticism and praise, pressure and nurturing, logistics, organization, and persistence.

Many teachers that are serving as mentors have not participated in a formal mentoring training program. Heeralal and Bayaga (2011) were of the view that this prevalent aspect of school based mentoring programs presents special challenges that are further exacerbated when mentor teachers receive no or inadequate training and only token support for their work. They may find the role of mentor especially complex and confusing. They are unsure of how to share their years of teaching experience without being overbearing (Ganser, 2002). Some mentors express concerns about being seen as interference rather than a helpful guide (Ganser, 2002). It is vital that mentors know what the expectations of them are. This will alleviate concerns about the role of the mentor and where they fit in with the mentee. Mentoring encompasses so much more than simple support and help. Danielson (2002) describes the typical mentor support as including, “assistance in planning and delivering lessons, working with students with special needs, interacting with parents and staff, and providing encouragement.” It is important that the mentor have the training in order to know how to fulfil the needs of the novice teacher. The training can range from a short orientation to extensive training (Ganser, 2002).

Frick, Arend and Beets (2010) described three characteristics of a good mentor program. First, a mentor program requires formal training for all mentors, it provides

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specific examples of the roles and responsibilities expected of a mentor, and it requires mentors to document all conferences and activities involving the mentee and mentor. If a mentor does not have clear expectations and high quality training then it minimizes their ability to help and support beginning teachers (Ganser, 2002).

According to Huling-Austin (1992), research has also shown that teachers should be trained in schema theory, how to discuss the subject matter with the mentee. The mentor should focus on how they solve problems and try to explain the organization of their thinking to their mentee. Records indicate that in the beginning stages of the mentee/mentor relationship focus on providing information about the system rather than curriculum and instruction (Korthagen, 2004). As a result, mentors need to be trained in how to incorporate subject matter in their conversations with their mentees. Mentors may also need to be trained in how to collaborate with other teachers. After years of working in isolation they need to work on developing the skills to mentor novices (Korthagen, 2004).

2.14.2. Role of teacher training institutions in mentorship programme

According to Van Wyk and Daniels (2004), a country that neglects the standard of how they train their teachers will eventually influence the standard of their education negatively. Recent studies have revealed concerns regarding the quality of teacher preparation (Campbell & Brummet, 2007; Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010). Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) places the blame on teacher training institutions for the poor quality of teachers. Similarly, Campbell and Brummet (2007) accused teacher training institutions of continuously reproducing the status quo. The challenge remains for teacher training institutions to therefore rethink their teacher education programs in order to ensure better quality teachers.

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Research conducted by Quick and Siebörger (2005) has shown that, despite mentoring having so much potential to assist student teachers during teaching practice, it does not always yield the desired outcomes. In their view, there were disparities in the role expectation of mentors and teacher training institutions during teaching. Schools that these student teachers are attached, on the one hand, expected teacher training institutions to take a bigger level of responsibility regarding the supervision of student teachers and also to provide feedback to mentors regarding the development of the students. Rather, teacher training institutions wanted schools to take sole responsibility for the professional development of students during teaching practice (Quick & Siebörger, 2005). Their study showed that responsibilities should be shared fairly between schools and the training institutions.

According to Campbell and Brummet (2007), teacher training institutions lecturers' primary mentoring roles are those of coach, critical friend and co-inquirer. As coaches, lecturers should assist student teachers through discussions to ascertain what they know and provide strategies for understanding teaching and learning. Whilst supporting pre-service teachers' ways of thinking, as critical friends, lecturers should challenge the student teachers' practices and actions. As co-inquirers, lecturers should see student teachers as learning partners. It can be argued that one of the core purposes of a teacher education programme is to influence the actions and thinking of pre-service teachers (Campbell & Brummet, 2007).

Moreover, teacher education programmes should assist student teachers to develop effective teaching skills and to comprehend the requirements of the teaching profession. A tool that can assist teacher training institutions to achieve this objective is mentoring. Several studies strongly argue that mentoring can be used as a valuable tool to enhance teacher preparation (Maynard & Furlong, 1993; Van Wyk & Daniels,

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2004; Frick, Arend & Beets, 2010). Hence the question remains what role should teacher training institutions play to implement an effective mentoring programme?

According to Van Wyk and Daniels (2004), higher education institutions play a vital role in the implementation of an effective mentoring programme. Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) postulated that a mentoring programme requires a "vigorously critical process of integrated procedures of pre-planning of both mentor and mentee". To ensure that both mentor and mentee are briefed regarding the objectives of the mentoring programme, higher educational institutions are responsible for the following considerations: Firstly; who will be the person to coordinate the programme? Secondly, in what manner will the system be coordinated? Lastly, how will the mentors be selected?

Mentoring programmes continuously need to be monitored. Regular meetings should be held with the mentor and mentee, and a level of commitment is necessary from all the participants to ensure an effective mentoring programme. Hence the structure and implementation of teacher education mentoring programmes need careful consideration, and teacher training institutions are saddled with the major task of how to implement an effective mentoring programme. Mentoring student teachers does not merely involve attaching them to a mentor but, rather, ensuring that meaningful mentoring takes place. Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) notes that a careful selection criterion for mentors must be in place to train mentors. The training must equip mentors to assist, coach and direct pre-service teachers. Echoing this sentiment Mawoyo and Robinson (2005) asserted that, when mentor training takes place, mentors should learn how to nurture, develop and understand the needs of student teachers. However, if mentor training does not take place, mentors will rely on their teaching experience to mentor the mentees. Thus clear guidelines are important for

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mentors to know precisely how to guide student teachers (Mawoyo & Robinson, 2005). It is therefore necessary for lecturers in the teacher training institutions and mentor teachers to work together in developing a mentoring programme conducive for teacher development (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007).

In light of this, Van Wyk and Daniels (2004) emphasises that mentoring should be structured according to the needs of the mentee. Moreover, Van Wyk and Daniels suggest that mentoring programmes should be examined carefully to provide "convincing evidence" that mentoring has the potential to improve the quality of teacher education. Campbell and Brummet (2007) argue for a social learning structure" where pre-service teachers, mentors and lecturers create a common set of goals, unpack problem solving methods and are willing to learn from one another. They perceive the latter stakeholders as a "community of learners. Frost (1993) contends that schools and teacher training institution have the option to maintain the status quo or to enhance professionalism. This author argues that the second option can only be achieved if the expectations of mentoring mentees are raised to develop critical pedagogy for both mentee and mentor. Furthermore, Frost believes that the second option is the teaching profession's hope for the development of quality teachers. The views expressed by this researcher on the development and implementation of teacher education mentoring programmes centre around the needs of the mentee to ensure the facilitation of their professional development and growth. Therefore it can be argued that the mentees' needs should be a key component when structuring an effective mentoring programme. In light of the aforementioned, the needs of the mentee can be assessed during their teaching practice.

In conclusion, Quick and Siebörger (2005) proposed three important aspects that could improve mentoring pre-service teachers during their teaching practice

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experience. Firstly, on-going communication between mentors, lecturers and the teaching practice co-ordinators is important and can be facilitated by arranging meetings between the various stakeholders. Secondly, teacher training institutions lecturers should visit the schools more than is currently required of them to meet with the mentors and to observe lessons of the mentee. Thirdly, teaching practice could greatly improve if lesson presentations by students are observed by their subject lecturers (Quick & Siebörger, 2005).

2.14.3. Roles of a mentor in mentorship programme

Literature reviewed indicates several roles of the mentor to facilitate the professional development of a mentee (Tomlinson, 1995; Winberg, 1999; Hamilton, 2003; Portner, 2003; Mohono-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006; Campbell & Brummet, 2007; Michael & Ilan, 2008; Rheineck & Roland, 2008). A mentor's role is multifaceted and fulfilling a mentor's role should not be taken lightly (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007). Mentors are referred to as counsellors, role models and advisers who share their experience within experienced individuals and provide the mentee with information on the logistics of how the place of work functions (Mohono-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006 p.384). The mentor's primary role is to purposefully bring the mentee to a standard of acceptable professionalism (Portner, 2003 p.7). A mentor can function optimally in their primary role by assessing, relating, guiding and coaching. The last two functions "draw upon the eclectic body of knowledge that informs the mentoring process and are carried out through a variety of skills and behaviours" (Portner, 2003 p.7). A mentor typically assists the mentee to understand the realities of the workplace and how to utilize their strengths to best influence situations (Hamilton, 2003 p.3). Corbett and Wright (1993) sum it up and

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state that the school-based mentor's role is not merely an administrative one or attending meetings, but encompasses collaborating with the mentees and lecturers.

Also, mentors play the role of coach in that they assist the mentee to locate resources, to improve their understanding of subject knowledge and to expand their skill of teaching (Portner, 2003). The foregoing can be achieved if the mentor shares their experiences of teaching, providing the mentee with examples of teaching methods and creating a pathway where mentees can, through self-reflection, take ownership of improving their teaching. According to Hamilton (2003), coaches need to be knowledgeable regarding the skills involving recognising what the mentee is doing wrong and providing detailed steps for mentees to improve their performance. To enable this notion, mentors should be able to provide feedback that the mentee can understand, practice and be motivated to act on (Hamilton, 2003).

Furthermore, the role of the mentor is to provide expert advice to the student teacher about the elements of their lesson presentation and to give suggestions for improvement. Similarly, Hamilton (2003) contends that the "wisest" role of the mentor would be to showcase their subject knowledge to a mentee. For example, the mentor shows the mentee how a lesson presentation is done following a particular teaching method, whilst the mentee observes the mentor who tells the mentee beforehand what the lesson will entail. The aforementioned is reflective of a teacher that models exemplary behaviour that is expected of a teacher. Moberg (2008) describes wisdom as a behaviour that exudes positivity as wise people are capable of making practical decisions and are often drawn into conditions where such decisions are necessary. Wise people often choose to mentor as they realize how beneficial it can be to their own growth and development (Moberg, 2008). Whilst Moberg (2008) argues that wise people are more capable of mentoring, his research did not show

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evidence of the foregoing argument. In his study he found that wise persons are not more likely to be drawn to mentoring than people who are not perceived as wise.

However, when the mentor and mentee engage in an open discussion about the development of the mentee, the collective decision they make appears to be wiser than making an individual decision. Consequently, mentors who lack in wisdom may have been forced to mentor and thus had no say in the matter.

Another role of a mentor is to guide the mentees as opposed to dictating how to teach (Oetjen & Oetjen, 2009). Mentors need to develop an understanding of how student teachers learn to teach specific subject content and generate skills to aid them effectively. Moreover, they need to develop an understanding of what the pre-service teacher is attempting to do in the classroom thus figuring out how teaching works (Tomlinson, 1995). This view is supported by Oetjen and Oetjen (2009) who stated that mentors should act as a guide to enable the student teachers to make appropriate decisions on how to embark on their task as teachers. Hence a mentor's role is not to illustrate the perfection of teaching but in fact create awareness that teaching is complex and ever-changing. Mentors teach a range of classes in a school, and within the limitation of their own timetable they have to arrange observation and teaching periods for pre-service teachers for a particular time period. The major concern for mentors is to ensure that mentees are given an opportunity to create an awareness of possible problems, are given assignments that are challenging, and that a wide range of sufficient experience is obtained (McIntyre & Hagger, 1993). Hence it is vital that the mentor guides the mentee towards independence to create their own understanding of teaching and learning strategies (Portner, 2003). Decisions regarding teaching and learning should be driven through reflection thus empowering the mentee to make informed decisions and take suitable action for future situations regarding teaching

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and learning. The aim of guiding the mentee is to wean the mentee away from depending on the mentor for on-going guidance and suggestions. The objective of weaning the mentee is to make the mentor's role redundant, and to achieve this goal the mentee must display a level of autonomy, to show confidence when acting on decisions and to reflect on the accuracy of their actions (Portner, 2003).

In conclusion, despite the increasing attention of mentoring mentees, Hamel and Jaasko-Fisher (2011) argue that the position mentor teachers hold in the teacher fraternity continues to be vague. In their view finding teachers who are capable of mentoring student teachers is a challenge due to the mismatch of role expectations between the mentor and mentee.

2.14.4. Role of a mentee in mentorship programme

Recent literature pays attention to the role of a mentee as well. For mentees to experience optimal benefits of mentoring they should be aware of their role expectation and practice these expectations to the best of their ability (Karel & Stead, 2011). In a study conducted by Beard (2007), he emphasises that colleges of education together with their students should assume responsibility for ensuring that the internship will be a value-added experience. The responsibility of the students is to be clear about what their roles and objectives will be during the internship and find suitable work places that are aligned with these objectives. For students to become aware of their role as mentees they should be empowered through workshops on how schooling, teaching and the curriculum are structured (Long, Moran, Harris & Ryan, 2007).

Furthermore, mentees can also hamper the mentoring relationship if they do not comply with the requirements of reflecting and talking with their mentors

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(Hamilton, 2003). This perspective is given weight by Johnson (2007) who adds that regardless of appointing the most competent mentor, a mentee can display behavioural traits that could lead to conflict. For example, the mentee could have a low self-esteem and could perceive critical feedback from the mentor as punitive. A mentee that is interested in learning will seek critical feedback from a mentor and will accept it without being defensive (Karel & Stead, 2011). If the mentee is not in agreement with the mentor's feedback it is important that a discussion is pursued for clarification.

On the other side of the coin the mentor is also required to motivate the rationale behind the feedback provided to the mentee (Nillas, 2010). It has also been shown by Hamel and Jaasko-Fisher (2011) that mentees can be perceived as an additional burden to the mentors' workload. Hence mentees should tread carefully so that they are not intruding upon a mentor's work environment. It is therefore important that a mentee acknowledges the mentor's input and concern for the mentee's pursuit for learning (Karel & Stead, 2011). For mentees to illustrate a genuine interest in learning they should show initiative for seeking opportunities that are not confined to what is expected from them in the written mentorship policy, for example, offering their services to assist with the extra-mural activities or assisting marginal learners with additional classes (Karel & Stead,2011).

2.14.5. Relationship between Mentees and Mentors in mentorship programme

It is important to mention that every mentoring relationship is unique, just as every individual is unique. Although each person develops unique perspectives of how to improve instructional practices for the benefits of their students, it is significant to mention that the beginning of a positive mentoring relationship between

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a mentor and mentee will influence the success of the outcomes of any implemented programme (Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Jones & Straker, 2006). Yendol-Hoppey and Dana (2007) supported this stance with the argument that, by establishing a trusting relationship with the mentee, the mentor can capitalise on the mentee's ability to be responsive to coaching sessions.

Clutterbuck (1991) summarises the criteria needed for fulfilling the role as a successful mentor. According to Clutterbuck (1991 p.36), a mentor must:

1. Manage the relationship
2. Encourage the mentee
3. Nurture the mentee
4. Teach the mentee
5. Offer mutual respect
6. Respond to the mentee's needs

The value of Clutterbuck's criteria for being a successful mentor is that it provided me with a framework for criteria to use in this study to evaluate the relationship of the mentees with their mentor.

Mentoring Relationship refers to the day-to-day functioning of the mentor and mentee whilst they are taking part in the mentorship programme. This relationship can be successful, meaning that the mentor is playing his or her role effectively and that the mentee is benefitting from the relationship. This relationship focuses on the development of the mentee through the regular intervention of the mentor (Caruso, 1992). Framed in a continuous professional developmental context, Daresh (2003) considers mentoring as an on-going process in which individuals in an organisation provide support and guidance to others who can become effective contributors to the goals of the organisation.

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Tellez (1992) suggests that the best mentoring relationships emerged from a positive organisational climate in schools. Nevertheless, the existence of a supportive school climate might have been a product of the work of mentoring or, alternatively, the mentoring relationships for beginning teachers could be attributed to the existence of the supportive school climates.

2.14.6 Mutual Benefit of Mentoring to Mentor and Mentee

According to Smith (2002), the relationship between a mentor and a mentee is essential to successfully assist new teachers. Through these relationships, beginning teachers will be able to better handle the day-to-day challenges of a classroom. Collaborative mentoring involves the mentor and mentee working together as equals in the mentoring program. The mentor acts as a probe and mirror, as in the non-directive mentoring, but also participates in the problem solving process by offering solutions and proposing actions (Vonk, 1996). Wildman, Magliaro, Niles and Niles (1992) also reported that mentors can provide assistance by sitting in on parent conferences, planning together, allowing the mentee to observe class, and helped to set up class routines.

According to Phillips-Jones (1998), one will leave the world a better place if he or she makes time to help others. He emphasizes that sharing your knowledge and wisdom developed from many years of working can make a significant change in a person's life and this is what happens in mentoring. Relationships are developed in organizations both unilaterally and bilaterally. Power is not just a gun, a baton, a hundred dollar bill that can be passed from hand to hand but a relationship among human beings. A unilateral relationship is one-sided in that one human being is

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influencing or affecting another. A bilateral relationship, in contrast, is interactive; one human being can both influence and be affected by another.

Phillips-Jones (1998) further explained that both mentors and mentees benefit from the mentoring program if there is a cordial relationship. To achieve this, critical measures need to be in place to enable both develop and grow professionally and personally. Phillips-Jones listed the following as some of the measures:

1. Purpose - both mentor and mentee need to develop an agreed understanding of the purpose on why they are together and meeting. There is common agreement on the work that will be undertaken, and there is recognition of when the purpose has been met and goals of the relationship have been met.

2. Communication - occurs in a manner that is mutually agreeable and within agreed time frames. A number of active communication skills are required to enable an effective partnership including, active listening and responding; monitoring of nonverbal language; clarifying questions and concepts; and providing opportunity for feedback.

3. Trust - is critical and includes maintaining confidentiality of information, honesty to act and follow through on promises and sharing of yourself to explore possibly difficult questions/issues.

4. Process – the program occurs in a staged approach – planning; building relationships/negotiating agreement; developing and maintaining the momentum; and ending the relationship.

5. Progress – the mentee must take responsibility for the progress of the mentoring relationship. The mentee works actively to firstly identify appropriate goals and build competencies to reach those goals and identifying interesting learning experiences and explores these with the mentor.

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6. Feedback – the way of receiving feedback has been agreed to and the information received reinforces the efforts of both.

Positive mentor-mentee relationship would help to facilitate a flourishing teaching experience, hence it is important to discover ways mentors and mentees can contribute to the relationship development (Margolis, 2007). A positive mentoring relationship where mentors employ personal attributes can help mentees to reflect on practices towards achieving student outcomes (Sempowicz & Hudson, 2012), yet the process begins with forming the mentor-mentee relationship in teaching and in other occupations (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008; Gibson, 2004; Gormley, 2008). Mentors can gain personal benefits through a mentoring program (Huling & Resta, 2001). Mentors can develop strong connections with mentees and a sense of esteem from the mutual efforts and satisfaction in what they create together (Bainer, 1997).

Anastos and Ancowitz (1987) suggests that the relationship between mentor and mentee could develop to peer relationship. Anastos and Ancowitz viewed this kind of mentoring relationship as age peers (those of the same age but different organizational level). It also take on some qualities of a mentor relationship, but are peer like in the sharing of common experiences and career dilemmas (Kram, 1985).

Clutterbuck (1991) also explained some benefits of mentoring to mentees. He listed the following as some benefits of mentoring to mentees: greater clarity about personal development and career goals, being able to discuss, in an open and unthreatening environment, issues about their career and development, improved networking, practical advice on organizational politics and behavior, the opportunity to be challenged constructively, transfer of knowledge and, in particular judgment and having a role model.

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2.14.7 Negatives aspect of mentoring

To come to an understanding of effective mentoring, it is necessary to be aware of negative aspects of mentoring and concerns in the mentoring process. Indeed, mentors and mentees have identified and expressed concerns about personal and professional problems affecting the mentoring process, and the management of the mentor's time for delivering effective mentoring. There are negative aspects of mentoring pre service teachers in professional experience programs, and negative experiences can affect the mentoring process (Sudzina & Coolican, 1994). For example, McLaughlin (1993), Hargreaves (2010), and Long (1997) have found collaborative environments that stifle innovation and reinforce traditional practice, even though this appears not to be the norm (Little, 1993).

In general terms, three problem areas have been identified in the highly complex field of mentoring, namely, "the definition of mentoring, the role of mentors, and the selection of mentors" (Giebelhaus & Bendixon-Noe, 1997, p. 22). Although problems vary from pre service teacher to pre service teacher (Johnson, 2007), there appears a lack of solidarity and agreement on all the issues.

For example, Breeding and Whitworth (1999) report on four prominent issues that emerged as needs for beginning teachers were strategy sharing, access to facilities and supplies, effective classroom discipline, and appearing competent. Yet, according to Campbell and Kovar (1994), typical mentoring problems occur in these four main areas: mentee's academic preparation, mentee's accountability, mentor's skills, and appropriateness of the professional experience site. Regardless of the different perspectives, negative experiences in any of these areas have implications for learning how to teach successfully, and can have a negative effect on the mentee's development as a teacher.

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2.14.8 Importance of mentoring programme for student teachers

The rationale for mentoring rests within the benefits that both mentors and mentees receive during or as a consequence of the mentoring process. These benefits motivate and encourage the recipients to partake in a mentoring program (Long, 1997; Miller, Thomson, & Roush, 1989). In general, both mentors and mentees find professional and personal benefits associated with mentoring. Many researchers have investigated the impressions of mentor-teachers concerning their roles, and the professional and personal benefits gained from assuming these roles, for both mentors and mentees (Edwards, 1998; Ganser, 2002), which are further discussed in the following.

2.14.8.1 Mentoring as a change process

During the 1990s, mentoring became a feature of many organisations (Edwards, 1998). Mentoring is now established as a collaborative program for developing teaching practice, which occurs within professional experiences in schools. As mentoring programs are designed to "induct novice teachers, reward and revitalize experienced teachers, and to increase professional efficacy" (Huling-Austin, 1989 p.5), educators (Mullen, Cox, Boettcher, & Adoue, 1997) have pushed for new patterns of mentoring within student teacher education. Mentoring can be a means of guiding change by constructing knowledge about the curriculum, teaching, and learning (Little, 1990; Looney, 1997).

Mentoring can also act as an agent of change where mentors and their mentees can learn together (Rodrigue & Tingle, 1994) by using collaborative teaching to parallel professional development within school settings, the result is the improvement in what happens in the classroom and school, and better articulation and

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justification of the quality of educational practices" (Van Thielen, 1992, p. 16). Mentees generally rely on their mentors for learning experiences in teaching subjects, such as primary science. Therefore, learning current teaching practices from mentors will require strategic planning for enhancing the pre-service teachers' practices (Jarvis, Murphy & Gale, 2001). However, for mentors to be effective, mentoring programs need to focus on specific objectives for developing teaching practices. Mentoring can be a change agent but will require a readiness from mentors to guide pre-service teachers towards effective teaching.

2.14.8.2 Professional benefits for mentors

A teacher can grow professionally as they engage in dialogue with mentees and assume the role of a pre-service teacher educator (Huling & Resta, 2001; McIntyre & Hagger, 1993).

Furthermore a mentoring program can promote growth, recognition, experience-enhancing roles, and collegiality for mid- to late-career teachers who serve as mentors (Killion, 1990). Additionally, the mentor's professional reputation can be enhanced. Mentors can develop a sharper focus on teaching by increasing the amount of time spent on reflecting on practice for both themselves and their mentees (Huling & Resta, 2001).

Also, mentors' professional lifelong learning can be enhanced, as they constantly reflect and assess the knowledge, values and beliefs that guide teaching practice (Stanulis, 1994). "This re-examination and reassessment, combined with the exposure to new ideas in subject matter pedagogy and effective teaching research often brought by the beginning teacher, stimulates professional growth on the part of

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the mentor as well" (Loucks-Horsley, Harding, Arbuckle, Murray, Dubea, & Williams, 1987, p. 90).

2.14.8.3 Personal benefits for mentors

Mentors can gain personal benefits through a mentoring program (Huling & Resta, 2001). Mentors can develop strong connections with mentees and a sense of esteem from the mutual efforts and satisfaction in what they create together (Bainer, 1997). A mentoring partnership can increase the mentor's confidence in their own teaching abilities, which in turn can motivate the mentor towards risk taking for new teaching strategies (McCann & Radford, 1993).

Furthermore, mentoring not only results in improved teaching skills and further risk taking, but also has the personal benefits of increased self-respect, and a renewed enthusiasm for teaching (Huling & Resta, 2001; Miller, Thomson & Roush, 1989). Some educators (Thies-Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1987) claim that many teachers are often discontent because of the somewhat repetitive nature of teaching and that these teachers need new experiences to continue educational growth.

Again, teachers who become mentors can benefit with a rejuvenated interest in work, contributions to professional development, assistance on projects, and friendship. There may also be a sense of having input into developing and extending the teaching profession through the mentoring process with the excitement of discovering new teaching talent (Willis & Dodgson, 1986) and nurturing this talent as a "coach." In a case study between a mentor and pre-service teacher, a mentor reported to Gomez (1990) about the "pleasures of helping another teacher" (p. 54). Generally, mentors gain personal benefits from mentoring and, as a result, mentors are usually willing to continue their involvement in mentoring (Scott & Compton, 1996).

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2.14.8.4 Benefits for mentees

Although mentors receive benefits from mentoring programs, the mentoring process is primarily for the mentee's benefit. Mentees need to make sense of teaching (Brown & McIntyre, 1993), and it appears undisputed that careful and systematic assistance for learning how to teach can aid a mentee's development as a teacher (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986; Veenman, 1984). Essentially, professional experiences are opportunities for mentees to emulate many of the mentor's positive attributes and aim to make mentees feel significantly better prepared in tasks most critical to their careers. Mentoring is seen as an important career start by providing professional contacts (Seibert & Sypher, 1989). For example, the mentor can provide increased collegial networks for the mentee which makes mentoring a powerful training tool and the one that [may provide] mobility within the organization (Fleming & King, 2007).

Apart from learning how to teach, mentees are known to receive personal benefits from mentoring as well. Mentees emphasise the importance of mentors for emotional support and insights (Scott & Compton, 1996). Indeed, a study by Ganser (2002) reports that encouragement and support, particularly emotional support affirms the mentee's value and worth as a human being. Mentoring was found to be most helpful to mentees in the areas of self-image and self-confidence (Lankard, 1996), and learning some leadership behaviours and skills (Jean & Evans, 1995). Such mentoring benefits may also apply for developing behaviours and skills in teaching.

2.14.8.5 Pedagogical benefit

The provision of effective mentoring by supervisors and mentors may be enhanced by a reappraisal of the professional learning opportunities open to these key

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personnel. The literature often makes reference to the need for training of mentors (McIntyre & Hagger, 1993). However, mentors come to the role with a wide range of professional experience and, consequently, they have different needs and expectations. An alternative approach is to provide opportunities for mentors to meet and engage in a professional dialogue focused on professional practice and the development of new understandings about learning and teaching.

Furthermore, the relative professional isolation of teachers in schools and classrooms means that experienced teachers often value opportunities to learn about professional practice elsewhere and to make comparisons with their own experience and practice. This requires collaboration in the development of shared understanding of, and insight into, mentoring and teacher competence.

Beginning teachers had a high regard for mentors' professional expertise, assistance and support and mentors were valued for providing personal practical knowledge and situational specific assistance in a diversity of teaching roles.

2.14.9 Professional identity and Practices of Mentees

Despite increasing scholarly interest in identity in the last two decades, consensus about what precisely this term means is far from being reached. Identity has become a powerful issue, despite its complex and varied meanings and interpretations, including those relating to people's internal systems, group membership (Brown, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) nationalism or positions taken in conversations (Bamberg, 2006).

The role played by others in the construction of identity is argued to be crucial (Hall, 2004). Identity evolves as individuals participate in social life or as they act as members of a group. This leads towards the conceptualisation of

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collective identities when an individual identifies with a group and builds up a sense of group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

A teacher's identity not only comprises personal knowledge and action, but is also influenced by the ideological, political and cultural interests and circumstances surrounding teachers' lives and work Teacher identity is argued to be constructed as part of the process of learning to teach (Britzman, 2003). This process generally starts when students choose teaching.

Jackson (2004) argues that a mentor, one should understand that the individual must be considered as a whole person and each mentee is a unique person and must be treated as such. In order to play their role effectively, mentor must aware that the mentee's total environment is educational and must be used to help the mentee achieve full developmental potential. The development of the mentee has to say about how institutions and people around them can best challenge and support individual to promote their psychosocial and cognitive development.

According to Jackson (2004) in reviewing the mentee/student development process and blending the positive contributions of the emotional mind (affective learning), several important elements emerge. These elements need to be addressed in mentee/student development programs that strive to balance cognitive and affective learning:

(1) Systemic and sustained as a normal part of the educational experience

(2) An emphasis on the understanding of meaning rather than an accumulation of knowledge facts

(3) Communal with respect to the development of individuation and community

(4) Team building and human relationship development are inherent aspects of the learning environment

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(5) Cross-disciplinary, interconnected, integrated, and holistic

(6) Cognitive and affective learning given great breath, depth and width throughout the curriculum

(7) Active and collaborative learning maximized

(8) Service learning integral to the process of education and leadership development

(9) Powerful partnerships between those responsible for "in-class" and "out-of-class" learning (seamless transition from in-class to out-of-class learning environments)

(10) Learning viewed as an inherent (casual) outcome of the total environment and

(11) Applied institutional research used as a mechanism for improvement.

The mentee development focuses on human growth and environmental influences and designs that provide environments to promote mentees' learning and maturation. Mentees.Develop1ment encourages educational interventions that strengthen skills, stimulate self-understanding and increase knowledge. Therefore, the development of mentee requires consideration of equality, cooperation and collaboration among all parties. Individual can be assisted to build on their own unique developmental processes. The more individualized this development and the activities that support it, the better. The well-rounded development of the whole person is the primary goal of those who promote mentee development.

2.14.10 Impact of Activities on Mentees

It might be expected that some more confident and capable beginning teachers and more committed and enthusiastic mentors, would be likely to produce knock-on gains for these teachers' pupils and schools, notably in terms of enhanced pupil teaching (Moor, Halsey, Jones, Martin, Stott, Brown & Harland, 2005). The evidence on this particular outcome is however limited, partly, we feel, because of the

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complexity of researching it. There is a growing body of evidence, though, largely from the USA, which tells us that mentoring programmes for beginning teachers promote increased retention and stability: teachers who are mentored have been found to be less likely to leave teaching and less likely to move schools within the profession (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Johnson, Berg & Donaldson, 2005; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

It is also possible that both schools and educational systems may benefit from the enhanced retention of those teacher-mentors who become more confident and committed as a result of their participation in mentoring, which is one of the aims of some mentoring schemes, though again there is limited direct evidence of this to date. In their report of the evaluation of the Pilot Professional Development Programme for Teachers Early in their Careers in England, Moor et al. (2005) suggested a number of additional benefits to schools in general, of their involvement in this kind of mentoring programme. For example, it was found that, through mentoring relationships and the raised profile of beginning teachers and of early professional development activities within the school, staff came to know each other better, which led to their increased collaboration and enjoyment. In addition, and related to this, some mentors involved in the programme reported that more experienced teachers had also begun to come to them for individual help and advice on specific areas and/or their own professional needs, suggesting that the programme had fostered a more developed culture of professional development and support within participating schools.

Finally on this theme, it is sometimes argued that mentoring is a cost-effective method of training and developing staff, since mentors are able to carry out their role in conjunction with their normal teaching job and there is no cost incurred for external

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training providers or premises (Murray, 1991). Edwards (1998) argued that partly due to the assessment framework of ITP in England and partly due to their concern to protect their 'own' pupils and their learning, primary phase teacher-mentors in her study tended to guide their student teacher-mentees into 'low risk' activities (Malderez Hobson, Tracey, & Kerr, 2006); some primary and secondary phase ITP mentors in England had been reluctant to let their trainees take on responsibilities in the classroom; and Beck and Kosnick (2000) concluded that many mentors in their study did not give their mentees sufficient 'freedom to innovate'.

Numerous studies have shown that mentors have tended to see their role primarily in terms of the provision of safe sites for trial and error learning (Edwards, 1998; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996) or have tended to focus, in their interactions with mentees, on matters of technical rationality (Wright & Bottery, 1997), and/or on practical issues such as classroom management, craft knowledge and mentees' teaching of subject content (Lee & Feng, 2007; Sundli, 2007). In doing so, they have devoted little or insufficient attention to pedagogical issues, to the promotion of reflective practice incorporating an examination of principles behind the practice, or to issues of social reform and social justice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Lindgren, 2005).

Indeed studies have shown that some teacher-mentors themselves hold a 'transmission perspective' on teaching and learning (Clarke & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005), that some have a limited understanding of concepts such as critical reflection and/or continue to hold dualist notions of theory and practice (Sundli, 2007), and that some (perhaps as a consequence) lack the confidence to incorporate 'theoretical' insights into their work with mentees (Evans & Abbott, 1997). One of the actual or potential outcomes of these various failings is that, in spite of the explicit aim of some

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mentoring programmes being to reduce teacher attrition, the lack of social and psychological support experienced by some trainee and early career teachers (when they had been led to expect it) has actually been a contributory factor in their decisions to withdraw from their ITP courses or leave the profession (Malderez, Hobson, Tracey & Giannakaki, 2006).

Another is that the restricted range of approaches employed by some mentors serves to restrict their mentees' learning and development in a variety of ways. We have thus found little evidence, for example, of school-based mentoring achieving what in some contexts at least was one of the main reasons behind its introduction, namely that of reducing theory–practice dualism amongst beginning teachers and helping mentees to recognise the relevance of and make more effective use of 'theoretical' work covered in their ITP programmes (Bullough, 2005; Graham, 2006). Finally, a number of studies have suggested that some of the restricted (and restrictive) forms of mentoring in use, outlined above, can result in the promotion and reproduction of conventional norms and practices (Feiman-Nemser, Parker, & Zeichner, l993), rendering beginning teachers less likely to develop or consolidate their knowledge (and use) of progressive and learner-centred approaches, and less likely to challenge the inherent conservatism in teaching or to advance social reform and social justice agendas (Clarke & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005; Sundli, 2007; Wang & Odell, 2002).

2.15 Summary of Literature Review

Strong collegial relationships among school teachers have consistently been highlighted as an important factor for school improvement and success (DuFour, 2004; Little J. W. 2003). The literature on school effectiveness shows that the most

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promising strategy for sustained, substantive school improvement is developing the ability among school personnel to function as professional collegial communities (Goldenberg, 2004).

The negative effects caused by the psychological isolation that characterized most schools (Bruffee, 1999) have also accelerated the adoption of a collegial approach in schools' cultures and shifted the emphasis from individual efforts to group work, from independence to interdependence. Educators are being encouraged to act as team players in order to bring effective learning outcomes for students and management effectiveness for school organizations.

This review looked at the various issues of instructional collegiality from the perspective of various researchers both theoretically, conceptually and empirically. This review also looked at mentorship as it relates to teacher collegiality as Cole (2004) pointed out that there is a relationship between mentorship and teacher collegiality that lead to professional development, for the mentor as well as the mentee.

This review haven closed most of the gaps on instructional collegiality and effectiveness of teachers differently but there has not been so far a review on the relationship between these two. Though there exist relationships mentorship and teacher collegiality, we don't know how instructional collegiality correlate with teacher effectiveness. Getting a clear insight on this correlation helps improve quality of teaching, education and professional development.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presented the methodology of the study which included the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, pilot-testing, reliability and validity of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

According to Creswell (2007), research design is an important aspect of research. Basically, it is the most appropriate to appropriately measure what is being measured and obtain the data that will lead to a valid conclusion. Polit and Hungler (2004) also define a research design as the researcher's overall strategy for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis.

A descriptive survey design was employed for the study with the quantitative approach. The descriptive survey design was used because the nature of the topic required a description of the kind of instructional collegiality existing in Junior High Schools. The design enabled the researcher to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Descriptive survey design is however not without disadvantages. Its disadvantages include the danger of prying into private affairs of respondent and the difficulty in assessing the clarity and precision of the question that would call for the desired responses (Babbie, 2005).

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3.2 Population

Population is also the complete set of subjects that can be studied: people, objects, animals, plants, organizations from which a sample may be obtained. Creswell (2007) defined population in research as a group of individuals or people with the same characteristics and in whom the researcher is interested.

The target population of the study was all the teachers in public basic schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The accessible population of the study comprised all the 460 teachers in the 38 faith-based Junior High schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Faith based schools were used for the study since it is believed they are the best performing schools due to perceived collegiality coupled with moral upbringing.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

Creswell (2007) postulated that a sample is the set of actual participants that are drawn from a larger population of potential data sources. Howit and Cramer (2011) also posited that the quality of a piece of research does not only stand or fall by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted. Sampling is a technique used for selecting a given number of subjects from a target population as a representative of the population in research (Creswell, 2007).

To determine an appropriate sample size for the study, an updated list of all the teaching staff in the 38 faith-based Junior High schools in the Kumasi Metropolis was obtained from the Metropolitan Director of Education. The simple random sampling technique was then used to select 209 teachers out of the 460 teachers in the 38 faith-based schools at the staff common room of each of the junior high schools during break time for the study based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table

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for the determination of sample size for research work. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a population of 460 has sample size of 209. Based on the Krejcie and Morgan recommendation, the researcher proceeded to use simple proportion to share the 209 to the 38 schools. Because all the faith-based schools have approximately the same number of teachers, the researcher then divided the 209 number of teachers by 38, thus, the number of schools, to get an average number of 6 teachers per school for the study. A school that has less than 12 teachers had less than 6 samples from there to have equity and fairness in the sampling. At each school, because the number of respondents was fairly large, the researcher deemed it expedient to use the convenient sampling method to select the 6 or less respondents.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

The researcher used closed-ended questionnaires to collect data for the study. Kusi (2012) define structured questionnaire as a data collection instrument which is often used in quantitative studies. Questionnaire contains predetermined standardized questions or items meant to collect numerical data that can be subjected to statistical analysis.

The closed-ended questionnaire was meant to assist the respondents to provide uniform response. They also provide easier and accurate analysis of the data to obtain precise interpretation of the responses and a high degree of respondents' objectivity. A questionnaire is cost effective and less time consuming as compared to other research tools (Creswell, 2007). Out of the 209 questionnaires administered, 172 responses were received.

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3.5 Pre -Testing of the Instrument

The purpose for pre - testing is to get the bugs out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in filling the questionnaire and also enable one to have preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of questions is appropriate (Bell, 2005). Thirty respondents with similar characteristics were selected randomly from the Anglican Cluster of basic schools in the Kwadaso Municipality for the testing. Items which were found to be inappropriate were deleted while ambiguous items were modified by the researcher. New ideas and relevant items derived from the exercise were included in the final draft of the instrument.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

Validity

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The researcher tested both face and content validity of the questionnaire (Bell, 2005). Face validity referred to the likelihood that a question may be misunderstood or misinterpreted. Expert opinions from my supervisor, literature searches, and pilot testing of the questionnaire helped to establish the face and content validity.

Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which the measuring instruments produce consistent scores when the same groups of individuals are repeatedly measured under the same conditions (Bell, 2005). The reliability of the study was first ensured by applying specific criteria on the formulation of multiple choice questions and likert-type scale items. The instrument was pre-tested on 30 respondents as discussed above

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twice in order to obtain the reliability of the instrument in the pilot study with two weeks interval between the first and second test and the coefficient of reliability from the two tests correlated. The reliability test yielded Cronbach alpha of 0.82.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from his department and then proceeded to seek permission from the Kumasi Metropolitan Director of Education to undertake the study. The researcher afterwards visited the various schools to create the needed rapport with the respondents during which the purpose of the study was explained and permission sought to administer the questionnaire at an agreed date.

The researcher administered the questionnaire to the respondents at the staff common room during break time as agreed upon earlier on in each of the schools. The researcher collected the completed questionnaire within two weeks period.

3.8 Data Analysis Plan

The data was cleaned with the aim of identifying mistakes and errors which may have been made and blank spaces which have not been filled. A codebook for the questionnaire was prepared to record the responses. The data were computed and analysed descriptively with regression analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software package version 20.0. The data were analysed and presented with frequencies, percentages and tables to and answer all the research questions.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

In research, it is unethical to enter into an organization or social groups to collect data without permission from the gate-keepers (Creswell, 2007). The

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respondents were given enough time to respond to the questions posed to them to avoid errors and inaccuracies in their answers. The anonymity of the participants was strictly adhered to as they were not obliged to write their names on the questionnaire. Information from other literature searches were duly acknowledged. The respondents' cooperation was solicited for, and they were assured that the data gathered from them would be used for academic purposes only and treated with the utmost confidentiality that they deserved.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

The chapter presents results and discussion of field data on instructional collegiality and teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ashanti Region.

The chapter comprised the preliminary data analysis to address data on age, gender, highest educational qualification and work experience. It also includes the presentation, analysis and discussions of the main data meant to address the research questions. Results were presented in accordance with the research questions. This chapter is organized into five headings. These include:

1. Demographic characteristics of respondents
2. Existence of collegiality practices in the school
3. The effect of collegiality on teacher effectiveness
4. Factors hinders the effective instructional collegiality among teachers
5. Factors that promote effective instructional collegiality among teachers

A response rate shows the number of respondents gathered by a researcher out of the total sample of subjects chosen for a study. In finding information on the instructional collegiality among teachers, a questionnaire was issued out to the 209 teachers selected for the study. 172 of the questionnaire were filled and returned which therefore gave a response rate of 82%. Keller (2019) stated that the American Association for Public Opinion Research (AAPOR) indicated 60% as the acceptable response rate for a study. This therefore shows that the response rate of 82% is good and acceptable for the study.

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4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents of the study which included the gender, age, highest educational qualifications and work experience were examined. These were required to enable the researcher to know the kind of respondents he used in the study. The results are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	104	60.5
Female	68	39.5
Total	**172**	**100**
Age		
21-30 years	40	23.3
31-40 years	88	51.1
41-50 years	20	11.6
51-60 years	24	14
Total	**172**	**100**
Educational Qualification		
Diploma	56	32.6
Bachelor's Degree	74	43
Masters' Degree	42	24.4
Total	**172**	**100**
Teaching Experience		
1-5 years	44	25.6
6-10 years	42	24.4
11-15 years	48	27.9
16-20 years and above	38	22.1
Total	**172**	**100**

Source: Field Data, 2020

Table 4.1 shows that 104 respondents representing 60.5% were males while 68 respondents representing 39.5% were females, which meant that, males who participated in the study were more than their female counterparts.

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On respondents' age, 40 respondents representing 23.3% were aged between 11-20 years, 88 respondents representing 51.1% were aged between 31-40 years, 20 respondents representing 11.6% were aged between 41-50 years while 24 respondents representing 14% were aged between 51-60 years.

On respondent's educational qualification, 56 respondents representing 32.6% were holders of Diploma certificate, 74 respondents representing 43% were holders of the Bachelor's Degree while 42 respondents representing 24.4% were holders of the Master's Degree.

Lastly, 44 respondents representing 25.6% had worked for between 1-5 years, 42 respondents representing 24.4% had worked for between 6-10 years, 48 respondents representing 27.9% had worked for between 11-15 years while 38 respondents representing 22.1% had worked for 16 years and above.

4.2 Existence of Instructional Collegiality in Faith Based Schools in Kumasi Metropolis

Collegiality shows the cooperative and collaborative relationship that exists between colleagues of staff in a school or educational institution. The existence of instructional collegiality helps to bring to bare whether or not there is the presence of instructional collegiality in the faith-based schools selected for the study.

Instructional collegiality has many benefits to the individual (staff member) as well as the organization the individual works for. The researcher sought to find out the existence of instructional collegiality in the selected faith-based schools. A 4 – point Likert scale was adopted by the researcher as a means of collecting data on the existence of instructional collegiality.

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There are different ways through which instructional collegiality can be measured. The researcher chose the indicators of Berry (2005), thus interpersonal and structural conditions of collegiality, as a means to find out the existence of collegiality. In finding out the effect or relationship between collegiality and effectiveness. The indicators opined by Berry (2005), thus interpersonal and structural conditions of collegiality, were used as the independent variables as against effectiveness as a dependent variable. In addition, different indicators of effectiveness were identified by the researcher so as to help determine their individual effect or relationship between them and the independent variables.

4.2.1 Existence of Instructional Collegiality

Collegiality shows the cooperative and collaborative relationship that exists between colleagues of staff in a school or educational institution. The researcher sought to find out whether instructional collegiality was existing in the faith-based schools selected for the study. It was observed from the results that there is the presence of instructional collegiality in the faith-based schools selected for the study. The researcher in finding whether instructional collegiality exits in the faith-based schools adopted the two indicators of instructional collegiality posited by Berry (2005). The two indicators of instructional collegiality identified by Berry (2005) include structural and interpersonal factors of collegiality. The responses obtained from the respondents are illustrated as follows:

4.2.1.1 Existence of Structural Collegiality

The researcher sought to find out whether there was the existence of structural collegiality in the faith-based schools. The results are depicted in Table 4.2

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Table 4.2: Existence of Structural Collegiality

Structural Conditions	Response Categories				
	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Resources are available for both teaching and learning purposes	70(40.7)	32(18.6)	54(31.4)	16(9.3)	172 (100)
The culture in the school ensures sharing and team work	26(15)	2(1.2)	120(69.8)	24(14)	172(100)
There is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules	22(12.8)	6(3.5)	106(61.6)	38(22.1)	172 100)

Source: Field Data, 2020

The results in Table 4.2 outlined three main factors of structural collegiality mainly resource availability, culture of sharing and proper evaluation.

In terms of resource availability, 16 respondents representing 9.3% strongly indicated the availability of resources in the faith-based schools, 54 respondents representing 31.4% indicated the availability of resources while 70 respondents representing 40.7% disagreed with the availability of resources and 32 respondents representing 18.6% strongly disagreed on the availability of resources. The results shows that majority of the respondents indicated that resources are not available for teaching and learning in the faith-based schools.

In terms of the culture of sharing and teamwork, 120 (69.8%) respondents agreed that there is a presence of a culture of sharing and teamwork, 24 (14%) respondents strongly agreed that there is a presence of culture of sharing and

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teamwork. On the other hand, 26 (15%) respondents disagreed that there is the presence of culture of sharing and teamwork in the schools while 2 (1.2%) strongly disagreed there is the presence of culture of sharing and teamwork in the schools. This therefore shows that a high number of the respondents agreed there is a presence of culture of sharing and teamwork in the faith-based schools.

With regard to proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules, majority of the respondents indicated there is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules. 106 (61.6%) agreed that there is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules in the faith-based schools, 38 (22.1%) respondents strongly agreed there is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules, 22 (12.8%) disagreed there is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules while 6 (3.5%) strongly disagreed there is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules in the faith-based schools.

The results from Table 4.2 shows the availability of culture of sharing and teamwork, and proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules. This therefore shows that structural collegiality is existent in the faith-based schools.

4.2.1.2 Existence of Interpersonal Collegiality

The researcher sought to find out whether there was the existence of interpersonal collegiality in the faith-based schools. The results are illustrated in Table 4.3.

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Table 4.3: Existence of Interpersonal Collegiality

Interpersonal Conditions	Response Categories				
	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I am open to other colleagues' opinions and constructive criticisms	10(5.8)	4(2.3)	108(62.8)	50(29.1)	172 (100)
There is the existence of the feeling of trust and confidence among staff members	32(18.6)	6(3.5)	108(62.8)	26(15.1)	172 (100)
Cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions among teachers	24(14)	2(1.2)	108(62.8)	38(22.1)	172 (100)

Source: Field Data, 2020

In finding the existence of interpersonal collegiality in the faith-based schools, the researcher posed questions to the respondents using a four-point Likert scale on the openness to criticisms, feeling of trust, and supportive and professional interactions.

In relation to openness to criticisms, 108 (62.8%) respondents agreed they are open to constructive criticisms and opinions, 50 (29.1%) respondents strongly agreed to the statement, 10 (5.8%) respondents disagreed they are open to constructive criticisms and opinions and 4 (2.3%) respondents strongly disagreed they are open to constructive criticisms and opinions. The results shows that majority of the respondents agreed to the statement.

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With regards to trust, a high number of the respondents agreed there is the existence of trust among the teaching staff. 108 (62.8%) respondents agreed that there is the existence of trust among the staff and 26 (15.1%) respondents strongly agreed that there is the existence of trust among the staff members. On the other hand, 32 (18.6%) respondents disagreed there is the existence of trust among the staff while 6 (3.5%) respondents strongly disagreed there is the existence of trust among the staff.

In line with cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions, 108 (62.8%) respondents agreed cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions exits in the faith-based schools, 38 (22.1%) respondents strongly agreed there is the presence of cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions, 24 (14%) respondents disagreed with the statement while 2 (1.2%) respondents strongly disagreed that cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions exits in the faith-based schools. The results showed that a high number of the respondents indicated cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions exits in the faith-based schools.

The results from Table 4.3 shows that openness to criticisms, feeling of trust, and supportive and professional interactions exist in the faith-based schools. This therefore shows that interpersonal collegiality is existent in the faith-based schools.

It can therefore be concluded from the results that instructional collegiality exits in the faith-based schools. This is because the results from the analysis showed both structural and interpersonal factors of collegiality exit in the faith-based schools and therefore since both structural and interpersonal factors of collegiality are indicators of instructional collegiality as indicated by Berry (2005), then instructional collegiality exits in the faith-based schools.

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The findings revealed that instructional collegiality exits in the faith-based schools. The findings showed the presence of structural and interpersonal conditions of collegiality in the faith-based schools. The findings are consistent with the findings of Berry (2005). He divided instructional collegiality into two main areas namely structural conditions and interpersonal conditions. Structural conditions as opined by Berry (2005) are the factors that exist in the school while the interpersonal conditions are the behaviours or attitudes of the teachers.

In terms of structural conditions of collegiality, the findings revealed there is the availability of resources for pedagogy purposes. Fullan (2007) posited that the availability and use of resources forms part of collegiality. Resources for pedagogical purposes vary. These include material and human resources (Little, 1990).

Also, the findings revealed the availability of a culture of sharing and teamwork in the faith-based schools. The finding is consistent with the findings of Brown (2000). He stated that a culture of sharing leads to high involvement as well as plays a crucial role in enhancing teaching practices and innovativeness of teachers (Brown, 2000). This tends to show that where there is a culture of sharing and teamwork among teaching staff, more positive results or benefits is achieved. The finding is also in tandem with the findings of Whisnant, Elliot and Pynchon (2005) who opined that a team-oriented culture helps teachers to put up a collective performance that leads to the development of their institutions. A culture of sharing and teamwork helps teachers to commit to their work and their organization and thereby ensuring higher productivity, quality results and an increase in their professional development. In similar vein, Fullan (2007) stated that organizations with a culture of sharing and teamwork have higher number in terms of performance and consumers as compared to those whose are not. This tends to shows that a culture of

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sharing and teamwork plays a key role in ensuring an effective and efficient collegiality in organizations.

In line with proper evaluation and monitoring of teachers and their schedules, the findings showed the teachers and their schedules were properly evaluated. The finding is consistent with the findings of Bush (2008). He revealed that apart from the evaluation by the school authorities, the individual also needs a self-evaluation so as to help him improve or do better than before (Bush, 2008). Evaluation and appraising the teaching staff are some of the opportunities that aid teachers to improve professionally.

With regard to the interpersonal conditions of collegiality, the findings showed a higher number of the respondents revealed they were opened to criticisms and opinions of others. The finding is consistent with the findings of DuFour (2004). He revealed that one of the major ways of bringing and promoting change in schools and organizations is "through establishing collaborative cultures based on the principles of collegiality, openness, and trust" (DuFour, 2004). This suggests that in the case where individuals are opened to criticisms and other opinions, change and innovation can be achieved and where openness to criticisms and opinions are lacking, change and innovation tend to suffer. Trust is a major component of organizational success. It helps to increase participation and the involvement of staff thereby leading to higher and better organizational performance and success. Fullan (2007) corroborated the above assertion when he opined that openness to colleagues, high morale and increase in trust levels are all benefits that are enjoyed when there is the presence of collegiality among teachers.

It is a positive thing when the individual has the mind or attitude to cooperate with others as well as professionally support each other in an organization. The

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findings revealed that there is cooperative and professional support in the fait-based schools. When the individual has the mind to cooperative and support each other, they seek the collective welfare and development of that group. Hargreaves (2010) stated that colleagues who are supportive do not make inquiries for the purpose of evaluating other's work but to seek for the good of the others since they have genuine interest in what the others are doing. This shows that cooperation and professional supportiveness tends to kill the spirit of individualism in organizations.

Teachers should play a participatory role in the management of a school, according to collegial management. Collegiality, according to Sergiovanni (2001), is the duty provided to teachers to become an essential part of the school's management and leadership processes, which are driven by the school's common vision. It is an assimilation process that includes encouraging personal dreams in order to create a vision based on cooperation. It's a vision that's both intimate and welcoming. It is both my and our view (Leonard & Leonard, 2003).

Collegiality is a key component of educational transformation and professional growth (Little, 2005). Teacher networks, according to Moolenaar, Sleegers, and Daly (2011), promote collective teacher performance. Teachers can exchange lesson plans, create guidelines to direct decision-making processes, and connect with one another about their day-to-day work thanks to collaboration and professional support (Berry, 2005).

To better represent their students, make their job more meaningful, and transform schooling in a way that keeps it lively and important, teachers need opportunities to collaborate with one another (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney, & O'Brien, 2003). Collegiality, or whether there is healthy social engagement in their classrooms, is a factor that teachers consider when making important career decisions.

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Teachers leave the profession far too often because of conflicts with colleagues and administrators, rather than because they hate teaching.

Teachers are able to focus on their efforts during instructional hours and participate in dialogues with their colleagues as a result of the collaboration and professional support, which leads to positive changes in existing instructional approaches and strategies (Hollins, MclnLyre, DeBose, Hollins, & Towner, 2004). Teachers who work in a collegial environment are more dedicated to their organization and career. Teachers' motivation and professional engagement, as well as their willingness to change classroom practices, are influenced by collegiality, according to Smith and Ingersoll (2004).

4.3 Relationship between Instructional collegiality and Teacher Effectiveness

The effect of collegiality on the effectiveness of the faith-based schools was also of priority or necessity to the researcher. A multivariate linear regression was adopted by the researcher to help investigate the effect of collegiality on the effectiveness of the faith-based schools selected for the study.

The variables chosen from the study was based on the literature reviewed for the study. Two distinct variables or factors were identified based on the variables identified by Berry (2005) as the independent variables and they were structural conditions and interpersonal conditions. Also, instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovative techniques, positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom, Increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility, collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning, development of appropriate information and communication systems, Improved mutual support and trust, better retention of subject matter by students

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resulting from collegial influences on classroom learning were also identified as individual dependent variables. Table 11 shows the results of the multivariate linear regression when the independent and dependent variables were ushered into the SPSS software.

Table 4.4: Results of Multivariate Linear Regression

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.227	7.771[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.773	7.771[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.293	7.771[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.293	7.771[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
Positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom	Pillai's Trace	.119	3.582[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Wilks' Lambda	.881	3.582[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Hotelling's Trace	.135	3.582[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Roy's Largest Root	.135	3.582[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
Instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovation	Pillai's Trace	.142	4.373[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.858	4.373[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.165	4.373[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.165	4.373[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
Increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility	Pillai's Trace	.034	.933[b]	6.000	159.000	.473
	Wilks' Lambda	.966	.933[b]	6.000	159.000	.473
	Hotelling's Trace	.035	.933[b]	6.000	159.000	.473
	Roy's Largest Root	.035	.933[b]	6.000	159.000	.473
Collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning	Pillai's Trace	.030	.809[b]	6.000	159.000	.564
	Wilks' Lambda	.970	.809[b]	6.000	159.000	.564
	Hotelling's Trace	.031	.809[b]	6.000	159.000	.564
	Roy's Largest Root	.031	.809[b]	6.000	159.000	.564
Development of appropriate information and communication systems	Pillai's Trace	.099	2.897[b]	6.000	159.000	.010
	Wilks' Lambda	.901	2.897[b]	6.000	159.000	.010
	Hotelling's Trace	.109	2.897[b]	6.000	159.000	.010
	Roy's Largest Root	.109	2.897[b]	6.000	159.000	.010
Improved mutual support and trust	Pillai's Trace	.171	5.457[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.829	5.457[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.206	5.457[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.206	5.457[b]	6.000	159.000	.000
Betterretentionofsubjectmatter bystudentsresultingfromcollegialin	Pillai's Trace	.119	3.574[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Wilks' Lambda	.881	3.574[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Hotelling's Trace	.135	3.574[b]	6.000	159.000	.002
	Roy's Largest Root	.135	3.574[b]	6.000	159.000	.002

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To assess the effect of collegiality on teacher effectiveness the following variables were considered; structural conditions and interpersonal conditions. Structural conditions further consist of three different variables; resource availability, monitoring, evaluation, and teamwork. Interpersonal conditions also consist of trust and confidence, professional interactions and constructive criticisms. Structural and interpersonal conditions of collegiality are used as independent variables. Data is collected using a four-point Likert scale questionnaire and that enquires the presence of the above-mentioned variables in the targeted faith-based schools. The responses are coded in SPSS as follows; 1 = Strongly Agree, 2= Agree, 3 = Disagree and 4 = Strongly Disagree.

Instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovative techniques, positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom, Increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility, collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning, development of appropriate information and communication systems, Improved mutual support and trust, better retention of subject matter by students resulting from collegial influences on classroom learning was used as independent variables.

A multivariate linear regression was used to show the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables. This type of regression was considered since the responses for each variable were in an ordered form hence the data is an ordinal data. The tables above show the results of the multiple linear regression

The result above is a regression of teacher collaboration against structural and interpersonal conditions of collegiality. It can be deduced from the table that there is relation between Instructional collegiality and Teacher effectiveness. From the result

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above, it can be deduced that only increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility and Collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning were the variables that were not significant in measuring the effect of collegiality on teacher effectiveness. This is because their significant value or P-value was more than 0.05

All the independent variables used in this research was significant to check how teacher effectiveness is affected by instructional collegiality. This is seen from the result on the table as all their P-values are less than 0.05

4.5 Effectiveness of Instructional Collegiality

Achieving collegiality in a school can be regarded as a process rather than a happening. If this is so, then various strategies need to be put into place to enhance the process of collegiality. The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the following statements on factors that shows the effectiveness instructional collegiality among teachers. The results are presented in Table 4.7

Table 4.5: Effectiveness of Instructional Collegiality

Statement	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)
Availability of openness to different opinions	28(16.3)	118(68.6)	20(11.6)	6(3.5)
Presence of teacher sense of responsibility	30(17.4)	130(75.6)	10(5.8)	2(1.2)
Presence of volunteering attitude of teachers	32(18.6)	110(64)	28(16.3)	2(1.2)
Motivation of teachers to share personal challenges	22(12.8)	90(52.3)	54(31.4)	6(3.5)

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Presence of cordial teacher relationships with colleagues	38(22.1)	118(68.6)	14(8.1)	2(1.2)
Presence of cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers	22(12.8)	124(72.1)	22(12.8)	4(2.3)
Provision of continuous support for staff professional enhancement	16(9.3)	88(51.2)	58(33.7)	10(5.8)
Provision of the needed teaching and learning resources	20(11.7)	68(39.5)	68(39.5)	16(9.3)

Source: Field Data, 2020

Table 4.5 shows that 16.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that availability of openness to different opinions was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 68.6% of the respondents agreed, 11.6% of the respondents disagreed while 3.5% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that teacher effectiveness breads openness to different opinions among teachers.

Also, 17.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that the presence of teacher sense of responsibility was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 75.6% of the respondents agreed, 5.8% of the respondents disagreed while 1.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that presence of teacher sense of responsibility is a factor that shows effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

Again, 18.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that presence of volunteering

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attitude of teachers was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 64% of the respondents agreed, 16.3% of the respondents disagreed while 1.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that presence of volunteering attitude of teachers is a factor that shows effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

What is more, 12.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that motivation of teachers to share personal challenges was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 52.3% of the respondents agreed, 31.4% of the respondents disagreed while 3.5% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that motivation of teachers to share personal challenges is a factor that shows effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

Moreover, 22.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that presence of cordial teacher relationships with colleagues was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 68.6% of the respondents agreed, 8.1% of the respondents disagreed while 1.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that presence of cordial teacher relationships with colleagues is a factor that shows effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

More so, 12.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that presence of cooperative climate that heightened the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 72.1% of the respondents agreed, 12.8% of the respondents disagreed while 2.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that presence of cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers is a factor that demonstrates effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

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Besides, 9.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that provision of continuous support for staff professional enhancement was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 51.2% of the respondents agreed, 33.7% of the respondents disagreed while 5.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that provision of continuous support for staff professional enhancement is a factor that shows effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers.

Finally, 11.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that provision of the needed teaching and learning resources was one of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality among teachers, 39.5% of the respondents agreed, 39.5% of the respondents disagreed while 9.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result means that provision of the needed teaching and learning resources is a factor that shows effective of instructional collegiality among teachers.

The entire results and analysis in Table 4.7 agrees with Bush (2008), who offer similar strategies that can be employed in order to promote collegiality among teachers. The participation of the teaching staff in strategic planning must be encouraged in order to identify goals and objectives for the school through shared goal setting activities. The creation of a shared vision is one of these activities. A sense of belonging, mutual respect and self-evaluation should be encouraged as this may remove the belief that the principal is the expert in such matters (Bush, 2008).

Members of the teaching staff should be treated as partners rather than as subordinates as this will encourage co-operative decision-making. The professional development of the teaching staff has to be fostered as this will enhance the opportunities for teachers to become leaders and will also increase their sense of autonomy and interdependence.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings of the study, conclusions based on the findings, recommendations based on the findings and conclusions and suggestions for further study.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis. Objectives of the study were to establish the existence of instructional collegiality in the faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis, determine the factors that demonstrates the effectiveness of instructional collegiality among teachers in faith-based schools in the Kumasi metropolis, find out how instructional collegiality affect the effectiveness of teachers in faith-based schools in the Kumasi metropolis and to examine effect of instructional collegiality on teachers in faith-based schools in the Kumasi metropolis.

A descriptive survey design was employed for the study with the quantitative approach. The target population for the study comprised all the 458 teachers in the 38 faith-based Junior High schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The lottery type of the simple random sampling technique was used to select 172 teachers out of the 458 teachers in the 38 faith-based schools at the staff common room of each of the junior high schools on an agreed date during break time for the study. The researcher used closed-ended questionnaires to collect data for the study. The data were computed and

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analysed descriptively with regression analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software package version 25.0.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Schools. The summary of the findings are outlined below.

5.2.1 Existence of Instructional Collegiality

The study sought to find out the existence of instructional collegiality in faith-based schools. The findings revealed that instructional collegiality existed in faith-based schools. The findings showed that instructional collegiality in the form of structural and interpersonal conditions existed in the faith-based schools. Also, in terms of structural conditions of collegiality, the findings revealed the availability of resources for pedagogy purposes, the existence of a culture of sharing and teamwork as well as the existence of proper evaluation and monitoring in the faith-based schools. In addition, in terms of interpersonal conditions of collegiality, the findings revealed that the teachers (respondents) were opened to criticisms and opinions of others, there was the existence of trust among the teachers and there was the existence of cooperative and professional support and interaction within the faith-based schools.

5.2.2 Effects of instructional collegiality on Teachers' effectiveness in Faith-based schools

The study also sought to find out the effects of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in the faith-based schools. The findings revealed that both

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structural and interpersonal conditions of collegiality had an effect on Instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovative techniques, positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom, development of appropriate information and communication systems, Improved mutual support and trust, better retention of subject matter by students resulting from collegial influences on classroom learning

5.2.3 Effectiveness of Instructional Collegiality on Teachers

The study finally revealed that, availability of openness to different opinions, presence of teacher sense of responsibility, presence of volunteering attitude of teachers, motivation of teachers to share personal challenges, presence of cordial teacher relationships with colleagues, presence of cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers, provision of continuous support for staff professional enhancement and the provision of the needed teaching and learning resources were some of the factors that promoted effective instructional collegiality.

5.2.4 Relationship between Instructional Collegiality and Teacher Effectiveness

Finally, the study revealed from table 4.4 that, there's a positive relationship between teacher effectiveness and instructional collegiality, thus, when you take both the Interpersonal and Structural Collegiality, it was only Increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility and Collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning that showed a negatives relationship from variables to measure teacher effectiveness. Instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovative techniques, positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom, development of appropriate information and

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communication systems, Improved mutual support and trust, better retention of subject matter by students resulting from collegial influences on classroom learning showed that, there exist a positive relationship between Instructional collegiality and Teacher Effectiveness.

5.3 Conclusion

The study concluded based on the findings that the instructional collegiality existed among teachers. It is also concluded that there are significant effects of instructional collegiality on teacher effectiveness among teachers in the study area. It is again concluded that the instructional collegiality that existed among teachers in the study had an effect on teachers' effectiveness as the regression analysis revealed that there was a positive effect between instructional collegiality (structural and interpersonal conditions of collegiality) and teachers 'effectiveness. The study finally establishes that there were some factors that demonstrated effectiveness of instructional collegiality. Significant among them were the availability of openness to different opinions, presence of teacher sense of responsibility, presence of volunteering attitude of teachers and the motivation of teachers to share personal challenges which ought to be encouraged.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings and conclusions of the study.

1. The Metropolitan Director of Education should ensure that all junior high schools heads promote instructional collegiality to enhance the effectiveness of the school.

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2. The Metropolitan Director of Education should organize training workshops for school heads and teachers to address effectiveness of instructional collegiality to improve the success of the school.
3. The Metropolitan Director of Education should ensure the presence of instructional collegiality particularly ensuring the continuous flow of the structural conditions of collegiality such as constant and continuous availability of teaching and learning resources, provision of structures that ensures a culture of sharing and teamwork as well as proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules as this will help increase the effectiveness of the teachers as well as the performance or output of the school. Also, the Metropolitan Director of Education should insist on the use of the various factors that promote effective instructional collegiality.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Study

The study was conducted to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi metropolis of the Ashanti Region, therefore further study should be conducted to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in faith-based Junior High Schools in the other municipalities and districts of the Ashanti Region.

Further study should also be conducted to investigate the effect of instructional collegiality on teachers' effectiveness in private faith-based Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ashanti Region.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

Dear Respondent

This questionnaire seeks information on EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL COLLEGIALITY ON TEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS IN FAITH-BASED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS. The information that you would give would be used purely for academic purpose in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of Master of Philosophy degree (M.Phil) in Educational Leadership. You are therefore assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Age: 21-30years [ ] 31-40years [ ] 41-50years [ ] 51-60 years [ ]

3. Educational Qualification: Diploma [ ] Bachelor's Degree [ ] Master's Degree [ ]

4. Teaching Experience: 1-5 years [ ] 6-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ] 16- years and above

SECTION B: EXISTENCE OF INSTRUCTIONAL COLLEGIALITY

Please read each statement carefully and TICK (√) in the box to rate your opinion on the 4-point Likert scale using the following keys: Strongly Agree (SA=4) Agree (A=3) Disagree (D=2) Strongly Disagree (SD=1)

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	Resources are available for both teaching and learning purposes				
2	The culture in the school ensures sharing and team work				
3	There is proper monitoring and evaluation of teachers and their schedules				

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4	I am open to other colleagues' opinions and constructive criticisms				
5	There is the existence of the feeling of trust and confidence among staff members				
6	Cooperative and supportive presence of professional interactions among teachers				

SECTION C: EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL COLLEGIALITY ON TEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS

Please read each statement carefully and TICK (√) in the box to rate your opinion on the 4-point Likert scale using the following keys: Strongly Agree (SA=4) Agree (A=3) Disagree (D=2) Strongly Disagree (SD=1)

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	Instilled sense of socialization and increased desire to utilize innovative techniques.				
2	Positive perception of making decisions that affect classroom.				
3	Increased in sense of ownership and willingness to take responsibility.				
4	Collective decision making on resolutions to provide effective learning.				
5	Development of appropriate information and communication systems.				
6	Improved mutual support and trust.				

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7	Better retention of subject matter by students resulting from collegial influences on classroom learning.				

SECTION D: EFFECTIVENESS OF INSTRUCTIONAL COLLEGIALITY

Please read each statement carefully and TICK (√) in the box to rate your opinion on the 4-point Likert scale using the following keys: Strongly Agree (SA=4) Agree (A=3) Disagree (D=2) Strongly Disagree (SD=1)

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	Availability of openness to different opinions				
2	Presence of teacher sense of responsibility				
3	Presence of volunteering attitude of teachers				
4	Motivation of teachers to share personal challenges				
5	Presence of cordial teacher relationships with colleagues				
6	Presence of cooperative climate that heightens the level of innovation and enthusiasm among teachers				
7	Provision of continuous support for staff professional enhancement				
8	Provision of the needed teaching and learning resources				

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APPENDIX II

LIST OF SCHOOLS WHO RESPONDED TO QUESTIONNAIRE:

Name of School	No. of Teachers	No. Sampled
Bantama Methodist	12	5
Bantama Presby	13	6
New Bantama M/A	12	5
St. Anthony R/C	13	6
K.O Bantama Methodist A	12	5
K.O Bantama Methodist B	13	6
Kumasi R/C Girls	13	6
St. Annes Anglican	12	6
St. Louis Demonstration	13	6
WESCO Demonstration	12	6
WESCO Demonstration A	12	6
WESCO Demonstration B	13	6
WESCO Demonstration C	12	6
WESCO Demonstration D	13	6
Ave Maria R/C	12	6
Maamu Islamic	12	6
St. Hubert R/C	13	6
Bohyen Moslem community	12	6
Iman Malik Islamic	12	6
All Saints Anglican	13	6
T I Ahmadiyya B	11	4
Yennnyawoso Presby	12	6
Al-Taw Jeeh Islamic	12	6
Najahuya Islamic	11	4
Al-huda Islamic	12	6
Martyrs of Uganda R/C	11	4
Opoku Ware M/A	12	6
Anyinam African Faith	10	3
St. Luke R/C	10	3
Asem Adventist M/A	12	6
St. Augustine Anglican	11	4
St. Cyprian Anglican A	12	6
St. Cyprian Anglican B	12	6
Asem Islamic	12	6
A M E Zion	16	6
Adum Presby	12	6
St. Peters R/C	11	4
T I Ahmadiyya A	12	6
Total	**460**	**209**

THANK YOU