UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE AS EXPERIENCED BY STUDENT TEACHERS AND COLLEGE TUTORS: THE CASE OF OFFINSO COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

FESTUS FRIMPONG

A Dissertation 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 requirements for award of the Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership) degree

JUNE, 2016

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, FESTUS FRIMPONG, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and that 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 were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of the Dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. STEPHEN BAAFI-FRIMPONG

SIGNATURE……

DATE……

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The realm of refined learning is a co-operative enterprise. Therefore many people have contributed to the outcome of this thesis, both directly and indirectly, but a few stand out in my mind for naming.

Firstly, I am highly grateful to my principal supervisor, Dr. Stephen Baafi-Frimpong of the University of Cape Coast and University of Education for his dedication and meticulous scrutiny which brought this work into fruition.

I am similarly grateful to Dr. Owusu Mensah also of the University of Education, Winneba for his inestimable suggestions and support which made it possible for this work to materialize. Without the support of the supervisors, this work would have fallen short of standard. To you Dr. Stephen Baafi-Frimpong and Dr. Owusu Mensah, I say a big thank you.

I am equally gratitude to the principal of Ofinso College of Education, the tutors and student teachers of the college who had their teaching practice in the 2014/2015 academic year for their cooperation and immense assistance they offered me during the collection of data. I am also grateful to the authors whose works have been cited in the thesis, and who have made research materials available to me.

A unique debt of gratitude is owed Mr. Sethus Katamani of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), for his help in the analysis of data on the computer. I am also greatly indebted to My Mother, My Wife, and my children for their assistance and encouragement.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Florence Nyamaah and wife Portia Obeng.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
TITLE PAGE	
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
ABSTRACT	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose of the Study	8
Research Questions	8
Significance of the Study	9
Delimitation of the Study	10
Limitations of the Study	10
Organization of the Study	11
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Teacher Education, Preparation and Quality	12
Teacher Education in Ghana	19
Challenge facing student teachers and academic supervisors	22

Teaching Practice 25

On-Campus and Off-Campus Teacher Education 29

Historical Background of Teaching Practice 31

The Role of Supervision and the Supervisor in Teaching Practice 32

The Concept of Supervision 34

Principles and theories of supervision 39

Types of supervision 51

Functions (role) of supervision and supervisors in school improvement 60

Conditions that make supervision effective 69

Impact of supervision on teaching and learning 71

Characteristics of successful supervisor 72

Summary of the Review 76

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design 78

Population of the Study 82

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure for the Study 82

Research Instrument 84

Validity 85

Reliability 86

Data Collection Procedure 86

Data Analysis 88

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Types of Supervision 90

Quality and Adequacy of Teaching Practicum Supervision Function 93

Tangibility 94

Reliability 95

Responsiveness 97

Assurance 98

Empathy 99

Differences in Perception of Tutors/Student Teachers 105

Comparison of Importance Percentage Points 107

Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice 110

The Effect of Teaching Practice on Student Teacher Professionalism 117

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An Overview of the Study 118

Summary of major Findings 119

Conclusions 120

Recommendations 121

Suggestions for Further Research 122

REFERENCES 124

APPENDICES 138

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
2.1	Pathway of Teacher Education and Training in Ghana	21
3.1	Summary of Population and Sample Size	83
4.1	Knowledge of Students Teachers on Types of Supervision	91
4.2	The type of supervision student teacher is comfortable with	92
4.3	The type of supervision commonly used	93
4.4	Tangibility Gap Scores	95
4.5	Reliability Gap Scores	97
4.6	Responsiveness Gap Scores	98
4.7	Assurance Gap Scores	99
4.8	Empathy Gap Scores	100
4.9	Average Unweighted Supervision Quality Score	101
4.10	Average Weighted Score	103
4.11	College Tutors/Supervisors' Perception and Expectation of the teaching practice supervision	104
4.12	Perception of Tutors and Student Teachers of Offinso College of Education	106
4.13	College Tutors' Weighted Score	109
4.14	Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (a)	111
4.15	Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (b)	114
4.16	Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (c)	116
4.17	The Importance of the Teaching Practice Programme	117

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
4.1	Importance of Weight of SERVQUAL Dimensions Expressed as Percentage by Student Teachers	103
4.2	Importance of Supervision Quality Dimension Expressed as Percentage by College Tutors	108
4.3	Graphical Comparison between Important Percentage Points	109

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the perception of student teachers on the nature of teaching practice they undertake and the nature of supervision they receive during practicum. The population of the study comprised final the year students of Offinso College of Education who had their teaching practice in the 2014/2015 academic year numbering 300 and all the tutors numbering 59.The sample for the study comprised 100(83%) student teachers and 30(51%) college tutors. The instrument used was a questionnaire and simple random sampling technique (The lottery method) was used to select student teachers and college tutors who were involved in the study. To achieve the purpose of the study, a descriptive survey design was used. A perceived quality of supervision model was adapted and used to measure the quality of supervision rendered to student teachers during practicum. Specifically, the model was used to collect data to measure the perception of student teachers as compared to supervisors. The model was adapted from a conceptual model of service quality (SERVQUAL) developed by Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1985) The findings showed that the overall perception about the quality of the supervision function of the teaching practice programme fell below expectation in all the five quality dimensions measured. The study showed that there was a positive relationship between the professional development of teacher trainees and the teaching practice they undertook. However, the size of the effect or impact was not that significant. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that the college supervisors or tutors must work hand in hand with head teachers of the schools in which student teachers are posted to identify areas of professional growth and development.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The implementation of the 1951 accelerated development plan of education in the Gold Coast (Now Ghana) led to the establishment of many basic schools. This necessitated the setting up of additional teacher training colleges now colleges of education to train more teachers to handle these schools. The teacher training institutions are not to teach only theoretical concepts but also practical knowledge and skill. Therefore, at the end of every teacher training programme, at the colleges of education, teaching practice is carried out for the practical application of the theoretical understanding of the different teaching methods the student teachers were taught. Students from colleges of education across the country are to be posted to various public schools. They spend about eight months in the real classroom with the aim of linking theory with practice and to learn how to become full-fledged teachers. According to Thomas (1991), the activity referred to as teaching practice or student teaching consists of a student teacher giving instruction to a regular classroom of students. The amount of such direct teaching experience can vary from one or two lessons to an entire year of full time or half time service in a school. According to Brown and Brown (1990), teaching practice exercise gives student teachers the opportunity to integrate theory and practice and to resolve some of the apparent gaps that will normally exist between theory and practice. It is also the time of try out some of the ideas which have been developed in college and to experiment with the different approaches, strategies and techniques of teaching raised in methods modules at college.

According to Brown and Brown (1990), teaching practice during training provides:

1. An opportunity to gain confidence.
2. Chance to put theories into practice.
3. An opportunity to learn the skills and attitudes of a competent and effective teacher.
4. The chance to learn about students in real life.
5. An opportunity to improve the knowledge of subject matter.
6. The chance to gain from the benefits of constructive criticism.
7. An opportunity for self-evaluation and to discover strengths and weaknesses.
8. An opportunity for the teaching institutions to evaluate itself.

Furthermore, field teaching practice provides the opportunity to students: to apply knowledge and skills acquired in teacher education course work, to demonstrate attitude consistent with good teaching, to apply multiple principles of learning and multiple teaching strategies, begin to identify with the role of a teacher, develop entry-level competence in the full range of teaching function and to demonstrate professional and ethical behaviour (Merryfield, 1997). The experience gathered from teaching practice is expected to contribute to the understanding about teaching. It is supposed to help student teachers to learn to use the teaching experience to develop specialized knowledge and use this knowledge to assess and make the right professional decisions. According to Stratemeyer and Lindsey (1969), the concept also involves the instructional material being used, relation to staff members, the school administration, parents and the school community. They further added that, student teachers must know the school calendar, school hours, how to report accidents, administer first aid service, health services, playground rules, use of library and so on. It is the responsibility of the student teacher to observe the work of other

teachers, participate in all school projects, participate in planning for and presenting school assembly programmes and additionally, studies how administration affects teaching and teachers (Stratemeyer & Lindsey, 1969). Simply put, the student teacher must participate in all activities of the school where he/she is practising.

Wallace (1991) opined that teaching practice refers to the opportunity given to the teacher trainee to develop and improve his/her professional practice in the context of the real classroom, usually under some form of guidance and supervision. Wallace suggested that school experience means the total experience of working in a school, which student teachers gain when they are on placement in schools to practice. This is the period of time in which a student teacher gains first-hand experience in working with a particular group of students. Often times terms such as teaching practice, student teaching, field studies, infield experience, school based experience or internship are used to refer to this activity. Khan (1993) posited that teaching practice is a responsibility to teacher education institutions to provide such learning experiences to student teachers which will help them be able to identify, select, innovate and organize such learning experiences to develop competence in the student teachers to teach the course of their specialization on the one hand and games, recreational activities and socially useful productive work on the other hand.

Teaching practice is a new experience in the profession of teaching in which student teachers are able to observe the entire work of the actual school environment and to participate actively in all the important professional activities of a teacher both in and out of the classroom (Khan, 1993). This phase of training contributes not only to the development of occupational norms, but, it is capable of reducing anxiety about teaching, learning and classroom techniques. It also can help the student teacher to discover workable conduct, with respects to classroom management, following

schedules of instructions, simplifying lesson plans, getting through the material and cutting back on the breadth and richness of the material presented (Dreeben, 1970).

Cohen and Manion (1983) argued that theory and training in college prior to first practice cannot possibly provide answers to all the problems and contingencies, a future teacher is likely to encounter in the real school and the classroom situation. Therefore, by exposing teachers in training to the realities of their future careers in a controlled situation or under supervision will enable them to eliminate any form of shortfalls that may characterise the beginning of their teaching career. This will not only better prepare them to teach but make them possess a high level of confidence to do their job. According to Brown and Brown (1990), the teaching practice period is one of the most important components of the teacher-training programme. It is an opportunity for student teachers to put their theoretical studies into practice. There will undoubtedly be some inconsistencies between what has been learned and practice but student teaching is an unequivocal experience in teacher training programme. During this phase of training, student teachers face first-hand the day to day experience of a school teacher.

The focus of this study was on the student teachers at the Offinso College of Education and the supervision that takes place during their practicum. It is important that all colleges of education ensure adequate supervision of their practising teachers during practicum in order to equip them with the necessary skills of teaching and also remove the erroneous conception they have about supervision during teaching practice before going out as full-fledge qualified teachers. Henry and Beasley (1976) had identified the central function of supervision to be assisting a learner in the acquisition of new content. Metzler (1990) maintained that supervision is not to correct students' mistakes but also to point out their strength. It is not surprising that

student teachers view supervision during teaching practice as a form of evaluation, since they would be certified as having passed or failed at the end of their training. Some student teachers therefore, see teaching practice as experimenting with new teaching methods, practical aspect of the profession they are being trained to enter. They also see it as an opportunity to interact with pupils in real classrooms. This results support Henry and Beasley (1976)'s findings. They noted that student teaching provided the major opportunity for future teachers to demonstrate the knowledge they have acquired in their education courses. This is further engrained by the out gone principal of Offinso College of Education Nana Poku and former tutor of principles of education who indicated that teaching practice is meant to expose student teachers to real life in the classroom, so if they see supervisors before them, their presence is to correct them and not fight them or see them as enemies. He said this during the third matriculation of the College.

When the Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP) was introduced in Ghana, in the year 1995, the need for effective school supervision to ensure that the content of the curriculum was followed and its objectives achieved became very urgent. The Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service (GES) recognize the crucial leadership roles that tutors from the colleges of education and circuit supervisors must play in ensuring that learning takes place. The college tutor's role as an evaluator of student teachers' teaching and learning involves monitoring classroom teaching and learning, evaluating student teachers' management skills, and teachers' professional competence, and providing the needed support. The circuit supervisor in the catchment area and college supervisors or tutors must also provide guidance and leadership in helping the head teacher and for that matter student teachers become more effective in managing school resources. Eye and Netzer (1971)

viewed supervision as that phase of school administration that deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectation of the education service. Any leadership function that is primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction in the schools is considered supervisory.

Statement of the Problem

Teaching practice is a vital component of teacher education and training in Ghana. It is a compulsory requirement if one wants to take teaching as a profession in the Ghana education service. Until recently all manner of people (referred to as pupil teachers) were allowed to teach in public basic and secondary schools due to the shortfall in the required number of teachers. So the need to train more teachers to teach at the basic and second cycle levels of education has become more pressing than ever. Teacher education and training in the colleges of education in Ghana has as part of its requirements that, student teachers, in the last year of their professional training, be placed in functional schools in the catchment area of the colleges of education to practice, in order to relate theory to practice. It is also required that the student teachers are supervised during the teaching practice by college tutors who dabbled as supervisors. These supervisors are expected to collaboratively work with both the practice schools and the student teachers to create a conducive atmosphere that will enable the student teachers to develop their professional capabilities. Supervisors have the responsibility of continually engaging the student teachers professionally during the teaching practice process. . During the teaching practice period of teacher education, college tutors are expected to supervise the work of student teachers posted to the various basic public schools for teaching practice. They are expected to supervise their teaching delivery, preparation of lesson notes, trainees' attendance,

punctuality, their participation in co-curricular activities, the marking of exercises given to pupils, their carefulness in marking pupils' registers and so on. Most often college supervisors do not help student teachers to act independently during their teaching practice. Newly trained teachers, therefore, get shocked when they are left on their own for the first time without a mentor or tutor to guide them.

Also, supervision of teaching practice has been viewed as an exercise that is not necessary because some trainees believe that experience comes after one assumes work over time. They also consider it as simply a requirement for certification, and therefore not important to them, in view of this some do not take teaching practice serious. The concern for good grades make them to act artificially in the presence of the college supervisor but immediately the supervisor leaves they tend to disregard the principle of teaching. What mostly transpires despite the utmost importance placed on off campus teaching practice is that after completion some of the students get disconcerted immediately they step into the classroom to start the real world of teaching profession. There is always a mismatch between the theories they are taught on campus and the exhibition of the practical skills of teaching taught at college.

It is in this regard that this research became necessary and was undertaken to explore student teachers' perception of the kind of supervision they receive and to find out whether college supervisors perform their supervisory functions adequately and the extent to which they perform this duty. In other words, the study sought to find out how college supervisors effectively performed their role in real situations in the schools of practice.

Purpose of the Study

With the introduction of the Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP) in 1995, the supervisory roles of circuit supervisors and college

tutors/Supervisors, need to be looked at seriously if we are to improve upon teaching and learning in our basic schools. The purpose of the study was therefore to find out the perception of student teachers and college tutors at Offinso College of Education with regard to the supervision given during the period of teaching practice outside campus. Moreover, the following specific areas have been outlined for focus and direction:

1. To find out how student teachers perceive the effectiveness of college tutor's supervisory roles in the schools where they practice
2. To find out how college tutors perceive the effectiveness of their supervisory roles in the schools where they practice
3. To find out the challenges student teachers encounter during teaching practice
4. To find out the challenges supervisors face during student teachers' practicum
5. To explore how the supervision of student teachers affect the quality of student teacher's pedagogical and professional skills.

These are intended to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the supervision process during teaching practice in the colleges of education which will lead to identification of possible measures to maintain the good aspect and to correct the weaknesses and how to improve supervision in Colleges of Education.

Research Questions

In line with the purpose of the study, the following research questions are provided to guide the study

1. How do student teachers of Offinso College of Education perceive supervision of teaching practice?

2. How do college tutors of Offinso College of Education perceive supervision of teaching practice?
3. What are the challenges supervisors of Offinso College of Education face during student teachers' practicum?
4. What challenges are encountered by student teachers of Offinso College of Education during teaching practice?
5. How does the supervision of student teachers of Offinso College of Education affect the quality of their pedagogical skills?

Significance of the Study

The findings of the study will provide information for the District Director of Education (DDE) and College principals to know the extent to which teaching practice supervision is carried out. It also provided information for the principals of the colleges of education to reflect on their supervisory functions and to make changes where necessary. Additionally, other stakeholders, such as Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs), School Management Committees (SMCs), District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC), and opinion leaders will be better informed about the current state of teacher training and supervision in the catchment areas where the college sends their students teachers, so they can provide support if necessary, to help improve the process. The findings of the study will add to knowledge and the existing literature on teaching practicum and supervision in general. It would aid student teachers to be open-minded with regards to both external and internal supervisions and eventually usher students to fully understand the concept of supervision. It will also help policy makers to formulate educational policies that would help curb the problems of supervision in the various colleges of education in Ghana.

Furthermore, the outcome of this study would enrich the knowledge of all actors in teacher education, in that it will enable them to identify the various challenges confronting the supervision of teacher trainee practicum so that alternative solutions can be found to tackle the challenges arising from the supervision of student teachers undertaking teaching practice in the colleges of education in Ghana.

Delimitation of the Study

A study of this nature could have been done for all colleges of education, but due to the limited resources and time, this was not possible. The study was therefore limited to cover only Offinso College of education in Ashanti Region. It is also further limited to the tutors and student teachers of these schools for better coverage and effective work to be done. Among a countless number of experiences by student teachers, their experiences on supervision were chosen for the study. Thus the study is limited to the experience of student teachers on supervision. Findings of the study will apply to Offinso Colleges of Education. Other colleges with similar characteristics may perhaps adapt the findings to help improve supervision of teaching practice of student teachers.

Limitations of the Study

The study like any other research had its limitations. A comprehensive study using all the college tutors and student teachers of the various colleges of education in Ashanti region or even Ghana could have been ideal. In that case, the findings would have applied to the whole country.

Despite precautions that were taken to avoid errors in sampling, the study had been affected by some difficulties encountered during the data gathering process. Some respondents were also not likely to be honest and might have given responses,

which did not reflect the reality in the schools. Thus, some respondents were likely to give misleading responses which could not portray the situation on the ground.

Organization of the Study

The research was organised in five chapters. Chapter one provided a general introduction to the study. Chapter two reviewed relevant literature on the concepts of teaching practice, supervision and instructional supervision in general. Chapter three outlines the research methods and design employed to carry out this study. It also presents the profile of the Offinso College of Education in which the study was conducted. In chapter four, the results of the study were presented, analysed and discussed. Finally, in chapter five, summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research are presented.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter deals with the review of related literature as acknowledged by some authorities and intellectuals. This review is designed to familiarize the reader with existing principles, concepts and studies, which had been done on supervision. The chapter is organized to include the following sub-headings:

1. Teacher Education, Preparation and Quality
2. Teaching Practice
3. Challenge facing student teachers and academic supervisors
4. The concept of supervision
5. Principles and theories of supervision
6. Types of supervision
7. Functions (role) of supervision and supervisors in school improvement
8. Conditions that can make supervision effective
9. Impact of supervision on teaching and learning and
10. Characteristics of a successful supervisor

Teacher Education, Preparation and Quality

Hammerness, McDonald, and Grossman (2009) argued that teacher educators need to attend to the clinical aspects of practice and experiment with how best to help novices develop skilled practice. The concern however is, whether that is what is happening in teacher education in Ghana. According to Darling-Hammond (2000), substantial evidence indicates that teachers who have had more preparation for teaching are more confident and successful with students than those who have had little or none. Hollins (2011) have also added that teachers must be prepared in such a

way that they are not only good classroom but affect their communities positively. Bishop (1986) shared a similar view. The challenge therefore, according to Hollins (2011), is that learning to teach is a complex and multidimensional process that depends on the ability to synthesize, integrate, and apply knowledge from multiple sources in constructing an understanding of how to facilitate learning in complex dynamic contexts with a multiplicity of aspects that require attention and action. The challenge for teacher educators is to provide opportunities for student teachers to learn the professional discourse and practices and the conditions of engagement and enactment in ways that facilitate learning. Tozer, Violas and Senese (2002) posited that, the goals of teacher education include making the student teachers intellectually competent to recognize differences in their knowledge, skills and commitment, in their education, certification and work to create standards of entry to the profession. As a result, teacher education must include creating the opportunities to develop the personal qualities, commitment and self-understanding necessary to becoming a sensitive and flexible teacher. Wise (1996) emphasized the need for building a system of quality assurance for the teaching professions. He further posited that a complete and flexible teacher is a combination of virtues, which include the ability to sustain the interest of pupils from varied intellectual background and intelligence quotients, scholarly knowledge of varied school subjects and the ability to establish cordial working relations with colleagues. Tamakloe (1997) did not differ in this opinion. He opined that teacher education should develop a kind of personality that has the attributes of competence and maturity of a dynamic leader.

Although, the purpose of teacher education is to produce effective practicing teachers (George, Worrell, Rampersad & Rampaul, 2001), the question of how trainees can best be prepared to become effective classroom practitioners has been on

the minds of teacher educators worldwide for many years. The teaching profession is currently facing several challenges; the global economy and competitive market place, the changing nature of job and advanced technology, changes in demographic nature of students and the growing bodies of knowledge about how people learn and what makes for effective teaching has caused teacher education to re-examine the basic principles and methodologies of teacher preparation. Research also suggests, Hill & Brodin, 2004; Houston, 1990), that the act of teaching is becoming increasingly complex and that highly competent teachers apply a range of practices for varying purposes, incorporate and integrate different kinds of knowledge, build up a sophisticated pedagogical repertoire, and adapt to learner diversity and shifting contextual forces. It is, therefore, imperative that teaching professionals responsible for teacher preparation must continually find ways to respond to these challenges. To achieve the goal of training effective teachers, different approaches to teacher education have emerged in teacher preparation program around the world. One of such approach is the introduction of practicum in teacher education which is the most highly valued component of teacher preparation (Haigh & Tuck, 1999; Hill & Brodin, 2004; Houston, 1990). Teacher preparation provides a firm foundation for future professional development, and has been a site where students' teachers can practice the art of teaching in real school context (Kennedy, 2006). It has the power of experience to critically shape the student teachers perception of teaching and learning (Gustafson & Rowell, 1995).

The need for practicum in teacher education and teacher expertise is the single most important factor in determining student achievement. Fully trained teachers are far more effective with students than those who are not well prepared (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996). According to Shulman (1986),

teaching has been described as a combination of an art, a craft, and a science. Knowing what to teach, how to teach it, and what methods to use with particular topics, particular kinds of students and in particular settings all combine to form the knowledge and skills that define teaching expertise. To this end teacher education programs should aim to develop the knowledge, skills and attributes of pre-service teachers' in order to prepare them to teach effectively in twenty first century classrooms. Teachers must be well prepared for the world of work especially, professional competency of teachers. In addition, to educate teachers is to give them real experience of what they are being trained to do.

Zeichner (2012) reiterated the importance of teaching practice in teacher education and clearly pointed out that it provides the environment where student teachers practice the art of teaching in real school context with student teachers assigned to a supervisor. The practice environment allows students to investigate current work place conditions, internal and external factors influencing current structural and organizational features and the impact of school planning processes on classroom practices in relation to curriculum, evaluation and pedagogy (Groundwater-Smith, Deer, Sharp and March, 1996). Eyers (2005) stated that teaching practice provides a flexible linkage between the three learning domains in the teacher preparation which include: content knowledge, professional knowledge and the knowledge and skills needed to function as a professional teacher or know how to teach.

The quality of teaching practice in pre-service teacher education programs should highly correlate with the preparation of quality teaching professionals. With regard to a quality teaching practice Eyers (2005) identified the desired characteristics

of quality practice within the teaching practice component of pre-service teacher education. Eyers (2005) suggest that a quality teaching practice programme should:

1. Integrates theoretical knowledge and professional practice across the three domains of a teacher education program; 'content' knowledge gained through a liberal education, professional knowledge, pedagogical skills and insights.
2. Be designed and implemented within a partnership involving teacher education institutions, schools, school systems and relevant professional bodies
3. Articulates clear and progressive stages for the development of the acquired knowledge, skills, attributes and dispositions of beginning teachers
4. Provides diverse experiences in a range of school contexts and with a variety of students
5. Check against clear delineations of purposes, roles and expectations of participating schools.
6. Includes an assessment of resource needs and implications
7. Be flexible and encourages innovation
8. Involves ongoing evaluation and response.

Eyers (2005) further enumerated what goes into quality teaching practice planning and implementation. The practicum typically consists of on-campus and off-campus components which are closely related or integrated with one another, and which progressively lead the student teachers towards developing and demonstrating a set of well-regarded knowledge-based skills, capabilities and dispositions that the profession agrees are essential for a teacher at the beginning stages of a professional career. There should be qualified and capable professional staff who can supervise across both on campus and in a school setting, earning and enjoying a high standing

both with their academic colleagues and with their counterpart teacher colleagues in the schools. Additionally, the administrators of the colleges of education must act in cooperation with schools and school-systems locate schools willing and capable of providing quality places and support for the school-based professional experiences required of its student teachers. Eyers (2005) also encouraged the use of mentors, in the off-campus teaching practice, who have the knowledge, skills, dispositions and time to work in collaboration with both the college supervisor and the student teachers to evaluate the practice of the student teachers and progressively guide the trainees towards their goal of gaining an initial qualification as a teacher.

The implication of current trends for teaching practicum in teacher education, despite the fact that practicum is one of the highly valued component of teacher education program, has been discussed and debated in the literature (Zeichner, 2012). These discussions focused on what form teaching practice should take by questioning the educative value of the traditional approach to practicum. According to Schulz (2005) the traditional approach to teaching practice underscore technical knowledge which is just a minimal part of the teachers' knowledge and not sufficient for preparation of teachers for the professional role of teaching. This type of experience according to Darling-Hammond (1999) has the potential of making the student teacher maintaining status quo rather than developing critical inquiry approach in which teaching as a profession is underpinned by lifelong learning. Teacher educators, for example, (Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999; Schulz, 2005; Zeichner, 2012) provided an alternative view and promote the importance of relevant practical experiences as a critical components of effective teacher education program. They suggest the need for change from the traditional, skill and technical model of practicum experience to one with a broader educative focus: a teaching practice

experience that provides student teachers with the opportunities for inquiry, for trying and testing new ideas within collaborative relationship, and for talking about teaching and learning in new ways. In addition, teaching practice should be looked at as an important opportunity for growth and learning rather than demonstrating things already learned. Zeichner (2012) contended that a practicum is educative if it helps student teachers to understand the full scope of a teacher's role, to develop capacity to learn from future experiences and to accomplish the central purpose of teaching.

Vick (2006) pointed out that the new trends in teacher education programs focus on the investigation of the problems associated with the training of student-teachers. So, the study programs of teacher education in the college of education should include interesting activities that provide students with a realistic experience for future teaching (Jusoh, 2013). McNamara (1992) noted that 80% of the practicum experience took place in the school environment. This gives students the chance to act and make the right decision at the right time. Consequently, teaching practice has a positive effect on student-teachers' attitudes towards the teaching profession. Ngoh &Tan (2000) argued that this cannot be achieved without a support and cooperation from cooperating teachers in the field. Farrell (2008) posited that the most important factors that affect student teachers' practicum experience is the cooperative teachers and peers who spend most of the time with the student-teacher. In view of that, Ong, Ros, Azlian, Sharnti, and Ho (2004) argued that when student-teachers have high level of pressure during the teaching practice experience, they do not engage positively in the teaching process. In addition to stress as a result of the teaching practice, supervision and administrative workload are examples of practicum defect issues.

Practicum programs vary from an educational institution to another. For example, in Domestic Training College in Battersea in Britain, student teachers have a full-time training at schools. During their practicum, they need to observe cooperative teachers in several class sessions, and after that they should discuss together the teaching practices experienced in the classrooms. In addition, the student-teachers are assigned to perform some lessons; with the guidance of expert teachers from schools other than the one they do their practicum in (Battersea Domestic Training College, 1930). In other jurisdictions, for example, South Australia, Colleges of Education send their student-teachers to schools one day in a week, for a period of 14 weeks. The student-teachers observe and critique teaching practices of professional teachers. Then, they are sent back again at least once in a week to practice teaching under the supervision of experienced teachers (South Australia- Department of Education, 1920). In China, for example, the practicum starts at the beginning of the fourth year and for a period ranging from 8 to 10 weeks, and the number of credit hours ranging from 4% and less than 6% of the number of credit hours (Chen & Mu, 2010). In Singapore, a period of practicum is up to 22 weeks spread over the four years of the study (Manzar-Abbas and Lu, 2013).

Teacher Education in Ghana

The pathway of the development of teacher education in Ghana was a chequered one, often based on ad-hoc programmes to meet emergency situations and needs of the education system as shown in Table 2.1. As the needs of basic education have changed over time, teachers have been required to undertake more institutional training to upgrade (Acheampong, 2003). Historically, teacher education in Ghana dates back to 1848 when the Basel Mission opened Ghana's first teacher training college at Akropong-Akwapim. After independence in 1957 more teacher training

colleges were opened to cater for the increase in demand for teachers created by the expansion in school enrolment rates. McWilliams and Kwamena-Poh (1978) traced teacher education and training back to 1937 when there was a recommendation by the 1937/1941 education review report for the introduction of a two-year teacher training programme to award Teacher's Certificate "B". Upon graduation, teachers who were successful were given the opportunity to study for teachers' certificate "A". By 1962, according to McWilliams and Kwamena-Poh (1978), the teachers' certificate "B" programme was done away with. This was as a result of continuous review and reforms in the education sector that saw Dr. Kwame Nkrumah's accelerated development plan for education in 1951. One of the major goals of the accelerated development plan was to establish as many as possible teacher training schools to train teachers for pre-tertiary education and the various school that were being built pursuant to the 1951 educational policy for accelerated development. By 1980, the old system of teacher training was giving way to a new three-year post-secondary teacher training system and by 1976, the three year post-secondary programme had completely taken over the old system (McWilliams & Kwamena-Poh, 1978).

In the early 90s, concerns were raised particularly about the quality of initial teacher training in Ghana. The contention was that teacher education had not prioritised the development teaching expertise but had placed so much emphasis on theory than practice (Acheampong, 2003). Additionally, Acheampong (2003) wrote that, the fundamental questions that had to be answered if a very effective teacher training is to be achieved will have to include:

1. Whether the current system of teacher training is capable of meeting the future demand for teachers in Ghana? And if not, what alternatives might be

considered to ensure that sufficient numbers of teachers are trained to keep up with demand?

2. What do trainees experience in training and how do they feel about its value in terms of enabling them to perform effectively in the classroom? Answers to this would lead to a better understanding of programme content and delivery quality, and whether it promotes a philosophy of teaching and learning that fosters deep commitment to pupils' learning.

Table 2.1 Pathway of Teacher Education and Training in Ghana

Pathway Category	Year Introduced	Duration	Entry Qualification	Qualification
Certificate "A"	1930	4 Years	Middle School Leaving Certificate	Teachers' Certificate "A"
Certificate "B"	1937	2 Years	Post Middle	Teachers' Certificate "B"
Post-Secondary	1950	2 Years	Secondary School Leaving Certificate	Teachers' Certificate "A"
Post-B Certificate "A"	1951	2 Years	Certificate "B"	Teachers' Certificate "A"
Two-year Specialist/Three-year Diploma	1962	2/3 Years	Teachers' Certificate "A"	Diploma
Post-Secondary Teacher Training Programme	1978	3 Years	Secondary School Leaving Certificate	Teachers' Certificate "A"
Diploma in Basic Education	2004	3 Years	Secondary School Leaving Certificate	Diploma in Basic Education
Undergraduate Teacher Education		2 - 4 Years	Certificate "A", Diploma Certificate, or Senior Secondary Leaving Certificate	BEd. Degree

Source: (Acheampong, 2003)

The three-year post-secondary system has also seen a lot of structural reformations over the years until 1998. Subsequent reforms had seen the conversion of all Teacher Training College to diploma awarding institutions and it is required that teacher trainees spend two years on campus to receive academic training and then

spend their last year off-campus, in a school to relate theory to practice. This system is referred to as the In-In-Out Programme.

There are presently 38 public colleges of education and 3 private colleges of education in Ghana offering Diploma in Basic Education (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2013). This represent a public/private sector distribution of 92.68% and 7.32% respectively. Public colleges of education enrol a total of 27,677 teacher trainees across the country with a tutor population of 1,632 according to the Ministry of Education's Report on Teacher Training Colleges 2013. Regional distribution of enrolment shows that the Ashanti Region has the highest enrolment in Colleges of Education 5,327 while the Upper West Region has the lowest enrolment 1,215 (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2013). Whereas the national student tutor ratio was 17, that of the Ashanti Region was 35, twice as much as the national figure. The Offinso College of Education's student-tutor ratio averages 15, a little lower than the national ratio. The student-tutor ratio is very important for adequate academic and practicum supervision respectively.

Challenges facing student teachers and academic supervisors

Some previous research discussed teaching practice issues and obstacles. For example, Jusoh (2013) examined the problems that faced student-teachers at the University of Sultan Zainal Abidin, Malaysia. The results showed that student-teachers have faced a variety of challenges, some were personal challenges related to the students themselves, while other challenges were associated with teaching. In addition, Manzar-Abbas and Lu (2013) analysed teaching practice in China and conducted a comparative study of practicum experiences in ten teacher training universities. The results showed three key issues: the duration of practicum, timing, and methods of practicum. The researchers pointed out that the duration of practicum

in China is very short, the time of sending student-teachers to the field is not appropriate. More importantly, the implemented methods in the teaching practice are outdated. They recommended an increase in the duration of teaching practice by sending student teachers to do their field practicum earlier.

Some previous studies also discussed the complexity of these practices. For example, Yassin (2004) highlighted the academic supervisors' practices during teaching practice experience at the University of Al Aqsa by implementing analysis systems method. The results showed that the academic supervisors do not hold regular meetings with student-teachers to discuss the challenges that faced them during teaching practice. In addition, student-teachers do not find adequate encouragement from the academic supervisors for their work, they do not find adequate assistance in getting textbooks and teachers' guides, they also do not receive adequate explanation of the required practicum skills, and do not get the appropriate guidance to motivate them to implement classroom activities. Lingam, Teasdale, and Nabobo-Baba (2002) studied the factors that positively or negatively affect the preparation of novice student-teachers. They found that there are gaps in the preparation of student-teachers, and that there are 10 out of 17 factors that affect the preparation of student-teachers negatively. Some of the most important factors were: the duration of the practicum, reflection time spent by student-teachers, and the provision of learning resources. One of the most important factors that affected student teachers negatively was the lack of guidance provided by academic supervisors. Hammad (2005) expressed a similar view in his work. Hammad pointed out that the highest factor that affects the practicum experience was related to the academic supervisor while the lowest factor was related to the effect of practicing schools. Yassin (2004) also enumerated a number of challenges faced by the students during teaching practicum. These

challenges relate to the student teachers' attitude, the long distance between the practicing school and the student teachers' place of residence, the lack of guidance provided by school principals regarding the school systems, regulations, and the participation in the school activities, the lack of respect showed from cooperative teachers toward student teachers and so on. Al-Ajez and Hallas (2011) identified the role of the academic supervisor, cooperating teacher, and school administrators, and the eminent challenges student teachers are faced with. Al-Ajez and Hallas indicated that the challenges facing the student teachers are the lack of availability of specific educational methods, and the lack of school administration support for the student teacher.

Al Bengle and Murad (2003) indicated that academic supervisors were not enthusiastic about the idea of involving the school principals and mentors in the process of students' supervision because the process of supervision is the responsibility of the assigned academic supervisor. Al-Shehri (2003) suggested that teaching practice development should involve a larger number of qualified professionals to train student teachers to become qualified teachers. Al-Shehri recommended effective planning and implementation to overcome the challenges.

On the other hand, Conway (2002) investigated the standpoints of graduate students, academic supervisors, and administrators to determine the most valuable and least valuable components of the teaching practice program. Conway found that most important component of the teacher education programme is the practicum experience and teaching methods course. However, the least valuable components of the program were the theoretical courses. Participants suggested that the program should focus more on classroom management, and teaching methods for elementary grades. In

addition, they requested to increase the period of practicum for a full year rather than one semester.

The above studies highlight the growing attention to the challenges facing pre-service teachers' preparation programs and the rehabilitation of both preservice and in-service teachers. These studies recommended further research in the field of practicum programs. As part of this study's objectives was to investigate the challenges facing the teaching practice programme of teacher training in Ghana. It attempted to add to the previous literature by highlighting the perception of practicum practices of student teachers and the challenges that they face during the practicum experience.

Teaching Practice

The word practice refers to the doing of something repeatedly or continuously by way of study, exercise in an art or handicraft with the aim of attaining proficiency (Lampert, 2010). Therefore, teaching practice involves the act of repeated engagement in teaching in order to become proficient. Lampert (2010) discusses four different concepts of practice, and their implications for how learning to teach might be organized. In other words, how teaching practice can or should be organized. These concepts include: contrasting practice with theory, teaching as a collection of practices, practice for future performance and the practice of teaching. Grossman et al. (2009) on the other hand had identified three key concepts for understanding the pedagogies of practice in professional education. These concepts include: representations, decomposition, and approximations of practice. According to Grossman et al. (2009), representations of practice comprise the different ways that practice is represented in professional education and what these various representations make visible to novices. Decomposition of practice on the other hand

involves breaking down practice into its constituent parts for the purposes of teaching and learning. Approximations of practice refer to opportunities to engage in practices that are more or less proximal to the practices of a profession. Larrivee (2000)'s framework for conceptualizing practice sought to suggest that critical reflection is the distinguishing attribute of reflective practitioner and that unless teachers develop the practice of critical reflection, they stay trapped in unexamined judgments, interpretations, assumptions, and expectations.

Cheong (2010) investigated teaching practice in second life, a virtual environment that allows students and teachers to collaborate actively in projects, and to exchange ideas and information. In other words, it is a world that tries to digitally reproduce the real world (Macedo & Morgado, 2009); and its effect on the preservice teachers' ability to produce the desired impact, the difference of changes between individual teaching practice as well as collaborative teaching practice. Cheong had concluded that preservice teachers can gain valuable teaching technique in second life, and that collaborative practice teaching is more effective way than individual approaches to practicing teaching.

Majzub (2013) discussed self-evaluation and self-reflection during teaching practicum and had posited that student teachers are empowered if they are encouraged to engage in self-evaluation and reflection to relate theory into practice. According to Majzub (2013), students demonstrate awareness of their own learning and teaching skills and ability to manage issues and problems related to their teaching experience if they engage in self-evaluation and reflection.

Teaching practice must be considered as one of the most influential aspects of teacher education (M Haigh, 2001). Fraser and McGee (2011) posited that it is during

teaching practice that student teachers gain real life teaching experience and knowledge to go about the complex task involved in actual classroom practice. Broadbent (1998) is of the view that teaching practice is one of the challenging experiences for student teachers in the teacher education programme. In view of this there is the need for research into the perception of student teachers with regards to the sort of supervision they receive during teaching practicum, the challenges they face and the impact, of teaching practice is having on the professional development of student teachers; so as to find out how teaching practice can best be undertaken. Grudnoff (2011) had observed that, while the structure of teacher training curricula consistently viewed teaching practice as being a key part of the teacher training programme, the practicum experiences of student teachers were not always helpful in supporting their move into teaching. Teaching practice exposes student teachers to action-oriented experience. This is the view express by Duminy, MacLarty, and Maasdorp (1992). They observed that teaching practice is directly and practically concerned with student teachers learning to do their jobs as teachers. In most teacher education programmes, the practical component forms one of the main elements in the training. Smith (2000) discussed the need for creating and sustaining a healthy relationship between student teachers and practicing schools. Boudreau (1999) further mentions that the professional relationship established during teaching practice has implications for, and contributes significantly to student teachers' development and learning. This relationship is at times complex and needs to be developed and negotiated for a variety of reasons (Dolan, 2012). Farrant (1990) posited that during teaching practice a supervisor can either be an experienced teacher or a tutor from the same school or an external examiner, and that supervisory exercise is very necessary if the exercise has to achieve its objectives. Korthagan (2004) supports the need for

supervision by indicating that the time many prospective teachers spend in classrooms under supervision has increased in recent years and is desired.

It is important that the practical context of teaching practice be established as it is seen as the way that equip the student teacher with the necessary professional and pedagogical skills he/she require to become a good teacher. Carretta and Ree (1997) emphasized that psychomotor and cognitive abilities of student teachers are considered to be the most reliable predictors of performance in teacher education and that teaching practice provides the avenue to develop the psychomotor and cognitive abilities of student teachers. Tambo (2005) had observed that there is a mismatch between education and employers' expectations. Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1990) indicates that teaching practice is an important part of teacher education. It is in this activity that colleges of education believe they will produce capable and competent teachers. Etimbi (1994) discussed the need for teaching practice and had indicated that teaching practice provides the much-needed opportunity and time frame for student teachers to actually apply theory to practice.

One of the most crucial factors in the teaching practice situation for the student teacher is preparation. That is finding as many possible strategies for formulating aims and objectives purposefully, selecting appropriate content, deciding on the best method of presentation, and writing actual lesson notes. This stage is considered crucial but can be much easier if a student teacher has studied his teaching concepts effectively. Farrant (1990) observed that all practice teaching, as far as student teachers are concerned, is in a sense experimental and as such requires thorough preparation beforehand if it is not to be a waste of time. And this preparation starts off with observation. Jenkins Garn and Jenkins (2005) shared a similar view, confirm that preliminary observation is essential for effective planning of teaching

practice as this affords the student teacher a quick means to get acquainted with his or her task and then to know how to tackle it continuously. According to Duminy et al. (1992) student teachers can learn a great deal from expert knowledge and personal experience while on observation. Etimbi (1994) confirms that observation provides students with ingredients for the preparation of lesson plans and lesson notes.

On-Campus and Off-Campus Teacher Education

Over the years, efforts have been made through reviews and reforms to address the issue of demand and quality of teachers in the education sector. Concerns were raised about the disconnect between theory and practice and it implications on the quality of education and human resource being produced (Ball and Forzani, 2009). According to Renes (1970) what is taught at the pre- service institution greatly influences the future career of mentees. To Renes, the manner of teaching at the training colleges influences the student teacher's professional efficiency as they teach at the basic level schools. Consequently, reiterated that effective teacher training must be built on a sound knowledge of the curriculum, pedagogical skills and practice teaching under the supervision of an experienced and capable teacher (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991). Some other researchers however, expressed opposing views about the level of attention being given preservice teacher education to the neglect of teachers who are already in professional service (Wragg, 2002). Wragg argued that attention should be payed to teachers who are already in practice through constant exposure to new idea and innovations. According to Cooper (2013), proficiency in teaching is a lifelong learning process which involves on-the-job learning and experience. Most often, teacher trainees find it difficult in their first year after school, especially, regards to how to handle classroom situations and mastery over subject matter (Nguyen, 2013).

The issue of mismatch between industry and academia is one of the malignant challenges which require urgent attention in teacher education and training. Darling-Hammond et al. (2005) argued that, though what the student teacher learned in on-campus courses might be useful in practice he or she may not necessarily much up to an experienced teacher. They had further observed that there is increasing concern about the mode of teacher education and training. Among these concerns is the need for trainee teachers to learned from practice rather than knowledge based academic training. Additionally, Darling-Hammond (2005) argued that, apart from some few instructions from teacher training institutions to student teachers in practicum to incorporate pedagogical lessons they taught in school, student teachers are left on their own with little or no guidance with regards to how to connect theory to practice. Stoddart and Floden (1996) for example stated that the point at which a teacher become a full fledge professional is an issue about which there has been much disagreement. Grossman and Loeb (2008) proposed that trainees spend less time on campus and spend majority of the time under mentorship in the real teaching environment. Researchers like Berry, Montgomery and Snyder (2008) proposed a rather gradual entry with the view that the student teacher has to be trained to a point where he or she can assume full responsibility of a class and children in school. The mixed mode, which consist of a field experience or multiple field experience over the length of the teacher training programme (In-In-Out or In-Out-In-Out or a hybrid of the two) in a can prove productive (Robert Jr et al., 1999). Previous studies have demonstrated clearly that off-campus teaching practice or practicum is an important exercise that enable the student teacher to put what he or she has learned into practice (Zeichner, 1996). Garner and Rosaen (2009) discuss how if teaching practice is taken for granted could affect the confidence of student teachers to deliver. Cochran-Smith

and Lytle (2009) proposed ideas about using teaching practice as a site for inquiry and as a vital ground for shaping the student teacher's perception about the role of practicum in teacher training.

Historical Background of Teaching Practice

A careful study of the concept of teaching practice will reveal that current practice of teaching has a link to ancient lineage. Bruner (1966) discussed how hunters pass on skills to their children. Though there is very little formal and explicit education, what the child knows, he or she learned from a direct imitative interaction with the adult community. These primitive practices are not dissimilar to those typifying our current approaches to student teaching. Samuel (2010) expands on the scope, and refers to teaching practice as far back as the first model of teacher education, the master-apprenticeship model, in which the novice teacher learns best through behavioural modelling, through imitating the expert teacher. The recent and universally accepted terminology of teaching practice forms part of the dominant model of teacher training, namely the applied science model which states that the novice teacher must first learn the theoretical basis of the discipline and then seek the context within which he or she will enact and apply the theory in practice (Samuel 2010). This model is also dominant in many other professions. According to Lewin and Stuart (2003), the model presumes that knowledge of a discipline will provide the foundation for practice. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2010) stated that since the establishment of training colleges in the middle and late 19th century, teaching practice in one form or another has remained an essential element in the preparation of generations of teachers. Until quite recently, the concept of teaching practice has been subjected to close scrutiny and found to be somewhat outdated and ambiguous. The ambiguity of teaching practice, it has three major connotations. The first is the

practice of teaching skills and assuming the role of a teacher. This embraces the whole range of experiences that students go through in school and the practical aspects of the course as distinct from theoretical studies which we presumably have in mind when we first speak about a student's teaching practice. The second is when we describe a student as being on teaching practice. And the third is when we encourage the need to integrate theory and practice in the education of teachers. It is evident that the ambiguous meaning of teaching practice is not simple. It has practical implications which address the following question: which type of activity do participants in the practice have in mind on any given occasion? In a practical field such as teacher preparation, this ambiguity seems intolerable: an attempt to resolve this is therefore of great importance.

The Role of Supervision and the Supervisor in Teaching Practice

The role of the supervisor in teaching practice is to serve as a resource person, adviser, interpreter of feedback, evaluator and assessor. The supervisor is to ensure that he does not only assess teaching practice lessons, but to make the teaching practice experience learning oriented (Tang and Chow, 2007). Long, van Es, and Black (2013) has posited that the major role of the supervisor is to observe student teachers and to provide feedback on their classroom practices and performance. Imperatively, the supervisor is required to inform students of his/her visit, should have pre-supervision and post-supervision conference with the student teacher and head of the schools in which student teachers are practicing. This is to enable the supervisor to provide feedback to the student teachers (Taylor & Bilbrey, 2011). Additionally, the supervisor is expected to serve as a role model to the student. He should be willing to share expert knowledge with the student and to engage student teachers in instructional dialogue with the aim of improving the professional development of

student teachers (Ayodele & Oyewole, 2012). Long, van Es, and Black (2013) identified three fundamental roles of the teaching practice supervisor, which include mentoring, evaluating, and managing. These roles, according to Long et al (2013), should be balanced. Fayne (2007) shared a similar view. She sees the supervisor as responsible for mentoring and assisting student teachers develop the required professional and pedagogical skill and practice of good teaching, evaluating the suitability of the student teacher as well as working with practice schools to help the student teacher to acquire the required skills and knowledge. As a result, the supervisor should not only focus on paper work, classroom management, lesson plan and observation of other aspects of teaching but also on challenging the student teacher's existing beliefs and practices towards development of a professional view in teaching.

Supervision is unavoidable in any teaching practice exercise. It provides the platform for student teachers to link theory to practice and to assess their own performance and to build a firm and better base for their teaching experience from the feedback they receive from supervision. Wenger (1999) mentions that it is through the supervisory process that student teachers begin to construct their personal knowledge and theories about teaching. Undoubtedly, supervisors are also responsible for organising critique sessions to show the students' weak points and suggesting changes that will work. Supervision was viewed by Manion et al. (2010) as a key part of the work of supervisors engaged with student teachers by virtue of their expertise and experience to help them develop new professional knowledge and skills as well as to improve and change practice. More importantly, the main aim of supervising during teaching practice is to offer assistance to student teachers in the development of basic

skills and understanding necessary for teaching to facilitate classification of purpose, attitudes and values as well as to find out ways to interact in the school system.

According to Gravett and Geyser (2009), international developments and research in the field of assessment indicate a shift in focus from traditional testing practices to a more constructive assessment approach that aims to enhance learning. This shift in focus should also be reflected in our assessment of teaching practice as it is one of the important instrument a supervisor has to influence the way a student teacher learns. Assessing the teaching practicum is an integral part of teaching practice and it therefore has to be planned and conducted in a constructive way. The reliability on traditional methods of assessment during teaching practice which rely solely on the reports of mentors or university assessors as an unconditional judge and which are almost entirely summative in nature, targeting only the student teacher's ability to demonstrate the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills as authorised by the mentors, promotes surface learning and encourages learning for assessment purposes. It is therefore recommended that assessing teaching practice should reflect student teachers' levels of understanding within a content area. The curriculum outcomes and the learning content which are the central pillar of the teaching are supposed to be the focus of the practicum assessment (Gravett & Geyser, 2009).

The Concept of Supervision

Wiles (1967) defines supervision as getting things done through people. Again, Wiles see supervision as a very important instrument which helps to ensure that facilities are effectively used to enhance teaching and learning. He observed that supervision in schools during the 1990s was not as effective as it should be. The reasons he gave were lack of adequate training, lack of dedication, job satisfaction for teachers, poor standard of education, and commitment to duty on the part of teachers

and administrators. According to Myers and Murphy (1995), supervision generally is the direct observation of a subordinate by a supervisor. They further define supervision as a visit from the superintendent or other central office personnel to a principal's school.

Supervision has also been described as the process by which some person or group of people is responsible for providing a link between an individual teacher's needs and organizational goals so that individuals within the school can work in harmony toward the vision of what the school should be (Glickman, 1990). According to Gordon, Ross-Gordon, and Glickman (1998), supervision refers to a function that seeks to improve instruction through direct assistance to teachers for group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. Basically, supervision is the glue to a successful school. In some instances, supervision has been seen as the observation of a teacher's classroom practice for the purpose of professional growth and improvement of instruction (Scott, 1998). Glatthorn (1990) posited that supervision is a process which involves the effort to gain deeper insight into the activities of an educational establishment. He further stated that the process of supervision requires an open, flexible inquiring attitude. The process is not directed at judging behaviours according to a fixed, seemingly object set of standards. Rather, the process leads to the construction of understanding and practical judgment, which leads to tentative, experimental choices that the participants see as responsible to the particulars of the context in which they find themselves.

Wiles (1967), in his 3rd edition of Supervision for Better School viewed supervision as a tool for improving instructional process. Supervision consists of all the activities leading to the improvement of human relations, in-service education and curriculum development. This means that it is not only activities like preparation of

lesson notes, the use of teaching and learning materials and pedagogical skills that ensure effective teaching, but also other things like the motivation the teacher receives, the cordial relationship that exists between the teacher and the head or the supervisor, the training programmes organized for the teacher, and what goes into what is to be taught.

The effectiveness of supervision depends on the skills and competency of the supervisor in working with the entire staff, which include classroom teachers, specialists and administrators (Edward, Stanley, and Mark, 1961). According to Edward et al. (1961), supervision in modern schools is different from supervision in the school of a few years ago. They contend that nowadays; supervision is a cooperative service designed to aid teachers rather than to report about them. In the past, they added, supervision in school was a reporting process concerned with the evaluation of personnel without too much consideration for service. Musaazi (1985) shared a similar view. Musaazi stated that supervision refers to all actions taken to improve or ensure the achievement of instructional objectives when teaching and learning are in progress in school. To him, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant stimulating and wholesome environment in which the teacher will feel secure. Others such as Swearingen (1962) was of the view that supervision should focus on the improvement of instructional goals with the wider realization of human dynamism for learning, cooperation and with the nurturing of a creative approaches to the problems of teaching and learning. Supervision is a consciously planned programme for the improvement and consolidation of instruction. Therefore, school supervision does not simply refer to that specific occasion when the whole school is examined and evaluated as a place of learning, but it also means the constant

and continuous process of guidance based on frequent visits which focus attention on one or more aspects of the school and its organizational progress or initiative.

According to Burton and Brueckner (1955), supervision is an expert technical service which is concerned with staying and improving the conditions that surround learning and pupil growth and development. Supervision is concerned with an oversight of the instructional process in the school to ensure that the teaching and learning objectives are achieved (Melchoir, 1950). Adams and Dickey (1953) perceived as the means by which the school system is enhanced through the input of others than the classroom teacher in order to provide growth and effectiveness of instruction and to improve the quality of the experience of the learner. Moorer (1956) did not differ from this view. He noted that supervision describes activities that go to ensure the improvement of conditions that promote learning

There are other writers who see supervision as part of school administration. Eye and Netzer (1971), for example, argued that supervision refers to that phase of school administration, which deals primarily with the assessment, and achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of education service. The school administrator thus puts in place some measures to assess or find out how the ultimate aim of education i.e. effective teaching and learning are being achieved. Neagley and Evans (1970) also posited that Administration and Supervision cannot be separated. They are of the view that educational administration is a generic category which includes supervision as one of the major function. According to them, other key areas of administration are finance and facility development. Neagley and Evans (1970) added that if the primary aim of an act is the improvement of the teaching situation, then that act may well be considered as supervisory. According to (Oliva and Pawlas (2001), the original Latin word for supervision is “supervideo” which means “to

oversee". The contemporary definitions of supervision stresses service, cooperation, and democracy. Supervision must be seen as service to teachers, both as individuals and in groups, to offer the teachers a specialized help in order to improve the instructional process. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) again posited that educational supervision suggests responsibilities encompassing many aspects of schooling, including administration, curriculum and instruction. Instructional supervision however is limited set of responsibilities including, supervision teaching activities and to improving same. Elsbree and Harold (1967) were of the view that modern day supervision should not be considered as mere classroom visits, individual teacher conferences, rating of teachers and writing of report, but should include supervision of curriculum, pupils' progress, materials for instruction, the school community and other administrative functions. Supervisory functions should cover curriculum organization, method of pupil assessments and reporting to parents, allocation of funds for materials and equipment and morale of staff. This is because these affect the teaching and learning process and cannot be separated from supervision.

Supervisors must look out for the potentials in their workers and observe or oversee the actual work or contribution they make towards the achievement of the organization goals. Workers who are found to be lazy are sometimes sanctioned or warned; while the hardworking ones are rewarded to serve as motivation to them and other workers. Head teachers, and circuit supervisors for instance query lazy teachers and recommend the hardworking ones for awards like "Best Teacher Award", after supervising their works for a long time. Head teachers for instance have to see to it that there are teaching and learning materials, teachers prepare their lesson notes, pupils come to school or attend classes, and teachers go to the classrooms and use the appropriate methods in teaching, to ensure that learning takes place.

Principles and theories of supervision

Gordon et al. (1998) mention three major educational philosophies that have direct relevance to supervision. These were labelled as essentialism, progressivism, and existentialism. They substitute the more general term experimentalism for progressivism. Essentialism derives from idealism and realism. This was created by William L. Bagley in 1938. He holds the idea that knowledge is external and outside of mankind. According to Gordon et al. (1998), essentialists emphasized that there is a body of timeless knowledge, both historical and contemporary that is of value to the living. They conceptualize essentialism in terms of supervision as emphasizing the supervisor as the person who teaches truths about teaching to teachers. Supervisors are those knowledgeable about those absolute standards of teaching. Teachers are then handled mechanistically to systematize and feed content to students. As teachers digest these teaching truths, they move closer to being good teachers. The authors further explain that experimentalism emerges from the philosophies of pragmatism, progressivism, and deconstructionism. According to them, these philosophies hold in common a historical break from the more traditional philosophies of realism and idealism. The essentialist idea that knowledge, truth, and morality exist as absolute and outside of humans was rejected. They add further that the emerging faith in the scientific method, the ability of humans to create their own laws, principles and machines and the fact that such man-made inventions would work for them demanded an accompanying philosophy of experimentalism.

Gordon et al. (1998) posited that educational application of experimentalists thinking to supervision is well documented in the writing of Dewey. Teachers need to learn what the truths of their times are, but they should not rest content with that parcel of knowledge Supervisors. Schools must be viewed as laboratories for working

with teachers to test old hypotheses and to try new ones. Supervisors work democratically with teachers to achieve collective ends that will help everyone. Supervisors are not solely conveyors of age-old wisdom; they are both the conveyors of the time and guiders of trial-and-error, exploratory rudimentary knowledge learning (Gordon, et al.) asserted. They further observed that the philosophy of education, applied to supervision, means a full commitment to individual teacher's choice. The supervisor provides an environment that enables the teacher to explore his or her own physical and mental capabilities. Teachers must learn for themselves. The supervisor does not dispense information and shy away from intrusively guiding a teacher. Supervisors help when needed, protect the rights of others to self-discovery, and encounter the teacher as a person of full importance. Starratt and Sergiovanni (1998) had also observed that many of the supervisory practices found in schools today and many of the policies emerging from state governments and local school boards are based on one or a combination of two theories of supervision, namely traditional scientific management and human relations. They opined that neither theory of supervision is adequate to provide a model for school supervision. They also indicated that scientific management supervision emerges from the thinking and work of Fredrick Taylor and his followers during the early 1900s. Taylor felt that the secret to scientific management was compliant worker who did not think too much but instead followed directions exactly. The directions, to them were to be based on scientifically validated methods of doing the job. The scientific management they refer to include the following: identifying the best ways, developing a work system based on research, communicating expectations to workers, training workers in the system, and then monitor and evaluate to ensure compliance. Furthermore, scientific management represents a classic autocratic philosophy of supervision within which

workers are viewed as appendages of management and as such are hired to carry out pre-specified duties in accordance with the wishes of management. Starratt and Sergiovanni (1998) had further added that, if these ideas are carried over to school supervision would mean that teachers are viewed as implementers of highly refined curriculum and teaching systems and where close supervision is practiced to ensure that they are teaching in the way in which they are supposed to, and that they are carefully following approved guidelines and teaching protocols control, accountability, and efficiency. The idea emphasized in scientific management denotes an atmosphere of clear-cut manager-subordinate relationship. Though some form of this brand of supervision can still he found in schools nowadays, it is however not the ideal. The ideas have not changed, hut strategies for implementing these ideas have. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) had concluded that within traditional scientific management, teachers are heavily supervised in a face-to-face setting in an effort to ensure that good teaching will take place.

Human Relations Supervision, according to Starratt and Sergiovanni (2007), emerged during the 1930s. The work of Elton Mayo, a social philosopher and professor at Harvard University, is considered to be important in the development of human relations supervision. Mayo believed that the productivity of workers could be increased by meeting their social needs at work, providing them with opportunities to interact with one another, treating them decently, and involving them in decision making process. His classic research study at the Western Electric Hawthorne Plant during the 192Os, gave testimony to these ideas. Ultimately, human relations supervision was a successful challenger to traditional scientific management. When the theory was applied to schooling, teachers were viewed as whole persons in their own right rather than packages of needed energy, skills, and aptitudes to be used by

administrators and supervisors. Supervisors needed to work to create a feeling of satisfaction among teachers by showing interest in them as people. It was assumed that a satisfied staff would work harder and would be easier to work with, to lead, and to control. Participation was considered to be an important supervisory method and its objectives were to make teachers feel that they were useful and important to the school Personal feelings and comfortable relationships were the watchwords of human relations. In human relations supervision, teachers are provided with conditions that enhance their morale and are involved in efforts to increase their job satisfaction so that they might be more pliable in the hands of management, thus ensuring that good teaching will take place. They further contended that Human Relations Supervision is concerned with teacher satisfaction. It views satisfaction as a means to smoother and more effective school. They assert that satisfied workers are happier workers and thus easier to work with, more co-operative, and more likely to be compliant. "Supervisors find it easier to get what they want from teachers when human relationships are tended to. An example can be cited of the practice of shared decision making. In human relations supervision this technique is used because it is believed that it will lead to increase teacher satisfaction. This relationship according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) is expressed as follows:

1. The human relations supervisor adopts shared decision-making practices to increase teacher satisfaction, which in turn increases school effectiveness.
2. The rationale behind the strategy is that teachers want to feel important and involved. This feeling in turn promotes in teachers a better attitude toward the school and therefore they become easier to manage and more effective in their work.

Neo-scientific Management Supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), was part of school reforms that began in early 1980s in the United States of America. It proposed a new or renewed interest in scientific management and thinking. This neo-scientific management, is by and large a reaction against human relations supervision with its neglect of the teacher in the classroom and lack of attention to accountability. They add that neo-scientific management shares with traditional management an interest in control, accountability and efficiency, but the means by which it achieves these ends is far more impersonal. Within specific performance objectives, all lacking in human relations supervision, are strongly emphasized. Neo-scientific management relies heavily on externally imposed authority and as a result often lacks acceptance from teachers. The writers further explain that in neo-scientific management impersonal, technical and rational control mechanisms substitute for face-to-face close supervision. Here it is assumed that if visible standards of performance, objectives or competencies can be identified, the work of teachers can be controlled by holding them accountable to those standards, thus ensuring better teaching.

Human Resource Supervision, according to Starratt and Sergiovanni (2007) represents a higher regard for human need, potential, and satisfaction. Leadership within this new kind of supervision is to be neither directive nor patronizing, but instead, supportive. Instead of focusing on creating happy teachers as a means to gain productive cooperation, the new supervision emphasis is on creating the conditions of successful work as a means of increasing one's satisfaction and self-esteem. Starratt and Sergiovanni's assertions were with reference to McGregor (1960)'s theory X and Y. This leads naturally to an emphasis on the tactics of control to procedures and techniques for telling people what to do, or determining whether they are doing it and

for administering rewards and punishments. The underlying assumption, according to McGregor, is that people must be made to do what is necessary for the success of the enterprise. Supervisors or leaders are therefore tempted to use the technique of direction and control. The assumptions about people associated with Theory X, include:

1. Average people are by nature indolent, they work as little as possible.
2. They lack ambition, dislike responsibility, and prefer to be led
3. They are inherently self-centred and indifferent to organisational needs
4. They are by nature resistant to change
5. They are gullible, not very bright, ready dupes of the charlatan and demagogue.

Starratt and Sergiovanni (2007) had observe that one could find many instances in schools when the assumptions of Theory X do indeed seem to be the case. Teachers, for example, seem to work only minimally and then only under close supervision. Few instances of teacher's initiative can be found, they noted. Teachers seem to be defensive and preoccupied with maintaining the status quo. Sergiovanni and Starratt asserted that fundamental to Theory X is a philosophy of direction and control. This philosophy is administered in a variety of forms and rests upon a theory of motivation and is inadequate for most adults, particularly professional adults.

Theory Y, as McGregor called it, is based on optimistic assumptions about the nature of humankind and provides a more powerful basis for motivating workers than the older theory X. Theory Y, according to McGregor, leads to a preoccupation with the nature of relationships, with the creation of an environment which will encourage commitment to organizational objectives and which will provide opportunities for the maximum exercise of initiative, ingenuity and self-direction in achieving them.

The assumptions about people associated with Theory Y as stated include:

1. Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprises, money, materials, equipment, and people in the interest of economic ends.

2. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organisational needs, they have become so as a result of experience in organisations.

3. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviours towards organisational goals are all present in people; management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to develop these human characteristics for themselves

4. The essential task of management is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals by directing their own efforts towards organisational objectives.

Basic to Theory Y, is building identification and commitment to objectives in the work context and building mutual trust and respect. Success in work, the theory asserts, is assumed to be dependent on whether authentic relationships and the exchange of valid information are present.

According to Starratt and Sergiovanni (2007) advocates maintain that school conditions created by human resources management result in a better life for teachers and more productive schooling. They add further that within human resources supervision, by contrast, satisfaction is viewed as a desirable end towards which teachers work, satisfaction, according to this view, results from successful

accomplishment of important and meaningful work, and this accomplishment is the key component to building school success. The human resources supervisor, therefore, adopts shared decision making practices because of their potential to increase school success. The supervisor assumes that better decisions will be made, that teacher ownership and commitment to these decisions will be increased, and that the likelihood of success at work will increase. These relationships, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt, are expressed as the adoption of shared decision making practices to increase school effectiveness which in turn increases teacher satisfaction.

In a study conducted by Scoft (1998) in the United States of America (USA) involving three schools, which was referred to as Prairie Lily School Division, two of the principals of elementary schools and an alternate school were of the view that supervision in both of their schools took the form of a daily supervision in which they practised what is referred to as Supervision By Walking Around (SBWA). Both principals stated that they believed that they were most effective as supervisors when they were visible in the hallways and classrooms of their schools. In the third school, which was a high school, the principal seemed to concur with the other principals with respect to identifying himself as the person responsible for supervision, using SBWA as his primary supervisory technique involving the Assistant Principals in the supervisory task, and perceiving supervision as a high priority.

Finding of a research, which was conducted by a team from the Newcastle University in England, officials from the University of Cape Coast, and Education Assessment and Research Centre, a Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO), showed that among private and public schools in the Ga District of the Greater Accra Region, private school teachers are more accountable than public school teachers. It was observed that 18 percent of teachers in public schools were normally absent while

seven percent were absent in registered private schools and 11 percent in unregistered private schools. The research team attributed the frequent absenteeism among teachers in the public schools to lack of supervision as compared to that of private schools (Baneseh, 2004).

In another article titled "Falling standards in schools lack of supervision a major cause" which appeared in the Daily Graphic and written by Kate Hudson, the writer complained about some teachers who report for work and leave for town and never come back till the following day. She said events similar to this abound in various basic schools where solid foundation is critical, and asked what has gone wrong. The answer she gave was supervision. She asked who does the supervision and who is in charge of the management of the schools and who supervises the one supervising? She lamented that parents are concerned about this lack of supervision or inefficient management practices of our schools, particularly the basic and secondary levels. She continued by saying that a lot of people have complained about this laissez faire attitude by some of our teachers at those levels (Hudson, 2004).

Hudson reported what Hon. Kwadwo Baah-Wiredu, the then Minister of Education, Youth and Sports once said, that, he paid a surprise visit to a school in a rural area and at about 10am a teacher had still not reported to school. The writer reiterated the importance of efficiency in all endeavours, and stressed how important it is to find out how successful management at this level has been, the problems they face and how they could be solved. The writer stated that the school is the primary unit of management in the educational system and that within that unit of management, the class or subject teacher focuses on the pupils or students and the head focuses on the whole school. She further observed that the head of a school is in a better position than anyone else to carry out supervision and check all activities

carried out in the school on daily basis. He or she thus constitutes the first level supervisor in the school, the writer noted. She continued that the head is specifically responsible for managing instructional time, which involves the preparation of the timetable and the allocation of periods of classes and teachers and also assessing teachers' performance, in terms of defined standard.

The writer reported that the then Minister of Education, Youth and Sports, Hon. Baah-Wiredu had said that the report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana had observed that the outcomes of school education were not satisfactory as compared to its objectives because of such, problems as ineffective supervision by heads in many schools. Hon. Baah-Wiredu added that this had resulted in rampant lateness and absenteeism, ineffective teaching and learning and poor examination results. There was also indiscipline on the part of teachers and students, he added. The report noted that the rote of the head as the key manager at the level of the school was not given adequate emphasis arid for that reason they did not have sufficient control of staff and activities in the schools, while there was a great deal of discontent and frustration among heads and teachers in the performance of their duties. This, the report noted was due to the lack of appropriate sanctions for non-performing heads and teachers and lack of transparency in financial management, leading to dissatisfaction among staff arid students.

Hon. Baah-Wiredu said, at the circuit level, which is the second level in the management system of schools, a circuit supervisor is in charge and is expected to supervise 20 schools in urban centres, 15 in semi-urban centres and 10 in rural areas. The circuit supervisor, he added, is appointed from a group of professional teachers not below the rank of principal superintendents. Among other things, he added, the circuit supervisor is expected to supervise the works of heads of schools and teachers,

with a view to helping them to improve upon their, professional performance and report to the district director accordingly. He further observed that circuit supervision was ineffective as a result of inadequate number of teachers with the appropriate academic qualification and or rank for appointment as circuit supervisors. This was also due to lack of personnel with academic background specialization especially in Mathematics, English Language or Science for appointment as circuit supervisors. He added that at the district level, the District Director of Education is expected to ensure the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in schools and formulate plans to implement the national curriculum in the district.

The President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms report however indicated that some district offices especially those in the rural areas, were understaffed, while there was inadequate and inappropriate initial and in-service training for district directors, among other problems. The committee therefore, recommended that prior to appointment, a prospective head should be given thither appropriate training in school management including basic Accounting and Record keeping. In addition, the report added, a head should be given authority commensurate with his or her level of responsibility to deal promptly with some problems at the school level, especially in matters of discipline.

The Committee on Review of Education Reforms also suggested that vacancies for supervisors should be widely advertised, while their job description should include supervision of secondary and technical schools. It is expected that they file their itinerary with the District Director of Education and the regional directorate, to enable the district level to check on the performance of circuit supervisors, the committee added. To ensure quality education, the committee suggested further, that the District Directors organized yearly evaluations of the schools in their districts in

terms of their management, performance and structures. District Directors of Education and education officers in the district offices are expected to be given appropriate regular preservice and in-service training in Management, Accounting, Supervision and Staff Appraisal. Hon. Baah-Wiredu said even though there were genuine problems, such behaviours, as sheer laziness on the part of some teachers and heads, who even fail to attend classes and those who did not undertake any inspections of their areas, would not be tolerated. He added that it was strange how somebody who should supervise a number of schools would decide not to visit any of them to even know what goes on there, let alone know what their problems are. He said often times, because some of such teachers believed that no one would call at their schools, they did not even bother to go to school and when they decided to, they went in their own time and also closed earlier than expected.

In a study conducted by Arhin (2001), in the Techiman District on supervision of instruction in Junior High Schools, it was found that out of the six circuit supervisors, half of them (50%) were satisfied with headmasters' supervision. The other half was not satisfied with headmaster's supervision. However, those officers who were not satisfied handled schools which had headmasters who were also class teachers and could not make much time to supervise their teachers. The 50% who were satisfied had headmasters who were detached and therefore could make time to supervise very well. It was also observed that the majority of headmasters saw external supervision as adequate. The number was 11 out of 14 or 78.5%. Only 21.5% considered external supervision as inadequate. Since a minority of the respondents considered external supervision not adequate, it gave the impression that external supervisors, particularly circuit supervisors were doing very well in the district. The majority of the headmasters, that is, nine out of 14 or 64.2%, were satisfied with the

quality of external supervision in the district. Arhin reported that when circuit supervisors were asked to mention some major problems they were encountering in the course of their work which rendered their work less effective, all the five, representing 100%, mentioned lack of finds for logistics, materials and maintenance of their motorbikes, lack of textbooks, delays in reports to schools and teachers' failure to heed to advice offered them. Sixty percent of the circuit supervisors mentioned lack of decent classrooms in the schools in the district. In another study by in the Krachi District of the Volta Region showed that, 51.3% of the circuit supervisors listed inadequate motivation, teachers not wanting to change from their old ways of doing things, teachers hiding their ignorance for fear of intimidation, and uncooperative attitudes of both teachers and administrators as problems they were facing in their work.

Types of supervision

The Ghana Education Service's Circuit Supervisors' Handbook gives two forms of supervision under supervision of Instruction. These are traditional and clinical supervision (Ghana Education Service, 2002). Traditional supervision is described as the one, which the supervisor observes a classroom teaching and counsel teachers so that they can help them improve upon their teaching skills. It also involves meeting the teacher soon after observing classroom teaching and giving him suggestions for improving his teaching. Clinical supervision on the other hand, is a five-step process that aims at helping the teacher identify and clarify problems, receive data from the supervisor and develops solutions with the aid of the supervisor. The supervisor's aim is not to find fault with the teacher, but to help him to know the problems he (the teacher) has in his teaching and explains to him, and helps him to find solutions to them. The five steps of clinical supervision are:

1. Pre-observation conference,
2. Observation.
3. Analysis and Strategy.
4. Supervisory or post observation conference.
5. Post-conference analysis

Pre-observation conference is a meeting between a teacher and a supervisor who intends to sit in a teacher's class and observe him/her teach. The supervisor meets the teacher he intends to sit in his class and observe his teaching before the teacher starts the actual teaching (Ghana Education Service, 2002). The GES Circuit Supervisors' Handbook explains further that observation involves the observer entering the room as unobtrusively as avoiding eye contact with the children and teacher, and getting seated as quickly as possible near the door, not at the back of the class, to record in writing all that goes on during the lesson. Analysis and Strategy according to the GES Circuit Supervisors' Handbook, involves the supervisor first reviewing his notes with respect to the targets agreed upon, and looking for specific incidents in his notes that relate to the target hems.

Supervisory or Post-observation is similar to traditional supervision. During the post-observation conference, the teacher gets feedback on those aspects of teaching that are of concern to him/her. The supervisor begins with positive comments and then offers suggestions for improvements. Post-Conference Analysis therefore, is the final step in clinical supervision. It represents self-evaluation for the supervisor. He reviews the conference just completed and evaluates its strengths and weaknesses (Ghana Education Service, 2002).

Gordon et al. (1998) discuss some forms of supervision. These include: developmental supervision, Directive Control Supervision, Directive Informational

Supervision, Collaborative Supervision, Non-Directive Supervision, Laissez Faire Supervision, Collegial Supervision, Self-Directed Supervision, Informal Supervision, and Inquiry-Based Supervision. Additionally, Thobega and Miller (2008) studied student teachers' perception and preferences of the forms of supervision they receive during teaching practice. Thobega and Miller (2008) found that student teachers perceived both their supervisors to have engaged in contextual and clinical supervision practices; whereas some were perceived to have used a collaborative style.

Developmental supervision according to Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998), has three phases. In phase one, the supervisor tries to find out the levels of the teacher's developmental expertise, commitments, and approach that creates the best supervisory match. In phase two the supervisor uses a selected interpersonal approach to help the teacher in instructional problem solving. In phase three, the supervisor changes his or her interpersonal behaviour and adopts less supervisor control in favour of more teacher control. Directive control supervision on the other hand is applied when the supervisor wants to transmit his expectations to teachers. The supervisor presents, clarifies, listens, solves problems, directs, standardizes and reinforces. This form of supervision is useful in limited circumstances, and it is used when teachers possess little expertise, involvement or interest so far as an instructional problem is concerned and also when time is short. Another form of supervision, directive informational supervision, is used to direct teachers to consider and choose from clearly delineated alternative actions. The supervisor is the major source of information, goal articulation and suggested practices. However, the supervisor is careful to solicit teacher input as he or she revises and refines the choices. Ultimately, the teacher is asked to make a judgement as to which practices or

combinations are feasible and realistic (Gordon et al., 1998). They however, added that directive informational behaviours should be employed, among others under the following circumstances:

a. When the teacher is functioning at fairly low developmental levels

b. When the teacher does not possess the knowledge about an issue that the supervisor clearly possesses

Tsui (1995) posited that collaborative supervision is likely to reduce, if not eliminate the tension and anxiety associated with the supervision of teacher trainees during practicum. He argued that tension and anxiety generated in the supervisory process undermines the potential of teacher supervision as a mutually beneficial and enriching experience. Glickman et al. (1998) argued along similar lines with the view that collaborative supervision is premised on participation by equals in making instructional decisions and that its outcome is a mutual plan of action. According to them, collaborative behaviours consist of clarifying, listening, reflecting, presenting, problem-solving, negotiating and standardizing. They opined that collaboration is appropriate when teachers and supervisors have similar levels of expertise, involvement and concern with a problem. The key consideration of a supervisor is the fact that collaboration is both an attitude and a repertoire of behaviours. They conclude that unless teachers have the attitude that they are equal, collaborative behaviours can be used to undermine true equality. According to Glickman et al. (1998), nondirective supervision is based on the assumption that an individual teacher knows best what instructional changes need to be made and has the ability to think and act on his/her own. The decision belongs to the teacher. The role of the supervisor is to assist the teacher in the process of thinking through his or her actions. Glickman

et al, indicated that supervisors can use nondirective behaviours in helping teachers determine their own plans. Such supervisory behaviours, they noted, consist of listening, reflecting, clearing, encouraging, and problems solving. When individuals or groups of teachers are functioning at high developmental levels and possess greater expertise, commitment, and responsibility for a particular decision than the supervisor does, then a non-directive approach is appropriate. Important considerations for a supervisor when using a nondirective approach are: the supervisor should be non-judgemental, should hesitate in response to teachers' wishes for more supervisor input and adjusting one's behaviour when teachers demonstrate reluctance to general solutions. Glickman concluded that the purpose of non-directive supervision is to provide a spring board for thoughtful professionals. Additionally, supervisors should consider using a non-directive approach when:

1. the teacher or group is functioning at high development levels
2. the teacher or group possesses most of the knowledge and expertise about the issue and the supervisor's knowledge and expertise are minimal
3. the teacher or group has fill responsibility for carrying out the decisions and the supervisor has lift le involvement
4. the teacher or group is committed to solving the problem but the problem does not matter to the supervisor.

Glickman et al. (1998) had observed that laissez faire supervision advocates minimal supervisor involvement in the instructional improvement process. The teacher does the greater part of the teaching process to bring about improvement, while the supervisor comes in occasionally to give assistance or support when necessary.

Starratt and Sergiovanni (1998) in their study had shown that in collegial supervision, teachers agree to work together for their own professional development. Glatthorn (1987) defined this approach as a moderately formalized process by which two or more teachers agree to work together for their professional growth, usually by observing each other's classroom, giving each other feedback about the observation and discussing shared professional concerns. Collegial supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), can take many different forms. In some schools, teachers may organize themselves into teams of two or three. They indicated that it might be a good idea in some cases for at least one member of the team to be selected by the head of school or supervisor, but there are no rigid rules for composing collegial supervision teams. Once formed, the team may choose to work together in a number of ways ranging from clinical supervision to less intensive and more informal processes. Sergiovanni and Starratt went on to say that team members may, for example, simply agree to observe each other's classes and provide help according to the desires of the teacher being observed. The teachers might then confer, giving one another informal feedback and discussing issues of teaching that they consider important. They indicated that the team members are supposed to meet beforehand to decide the rules and issues for the observation and for any subsequent conversations or conferences. Traditionally supervision has come to mean some form of classroom observation. Collegial supervision extends well beyond classroom observation. It provides a setting in which teachers can informally discuss problems they face, share ideas, help one another in preparing lessons, exchange tips and provides other support to one another (Brink, Bäck-Pettersson, and Sernert, 2012).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) explained that in self-directed supervision, teachers take the responsibility of developing themselves professionally by working

alone. Teachers may, for instance come out with a yearly plan that includes targets or goals derived from an assessment of their own needs. The teacher discusses the plan with his supervisors like head teacher and circuit supervisors. As the teacher executes the plan. They further added that, the supervisors should allow the teacher the freedom to go about his or her work, but they should ensure that the plan and selected improvements targets are both realistic and attainable. They add that, at the end of the year, the supervisor meets the teacher to discuss the teacher's progress so far as the achievement of the professional development target set is concerned. The writers thither stress that teachers would be expected to provide some sort of documentation, perhaps in the form of a portfolio that includes such things as time, logs, reflective practice diaries, schedules, photo essays, tapes, samples of students' work and other artefacts that illustrate progress towards goals. The yearly conference they conclude would then lead to the setting of new targets for further self-directed supervisory cycles.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) opined that informal supervision comprises the casual encounters that occur between supervisors and teachers and is characterised by frequent informal visits to teachers' classrooms, conversations with teachers about their work and other informal activities. They added that successful informal supervision requires certain expectations to be accepted by teachers, otherwise, it will likely be viewed as a system of informal surveillance. Principals and other supervisors need to be viewed as principal teachers who have a responsibility to be a part of all the teaching that takes place in the school. They need to be viewed as instructional partners to every teacher in every classroom for every teaching and learning situation. When informal supervision is in place, school heads and supervisors become common fixtures in classrooms, coming and going as part of the natural flow of the school's

daily work. But this kind of relationship, they noted, is not likely to flourish unless it is reciprocal. If teachers are to invite supervisors into their classrooms as equal partners in teaching and learning, teachers must in turn be invited into the process of supervision as equal partners, they conclude.

Other types of school supervision include external and internal supervisions. Carey (1953) explained that internal supervision deals with all the activities performed by teachers and principals in the school to enhance teaching and learning. Halpin (1956) looked at external supervision as one that is carried out by persons/officers who are not part of the particular institution and whose work is to complement the role and duties of the interna1 supervisors by providing professional advice and guidance to teachers. In Eye and Netzer (1971)'s view, external supervision plays a very important role in ensuring that educational policy guidelines are adhered to.

Cogan (1973), as cited in Oliva and Pawlas (2001) O, gave a distinction between general supervision and clinical supervision when he states that: general supervision subsumes supervisory operations that take place principally outside the classroom. General supervision, therefore, denotes activities like the writing and revision of curriculums, the preparations of units and materials of instruction, the development of processes and instruments for reporting to parents and such broad concerns as the evaluation of the total education programmes.

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2001), clinical supervision takes place in the classroom where there is only one teacher, and thus it is an individualized approach to supervision. It is that aspect of supervision which draws upon data from first hand observation of actual teaching or other professional events, and involves face-to-face

and other associated interactions between the observer(s) and person(s) observed in the course of analysing the observed professional behaviours and activities and seeking to define and/or develop next steps towards improved performance. Oliva and Pawlas qualify clinical supervision with nine attributes. They are: It is a technology for improving instruction. It is a deliberate intervention into the instructional process.

1. It is goal-oriented, combining school needs with the personal growth needs of those who work within the school.
2. It assumes a working relationship between teacher(s) and supervisor(s).
3. It requires a high degree understanding, support, and commitment for growth.
4. It is systematic, although it requires a flexible and continuously changing methodology.
5. It creates productive (i.e. healthy) tension for bridging the gap between the real and the ideal.
6. It assumes that the supervisor knows a great deal about the analysis of instruction and learning and also about productive human interaction.
7. It requires both pre-service training, especially in observation techniques and continuous in-service reflection on effective approaches.

Oliva and Pawlas (2001) stated that a face-to-face relationship between supervisors and teachers is fundamental to clinical supervision. They observed that there are variations in the basic model for clinical supervision and that they include group supervision, that is, supervision of individual teachers by groups of supervisors,

groups of teachers by groups of supervisors, and groups of teachers by an individual supervisor.

Functions (role) of supervision and supervisors in school improvement

The Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service have spelt out in the Circuit Supervisors' Handbook, the functions (role) of circuit supervisors. They recognise the critical leadership role that the circuit supervisors must play in ensuring that learning takes place in schools. This leadership role involves providing support to the head teachers and teachers as curriculum advisor and in helping to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. The circuit supervisor must also provide guidance and leadership in helping head teacher become more effective in managing schools' resources. Finally, the circuit supervisor must provide support to the head teacher and teachers in developing strong and positive relationships with community leaders and other stakeholders who will support the school (Ghana Education Service, 2002). In addition to the above, the functions of the circuit supervisors as spelt out in their job description include:

1. Promoting effective teaching and learning in basic schools.
2. Interpreting educational policies to teachers and helping them understand educational policy objectives.
3. Promoting effective school management.
4. Liaising between schools and the district educational directorate.
5. Organizing in-service training for professional development of teachers.
6. Promoting healthy school-community relations.
7. Preparing work schedule for approval of the District Director of Education and submitting reports on individual schools to him/her with copies to the schools concerned.

8. Collating statistics on the schools in the circuit.
9. Undertaking other special assignments on request from the district education directorate, the school or the community.
10. Recommending head teachers and teachers for promotion and award.
11. Appraising the performance of head teachers.

According to Certo (2000), the key functions managers and supervisors perform are planning, organizing, staffing which includes appraising workers' performance, leading and controlling or monitoring performance. These are basic aspects of the supervisor's job. The supervisor's job is to help the organization meet its goals. Certo (2000) noted that, although the settings and degrees of responsibility may differ, supervisors and other managers carry out the same types of functions. To describe these common activities, management experts categorise them as planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. Planning refers to setting goals and determining how to meet them. Thus, the supervisor's job includes determining the department's goals and the way to meet them. The purpose of planning by supervisors then is to determine how the department can contribute to achieving the organization's goals.

Organizing, according to Certo (2000) is setting up the group, allocating resources and assigning work to achieve goals. At the supervisory level, organizing usually involves activities such as scheduling projects and assigning duties to employees or enabling employees to carry out these organizing tasks. According to Certo, staffing refers to identifying, hiring and developing the necessary number and quality of employees. The supervisor needs qualified employees to carry out the tasks that he or she has planned and organized. Leading means influencing people to act (or not to act) in a certain way. The supervisor is responsible for letting employees know

what is expected of them and for inspiring and motivating employees to do good work. Controlling refers to monitoring performance and making needed corrections. The supervisor needs to know what is happening in the department, when something goes wrong, the supervisor must find a way to solve the problem or enable employees to do so (Certo, 2000).

Certo's assessment of the functions of supervision further revealed that the major function of a supervisor is to communicate information up and down the hierarchy. He went further to outline some responsibilities of supervisors. According to Certo, supervisors are responsible for carrying out the duties assigned to them by higher-level managers. This includes giving managers timely and accurate information for planning. They also must keep their managers informed about the department's performance. He stresses that supervisors are expected to serve as a link between employees and management. Thus their responsibilities include building employee morale and carrying employees' concerns to the relevant managers. He reiterated that supervisors are responsible for giving employees clear instructions and making sure they understand their jobs. They must look for problems and correct them before employees deteriorate further. They also need to treat their employees fairly and to speak up for their interests to top management. He further observes that supervisors are responsible for co-operating with their co-workers in other departments. They should respond promptly when a co-worker in another department requests information. They should share ideas that will help the organization's department's work together to accomplish common goals. Supervisors are supposed listen with an open mind when co-workers in other departments make suggestion about improving the way things are done.

Scoft (1998) posited that while it is true that there is little agreement among scholars active in instructional supervision, it is generally accepted that supervision is essential for the improvement of instruction in a school. Thus, the prime objective of supervision is the improvement of instruction, he adds. He continues that supervision 'must emphasize and lead to the teacher's professional growth. The aim of supervision is to bring faculty together as knowledgeable professionals working for the benefit of all students (Gordon et al., 1998). Gordon et al. further noted that the role of supervision is to change the attitude of many schools that a classroom is an island unto itself to an attitude that faculty is engaged in a common school wide instructional task that transcends anyone classroom-a cause beyond oneself. They are of the view that whether supervisors are building level persons such as school heads, departmental heads, teachers, district personnel such as circuit supervisors and subject area specialists, they can play an important part in improving the schools. Harris (1975) further clarified the supervisor's role by stating that supervision is related directly to helping teachers with instructions but only indirectly to instructing students. According to Harris supervision is not the act of instructing students, that is, teaching, but rather the actions that enable teachers to improve instructions for students.

Glickman et al. (1998) observe that the tasks of supervision that can bring about improved instruction are direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. Direct assistance involves the supervisor providing or facilitating one-to-one feedback with teachers to improve instruction. Glickman further noted that, in group development, the supervisor can provide for instructional problem solving, that is, meetings among teachers to improve instruction. In professional development, Glickman et al.

suggested that the supervisor can provide learning opportunities with teachers to improve instruction. In curriculum development, they suggested that the supervisor can provide for changes in teaching content and instructional materials to improve instruction.

Additionally, they stated that, the supervisor can provide teachers with ways to evaluate their own teaching to improve instruction. The first function or task of a supervisor is to build the staff into a team. In order to improve school instruction, a supervisor has to work with staff to create a professional togetherness. They must share a common purpose for their instruction and they must have confidence that their collective effort will make a difference in their students' lives. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) was not far from this view. They noted that the overarching purpose of supervision is to help teachers improve. According to Duke (1987) the central purpose of supervision and evaluation is accountability, providing assurances to the public that professional incompetence and malpractice will be detected and corrected.

Besides accountability, Duke posited that specialists have recognised several other potential purposes for supervision and evaluation. Boston (1973) for instance viewed the purpose for teachers' evaluation and supervision as:

1. Improvement of instruction.
2. Rewarding supervisor performance.
3. Modification of assignment.
4. Protection of individuals and organisations.
5. Validation of the selection process and

Borich (1977) on the other hand stated that the purposes are diagnostic, formative and summative. It is for accountability, and individual as well as

organisational improvement (Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Pease, 1983). Duke (1987) added that the most important of them is professional improvement. Improvement according to Duke encompasses everything from the diagnosis of needs for professional growth to the identification of performances worthy of special recognition. According to Asiedu-Akrofi (1978), there used to be a time when it was thought that only inspectors had the monopoly of good methods of teaching. That was the time they visited a teacher's classroom, looked at his work, evaluated it and would tell him what he was to do. This idea, according to Asiedu-Akrofi, has changed. The supervisor's role has now changed to working co-operatively with the teachers to create favourable circumstances for learning in schools. Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) further noted that the concept of people about democracy and ideas of self-determination have made the supervisor more of a colleague. This situation gives more respect to the teacher who becomes more willing to work with the supervisor to achieve progress. He stressed that a supervisor's work is therefore to stimulate the teacher and children's enthusiasm for the improvement of their work. Basically, the supervisor therefore does the following things:

1. The supervisor looks for a teacher's hidden talent and encourages it to come out. It is the supervisor's role to provide leadership among teachers that is the supervisor's skills and experiences should readily be placed at the service of teachers.

2. While the supervisor has to be friendly, he has a duty not to be familiar with his teachers.

3. The supervisor must have great respect for a teacher's initiative, experimentation and sense of creativity. Thus, the circumstances under which

every teacher's action takes place in the classroom needs clear understanding before any relevant advice can be given by the supervisor.

4. A good knowledge of the schools in his or her district is essential so that the supervisor can advise other heath or teachers to look for example in those schools.

According to Oliva and Pawlas, (2001) many occupations outside education use the services of supervisors, whether as office boss, telephone supervisor, floor manager, construction foreman, department store head, or assembly-line supervisor. These supervisors, they noted, demonstrate the techniques, offer suggestions, give orders, evaluate employees' performance and check on results or products. Oliva and Pawlas also noted that the roles supervisors play vary from locality to locality and from state to state. Though differences will be found in the role supervisors play, it is more than likely that service-oriented supervisors will perform at different times each of the four roles, namely, co-ordinator, consultant, group leader and evaluator. As a co-ordinator, the supervisor serves as a co-ordinator of programmes and people. He or she knows the disparate pieces of the educational process and directs the actions to make the pieces to blend. As a director of staff development, the supervisor plans with teachers, arranges, evaluates, and often conducts in-service programmes for teachers. The supervisor also serves in a consulting capacity as a specialist in curriculum, instructional methodology and staff development. He or she renders services to both individual teachers and groups. At times, he or she may simply give necessary information and suggestions. At other times, the supervisor may help teachers to define, set, and pursue goals.

The supervisor as a group leader works continuously to release the potential of groups seeking to improve the curriculum, instruction, or themselves. To perform this role, the supervisor must be knowledgeable about group dynamics and must demonstrate leadership skills. The supervisor assists groups in consensus building, in moving toward group goals, and in perfecting the democratic process. As a group leader, the supervisor seeks, identifies and fosters leadership from within the group (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). As an evaluator, Oliva and Pawlas noted that the supervisor provides assistance to teachers in evaluating instruction and curriculum. He helps teachers find answers to curricular and instructional problems, identify research studies that may have a bearing on their problems, and conduct limited research projects. The supervisor helps teachers evaluate their classroom performances, assess their own strengths and weaknesses, and select means of overcoming their deficiencies. Oliva and Pawlas further contended that the supervisor is conceptualized as an individual whose primary role is the improvement of instruction and the curriculum through individual and group assistance to teachers. They added that even though there are many types of supervisors, their primary roles are similar, thus the improvement of programs for young people through the professional development of teachers.

To Oliva and Pawlas (2001), the responsibilities of the supervisor imply a number of roles. These roles include:

1. A co-ordinator, who seeks to achieve articulation between programs and levels and helps teachers become aware of each other's problems.
2. A consultant, on call to individual teachers and groups who wish to take advantage of his or her expertise.
3. A group leader, who knows how to work with groups and get the most out of them.
4. An evaluator, who helps teachers evaluate instruction, the curriculum and themselves.
5. An expert on instruction, knowledgeable about the latest and best methods.
6. A curriculum expert, knowledgeable about the curriculum and ways to improve it
7. A communicator, who can relate information and ideas to teachers and is a good listener
8. An organizer, skilful in establishing various kinds of programs of value to teachers.
9. A stimulator, who suggests ideas for teachers to consider.
10. A guide, who takes responsibility for helping teachers who are new to the system and community to become acquainted.
11. A public relations person, who may be invited to interpret the school's curriculum to the public, either in written communications or in talks to lay groups.

12. A researcher, who instigates research studies, particularly action research.
13. A change agent, a catalyst for helping teachers to change and improve
14. A master teacher, who can demonstrate effective teaching and can teach teachers.

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2001), to remain up-to-date and maintain effectiveness, the supervisor should:

1. Participate in in-service activities for professional development.
2. Regularly and systematically evaluate himself or herself and
3. Regularly and systematically request teachers to evaluate his or her effectiveness.

They had added that supervisors may learn some of the skills of supervision through on-the-job training. They conclude by saying that "the supervisor must continue to develop professionally if for no other reason than to set an example for teachers, thus communicating to them that professional growth is an expected part of the life of a professional.

Conditions that make supervision effective

Many writers have written on conditions that make supervision effective. Evans and Neagley (1970), for example, had observed that for supervision to be effective, the general limits of authority and responsibility must be well established so that all members of the supervisory staff are able to function effectively as a team. Halpin (1956) insisted that supervision can be effectively carried out when materials and logistics are provided to support it. Some other writers also argue that effective

supervision depends on the calibre of personnel involved. Balbrige (1971), for instance, opined that for supervision to achieve its objectives, the quality of the supervisor should be considered paramount. Merton (1968) also asserted that supervision can be effective if supervisors are constantly orientated with fresh ideas. If supervision is to achieve its goals by improving the process of instruction in the school, then the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant, stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work. He adds that the supervisor must arrange courses or workshops for teachers and head teachers to infuse in them new techniques in teaching (Musaazi, 1985). Musaazi further noted that in order for supervision to achieve its goals, the supervisor must provide accurate, honest and positive reports on the schools he supervises, on the teachers he observes, and on the educational value obtained from the expenditure of public money.

On their part, Eye and Netzer (1971) contended that for supervision to achieve its goals, it must institute an evaluation programme that is comprehensive enough to include the participation of pupils, teachers and administrators and also to examine the effectiveness of learning in the light of instructional supervisory and other administrative procedures. Commenting on effective supervision, Spanjer (1990) posited that to be effective, supervision must be a continuous process that requires alternative behaviours and requires constant feedback. Glickman et al (1998) shared a similar view with Spanjer, but explain that effective supervision also requires the supervisor to have in-depth knowledge about the curriculum being taught. His or her interpersonal skill should enable him build his staff into a team and finally he must possess technical skills in observing, planning, assessing and evaluating instructional activities. As long as the supervisor maintains the supervisory machinery in motion and possesses the requisite skills that will enable him guide his staff, supervision will

improve.

Impact of supervision on teaching and learning

Various writers have written on the impact of supervision on teaching and learning. Some have written on how its effectiveness can promote teaching and learning and others have written on how its ineffectiveness or absence can hamper teaching and learning. Scoft (1998) pointed out that: supervision can enhance teachers' belief in a cause beyond oneself. It promotes teachers' sense of efficiency and make teachers aware of how they complement each other in striving for a common goal. Supervision stimulates teachers to plan common purpose and actions and challenge teachers to think abstractly about their work. Neagley and Evans (1970) also stated that effective supervision of instruction can improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

According to Burton and Brueckner (1955), the goal of supervision is to ensure an excellent academic achievement of school objectives because it directs attention towards the fundamentals of education and orients learning and its improvement within the general aim of education. They again emphasize that supervision is effective in ensuring the aims of educational objectives because it aims at the improvement of the total setting for learning rather than the narrow and limited aim of improving teachers in the service. They concluded that effective supervision ensures a proper appraisal of the teaching and learning processes in order to bring about the achievement of objectives. Additionally, effective supervision encourages teachers to demonstrate the ability to exercise sound and mature judgement in the performance of their duties resulting in the achievement of school objectives (Unruh, 1973). Wiles (1967) viewed supervision as an effective method that could be used to promote good results as far as teaching and learning are concerned. Eye and Netzer

(1971) also alluded to the fact that effective supervision helps supervisors and teachers to have consensus on methods that can promote learning in the school. Supervision helps to develop a better education for the youth. The concept of supervision is based upon the belief that the improvement of instruction is a cooperative enterprise in which all teachers, head teachers and supervisors must actively participate if educational goals are to be achieved (Boardman, Douglas, and Bent, 1953). Writing on how supervision influences students' performances, Mertes (1968) stressed that supervision can enable students perform better by ensuring better methods of lesson delivery in the classroom.

Balbrige (1971) indicated that supervision achieves its goals by equipping teachers with ideas that enhance teaching and learning. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) also viewed supervision as a process for promoting teacher growth that enhances student learning. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) observed that supervision is not the act of instructing students in teaching, but rather actions that enable teachers to improve upon instruction for students. Supervision must be teacher-oriented to make him more conversant with classroom procedures that will help improve the academic performance of the pupils.

Characteristics of successful supervisor

The Ghana Education Service, has spelt out in the Circuit Supervisors' Handbook, the characteristics of a good circuit supervisor. The Service expects that a circuit supervisor should:

1. Be knowledgeable in educational matters
2. Be conversant with the contents of the head teachers' handbook and its Addendum.

3. Be up-to-date in appropriate methodologies for organizing in-service training.
4. Be objective.
5. Be conversant with current educational policies.
6. Be an adviser to teachers, head teachers and all groups and individuals connected with education in the community.
7. Be innovative.
8. Be friendly and tolerant.
9. Show humility in dealing with teachers and head teachers.
10. Comport himself or herself appropriately.
11. Be aware that he/she is a role model.
12. Have in-depth knowledge of curriculum objectives.
13. Be committed to supporting quality teaching and learning in schools.

A successful supervisor, according to Certo (2000), has a positive attitude. Certo porsited that employees tend to reflect the attitudes of the people in charge. When the supervisor's attitude to work and the organization is positive, employees are more likely to be satisfied with and interested in theft work. Furthermore, managers and co-workers alike prefer working with someone who has a positive attitude (Certo, 2000). The second characteristic mentioned by Certo (2000) is that successful supervisors are loyal. As a part of the management team, they must make decisions that are unpopular with employees. Successful supervisors are fair. Supervisors who play favourites or behave inconsistently will lose the support and respect of their employees, and thus not be able to lead effectively. Furthermore, when supervisors make assignments and decisions based on those they like best, they will not necessarily make the assignments and decisions best suited to the organisation.

Another aspect of being fair, according to Certo, is to follow the rules yourself. The supervisor can set a good example, for example by being on time and refraining from doing personal work on the job or taking supplies home.

The third characteristic of successful supervisors, according to Certo (2000) is that supervisors need to be good communicators. Employees and bosses alike depend on the supervisor to keep them informed of what is going on. Employees who receive clear guidance about what is expected of them will not only perform better but also will be more satisfied with their jobs. Certo asserted that good communication also includes making contact with employees each day and listening to what they have to say. To be successful, Certo (2000) posited, that, supervisors must be able to delegate, that is, to give their employees authority and responsibility to carry out activities. As supervisors tend to have excellent technical skills, delegating may be a challenge. They may resist giving an assignment to an employee who may not carry it out as easily or as well as they, the supervisors, could. Nevertheless, Certo indicates that supervisors cannot do the work of the whole department, therefore, they must assign work to employees. Equally important is that, a supervisor should give employees credit for their accomplishment. This, in turn, makes the supervisor look good; the employees' successes show that the supervisor is able to select and motivate employees as well as delegate effectively. Finally, Certo added that, a successful supervisor must want the job (desire for the job). He observes that some people are happier carrying out the technical skills of their field, whether it is carpentry, respiratory therapy or financial management. People who prefer this type of work to the functions of managing, he continues, will probably be happier if they turn down an opportunity to become a supervisor. In contrast, Certo notes that people who enjoy the challenge of making plans and inspiring others to achieve goals are more likely to

be effective supervisors.

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2001), the supervisor should be an "idea person", one who leads people to think about new and improved ways of doing things. He or she needs to convey the attitude of valuing and seeking the ideas of others while not appearing to have answers to all the problems teachers face. The supervisor needs to possess a predisposition to change and must constantly promote improvement. He or she must be able to live with change and help teachers adopt to changing needs to society and of children and youth. To be able to accomplish this mission, Oliva and Pawlas added that, the supervisor should be able to work effectively in both one-to-one relationships and in groups. According to Oliva and Pawlas, the knowledge and skills a successful supervisors need, can be found. They added that there is a general agreement that supervisors should have:

1. A sound general education programme.
2. A thorough pre-service professional education programme.
3. A major field of study.
4. A solid graduate program in supervision.
5. Three or five years of successful teaching at the elementary, middle or secondary school level.

In pre-service and in-service training programmes, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) noted that supervisors should develop a grounding in:

1. Learning theory and educational psychology.
2. Philosophy of education.
3. History of education, especially of curriculum and instructional development.

4. The role of the school in society.
5. Curriculum development.
6. Instructional design and methods.
7. Group dynamics.
8. Conferencing and Counselling.
9. Assessment of teacher performance.

Oliva and Pawlas (2001) further noted that a special kind of person is required to be a supervisor, one with extended training and experience.

Summary of the Review

This chapter focuses on issues related to the supervisory roles of circuit supervisors and head teachers. The various areas relevant to the review include: the concept of supervision, where different writers gave different definitions or meanings of supervision. They all seem to agree that it is an action taken to improve teaching and learning process in school. Second, the principles and theories of supervision were also looked at. Here, different philosophies of education and theories or principles such as essentialism and human relations supervision propounded by different authorities were reviewed. The theorists in this connection include Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) and Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998).

The third area of review covered the types or forms of supervision. Different forms like traditional, clinical, directive control and non-directive supervision were reviewed. Functions or roles of supervision and supervisors in school improvement was reviewed. The functions of the circuit supervisor, as spelt out by the Ghana Education Service were noted, as well as those given by Certo, Glickman and others.

The review covered the conditions that make supervision effective. Here, the ideas of several writers including Musaazi (1985) and Glickman et al (1998) are reviewed. The impact of supervision on teaching and learning was dealt with. It was realised from the various writers and authors that effective supervision can improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. Writers like Neagley and Evans (1970), Balbrige (1971) and Unruh (1973) share this view as propounded by Ghana Education Service has received attention in the review. The ideas of Certo (2000) on this aspect were also reviewed. The literature review which has given insight into the work of scholars in this area is aimed at guiding the researcher in his work. The importance of supervision which is reflected in the literature review underscores the significance of the proposed research study. The study would find out if some of the issues discussed above exist in the primary schools. Thus, findings from the study would confirm or contradict the views of the experts in the field.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the profile of the College of Education in which the study was conducted and the research methods used for the study. It explains the research design adopted, the study population, the sample and sampling technique, the instrument used and how it was administered to find out how student teachers perceive the quality and effectiveness of supervision they receive during practicum.

The Profile of Offinso College of Education

The Offinso Teacher Training College for women, now College of Education was established in the year 1950 by the Methodist Church and was opened on the 3rd of February, 1955 with Miss M. Turnbull as the first principal. The college started with 30 female students for a two-year Teacher's Certificate "B" and five members of staff including the principal. The list included, the principal, Miss Dorothy M. Turnbull, Miss Rose Asiedu Awuah (Mrs. Rose Coker) and Miss Victoria Homiah. Mr. S. K. Arku was the Clerk/Bursar. From the 1962/63 academic year, the two-year Certificate "B" programme was upgraded to four-year Certificate 'A' programme. The college moved to its present site in January, 1966. By 1971, student enrolment had increased from 60 to 300. In September 1971, the college was turned into a mixed institution with the enrolment of 70 first year male students. Seventy-three male students from Aduman Training College were transferred to the college. In October, 1972 Mr. Amofa Kwasi became the first male principal of the college. In 1974, the two-year post-secondary Certificate 'A' programme was introduced in the College. This programme was replaced with three-year post-secondary programme. It started a three-year Diploma in Basic Education since September, 2007. The National

Accreditation Board has presented a certificate to that effect. The Offinso Training College has chalked great successes in female education in particular, and teacher education in general. The College was given accreditation as a tertiary College of Education by the National Accreditation Board (NBA) of the Ministry of Education and runs the following programmes:

1. 3-year diploma in Basic Education for regular students
2. 4-year Diploma in Basic Education (Distance programme for untrained teachers)
3. 4-year Certificate A (distance programme for untrained Teachers)

Mission and Vision of the School

The Mission of Offinso College of Education is to provide quality teacher with excellent profession and relevant teacher and training, that would produce competent, dedicated, God fearing and committed teachers who will perform creditably by international standards. The vision of the College is to create excellent teaching and learning environment and opportunities for training quality basic teachers with emphasis on knowledge, skills and values for quality education, recognizing that education is the key to human resource development of Ghana.

Research design

The study was a descriptive survey and it was conducted to explore the perception of student teachers at the Offinso College of Education with regards to the quality and effectiveness of supervision they receive during their teaching practice sections outside campus. Additionally, the study also sorts to explore the challenges facing both student teachers and college tutors who are charged to supervise the

student teachers. To achieve the purpose of the study, a descriptive survey design was used, together with a perceived quality of supervision model, which was adapted to measure the quality of supervision being rendered to student teachers during practicum. The supervision quality model was adapted from a conceptual model of service quality (SERVQUAL). This was used to collect data to measure the perception of student teachers as compared to supervisors by examining the following five dimensions:

1. Reliability
2. Responsiveness
3. Assurance
4. Empathy
5. Tangible

Each dimension stated above measured both the expectation and perception of the quality of supervision being given student teachers during practicum. Reliability measures the ability or competence of the supervisors to conduct the supervision as required accurately and dependably. Responsiveness measures the willingness of the supervisor to collaboratively provide support to the student teacher and to provide prompt solution to the problems encountered by the student teacher during practicum. The next dimension, assurance examined the knowledge and courtesy of supervisors and their ability to convey trust and confidence. The empathy dimension, measured how caring and individualized attention the supervisors give to the student teacher. And finally, the tangibles dimension examined the physical facilities at the schools in which they practice, teaching and learning materials and the appearance of supervisors and staff of the schools where they practice.

Each of the five dimensions were then weighted using percentage points in the order of importance to the respondents and the score for each dimension multiplied by the weighted percentage points. The score for each dimension was calculated by subtracting the Expectation score from the Perception score. A negative gap score indicates that the actual supervision (the Perceived score) was less than what was expected (the Expectation score). This was taken further to determine how significantly different the perceived scores were from the expected score using a chi-square test.

The choice of a descriptive research was appropriate to a study of this nature because, the purpose of describing a person, group of persons or a given condition or situation is to portray an accurate profile of the said person/persons, events, conditions or situations. Additionally, measuring attributes such as the perception of people or the quality of a service can be a very difficult exercise. These attributes are therefore best qualitatively described than quantitatively measured. Unlike product where there are specific specifications such as length, depth, width, weight, colour etc. a service, or supervision of teaching practices of student teacher can have numerous intangible or qualitative specifications. In addition, both the supervisor and the student teacher have expectation with regards to the nature of supervision, which can vary considerably based on a range of factors such as prior experience, personal needs, cultural beliefs and personal beliefs of what supervision of teaching practice should look like. It is against this backdrop that the choice of the SERVQUAL model which is widely used in management research for measuring service quality is appropriate.

Population of the Study

The study population comprised final year students of the Offinso College of Education and all tutors at the Offinso College of Education in the Ashanti Region. The student teacher population was student teachers who had their teaching practice during the 2014/2015 academic year, numbering 300 and that of the tutors numbering 59. The total population of student teachers in practicum at the time of the study numbered three hundred (300). The total number of tutors was fifty-nine (59) at the college during the study. The basic school population in the Offinso District was one hundred and forty-three (143). However, not all of them were considered.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure for the Study

The population of potential colleges was large and so a purposive sampling technique was use to select the Offinso College of Education. Simple random sampling technique was used to select participants to represent the relevant stakeholder groups, student teachers and college teachers. In this case student teachers on the teaching practice programme as well college tutors were selected for the study. The student teachers were selected by random sampling.

A total of 300 student teachers were on off-campus teaching practice and the college tutors as of the time the researcher conducted the study were 59. However, Nwana (1992) suggests that if the population is few hundreds a 40% or more sample size will do; if several hundreds a 20% sample size will do; if a few thousands a 10% sample size will do and if several thousands 5% or less sample size will do. It can be deduced from Nwana's suggestion that the higher the population the lower the percentage of sample size. Therefore, the researcher distributed 120 questionnaires which constituted 40% of the student teacher population of 300.Out of the 120

questionnaires distributed 100 were retrieved which constituted 83% of the 120 questionnaire distributed. Concerning the College tutors, the researcher used simple random sampling technique to select 30 out of 59 . There were a total number of one hundred and forty-three (143) basic schools in the Offinso District but, only twenty-four (24) were involved. The selected student teachers were scattered across these twenty-four basic schools in the Offinso District of the Ashanti Region. The table below shows the summary of the population and sample sizes for the study.

Table 3.1 Summary of Population and Sample Size

	Student Teachers	College Tutors	Basic Schools	Total
Population	300	59	143	502
Sample size	100	30	24	154

The sampling technique adopted was simple random sampling to select the student teachers and college tutors for the study. The name list of all the students on teaching practice and all the college tutors were obtained and randomly picked. This sampling technique ensures that every stakeholder in both the students' and college tutors' population had an equal chance of being selected so the result can easily be generalised.

The school in which the one hundred randomly sampled student teachers were located automatically became the participating schools. They provided the study with the opportunity to examine the physical facilities in the schools, in other words the ambiance of the schools' environment, teaching and learning materials availability, the appearance of supervisors and staff of the schools where the student teachers practice. Beyond these, the schools played no major role nor contributed in any

significant way to the data used for the study. The selection of college tutors was based on the fact that they are the implementers (that is to say, they put the programme into real use in the classroom) of the programme. They are tasked to provide a conducive environment and play a supervisory role in the successful implementation of the programme. The choice of third year teacher trainees is based on the fact that they form the core of the objectives of the study.

Research Instrument

The instrument used was a questionnaire. This instrument was used because it is the most appropriate in collecting data of this nature. The questionnaire was administered to the student teachers and the college tutors solely by the researcher. The questionnaire allowed for the required data to be collected using closed-ended items. The closed-ended questions or items provided a number of alternatives from which the respondents were instructed to choose. All items on the questionnaire were either a seven or five Likert Scale with responses required ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree or a dichotomous scale requiring Yes or No response

The questionnaire was developed with key questions around the following:

1. The perception of student teachers about the supervision of teaching practicum.
2. The perception of college tutors about their supervision role and student teachers' attitude towards teaching practice.
3. The challenges being faced by both student teachers and college tutors during teaching practice.
4. The impact of supervision of teaching practice on the quality of teachers being produced by the colleges of education across Ghana.

Two sets of questionnaire were used. One for college tutors who served as supervisors and the other for student teachers. The two set of questionnaires contained 65 and 68 items respectively. The questionnaires were designed to measure both student teachers' and college tutors' perception of the teaching practice programme of the colleges of education with specific focus on the Offinso College of education. Additionally, the questionnaires elicited information about the challenges that confronted both student teachers and college tutors who supervised during teaching practice. The last sections of the research instrument measured the impact of teaching practice supervision on the quality of teachers that come out of the college of education

Pre -Testing of the Instrument Used

A pilot testing was conducted to make sure the research instruments were valid and reliable. The purpose for piloting is to get the bugs out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in completing the questionnaire and also enable one to have preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of questions is appropriate (Bell, 2005).

The questionnaire was pretested on 40 student teachers and 20 college tutors in Wesley College of Education(WESCO).Respondents were conveniently selected as statistical conditions are not necessary in the pilot study (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The purpose of the pre-test was to allow the researcher to make the necessary changes to items which were inappropriate.

Validity

The validity of the questionnaire was verified by the supervisor. In order to ensure improved content validity of the instrument, it was given to the supervisor in charge for proofreading, wording and restructuring of the items. The supervisor made several comments and suggestions regarding wording, readability of items, and the relevance of items to the core objectives of the study. The supervisor suggested additions, deletions, and modifications where he saw fit. Items of the questionnaire were modified based on the opinions of the supervisor and mutual understanding between the researcher and the supervisor.

Reliability

The research instrument used was appropriate and has proven to be reliable since it has been tested and used by researchers all over the world and has proven to be reliable. The SERVQUAL model questionnaire is a proven model which was used to measure the quality of service. It has been used over the years to measure the perception of consumers of a service, about the quality of service they consume from a particular service provider. Essentially the researcher had ensured that the instrument chosen was reliable. The reliability of the study depended to a large extent on the appropriateness of the instruments. The procedure used to collect data, was critically examined to check the extent to which it was likely to give the expected results.

Data Collection Procedure

The amount of data required to come to a holistic conclusion for the perception of student teachers about the quality of supervision they receive during

teaching practice, the challenges they face and the impact supervision has on the quality of teachers being churned out from the Colleges of Education is extensive. However, due to the academic nature of the research and the limited time at hand, data were collected for analysis from only one College of Education. Questionnaire was used to collect the data required.

The questionnaire was administered personally by the researcher to two sets of sampled groups at Offinso College of Education, student teachers and college tutors, who were assigned the responsibility of supervising students on practicum. The researcher gave the students teachers and college tutors one week to answer the questionnaire and went and retrieved them after the stipulated of one week time.

Out of the 120 questionnaires administered to student teachers, 100 representing 83% were retrieved. Out of the 30 questionnaires administered to the college tutors, 30, representing 100% were also retrieved. The questionnaire for each sampled group had three sections. Items in section one sought to collect data on the perception and knowledge of student teachers and college tutors about the type or form of supervision they receive. Section 1A of the questionnaire was only meant for the student teachers. Items in sections 1B and 1C were developed to collect data on the quality and adequacy of supervision function of the students' teaching practicum. Section two of the questionnaire was designed to collect data on the challenges facing the task of supervising student teachers by tutors from the Offinso College of Education. Additionally, the section two of the questionnaire also sought to collect data on the challenges facing student teachers as well. Finally, the section three of the questionnaire sought to collect data on the effect of supervision on the quality of teachers being trained at the Colleges of Education.

Data Analysis Procedure

As earlier on mentioned, measuring an attribute such as the perception of people can be a very difficult exercise. Unlike physical objects where there are specific attributes such as length, depth, width, weight, colour etc. Perception can have many intangible or qualitative characteristics. Additionally, the quality of supervision is equally difficult to measure because it is a service and not a product that has physical properties. The perception of student teachers with regards the quality of supervision they receive can vary considerably based on a range of factors. As a way of trying to measure the quality of supervision, as perceived by student teachers and college tutors, a perceived supervision quality questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was carved from Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml (1985)'s SERVQUAL model. The model was adopted and redeveloped to suit the study and to measure a range of service quality dimensions with regards to supervision of student teachers' practicum. The factors, or supervision function and practices dimensions that were examined include the reliability of the supervision being given, the responsiveness of supervisors, the assurance that comes from supervisors, empathy, and the appearance of physical facilities and equipment, etc.

For each factor of the supervision quality dimensions mentioned above, the model measured both the expectation and perception of both the student teachers and the college tutors on a Likert Scale of 1 to 7. Twenty-two questions in total were asked. As stated earlier, each of the five dimensions were weighted according to the student teacher's importance and to the college tutor's importance and the score for each dimension was multiplied by the weighting. Following this, the gap score for each dimension was calculated by subtracting the expectation score from the perception score. A negative Gap score indicates that the actual supervision, the

Perceived score was less than what was expected the Expectation score. The Gap score is a reliable indication of each of the five dimensions of the quality of supervision. However, an additional statistical test was performed to determine how significantly large or small the perceived supervision score was from the expected supervision score. This was done in order to be able to draw a very reliable conclusion and to be able to sufficiently generalise the results of the study. Other sections of the questionnaire were also analysed using either Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test and descriptive statistics.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the nature of teaching practice that student teachers at Offinso College of Education undertake, with regards to the supervision they receive during the teaching practice section outside campus. Moreover, the following specific areas were outlined for focus and direction:

1. To find out how student teachers perceive the effectiveness of college tutor's supervisory roles in the schools where they practice
2. To find out how college tutors perceive the effectiveness of their supervisory roles in the schools where student teachers practice
3. The challenges student teachers encounter during teaching practice
4. The challenges supervisors face during student teachers' practicum

These were intended to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the supervision process during teaching practice in the colleges of education, which will lead to the identification of possible measures to maintain the good aspect and to correct the weaknesses and to improve supervision in Colleges of Education and finally,

5. To explore how the teaching practice programme of student teachers has affected the quality of student teacher's pedagogical and professional skills.

Types of Supervision

The first part of the questionnaire sought to find out the level of awareness of student teachers about the types of supervision practices available. For a student teacher to project any accurate perspective to share on the kind of supervision being administered to him or her, he or she must have been well informed about the kind

and nature of supervision practices that can be used in a training situation as pertain to colleges of education. Table 4.1 presents the extent to which student teachers are aware of the forms of supervisions that can be administered to them during teaching practicum.

Table 4.1 Knowledge of Students Teachers on Types of Supervision

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Developmental supervision	1	35	35.00	35.00	35.00
Self-Assessment supervision	2	11	11.00	11.00	46.00
Clinical supervision	3	14	14.00	14.00	60.00
Peer supervision	4	25	25.00	25.00	85.00
None	5	15	15.00	15.00	100.00
Total		100	100.0	100.0	

Amazingly, 15% of the student teachers undertaking teaching practice do not have any idea about the forms of supervision practices being used by their supervisors during their teaching practicum. Majority of the student teachers, constituting 35%, were aware of developmental supervision. The next popular form of supervision the students were aware of was peer supervision. The awareness of this form of supervision constitutes 25%. However, the least known form of supervision among the student teachers is the supervision referred to as self-assessment supervision. Only 11% of the sampled student teachers knew about self-assessment supervision.

Table 4.2 presents another interesting scenario where 14% of the student teacher population showed that they were not comfortable with any of the types of supervision presented to them in the questionnaire. This scenario, I believe should not be the case because, there is the need for some form of supervision either by the student teacher himself, his peers or by a superior authority. However, peer supervision seems to be one of the types of supervision that student teachers are

comfortable with. As shown in Table 4.2, 27% preferred peer supervision. Peer supervision refers to the process by which two or more teachers supervise each other for their own professional growth by observing each other's classes and by sharing feedback (Daresh and Playko, 1995). Majority of the student participants, which constitute 28% were more comfortable with clinical supervision than all the others. According to Gordon, Gordon et al. (1998), developmental supervision utilizes collaborative or in some cases directive approaches to improve teacher performance dependent upon individual developmental levels to be peer supervised as compared with developmental supervision.

Table 4.2 The type of supervision student teacher is comfortable with

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Developmental supervision	1	24	24.00	24.00
Self-Assessment supervision	2	7	7.00	7.00
Clinical supervision	3	28	28.00	28.00
Peer supervision	4	27	27.00	27.00
None	5	14	14.00	14.00
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Twenty-four percent (24%) of the student teachers felt comfortable with developmental supervision and only 7% of them were comfortable with self-assessment supervision. Again, 14% of the student teachers were not comfortable with any of the forms of supervision.

The most commonly used type of supervision turned out to be developmental supervision. Forty-one percent (41%) of the student teacher population asserted that developmental supervision was the commonly used supervision by their college of education. Table 4.3 illustrates the response given by the student teachers. Peer supervision was the second most commonly used type of supervision during teaching practicum. Clinical supervision was the third commonly used form of supervision

according to the student teachers. The least commonly used form of supervision was self-assessment supervision. However, 13% to 14% of the student teacher population appeared to have no idea about the forms of supervision that existed and also did not know which ones were being used by their college of education.

Table 4.3 The type of supervision commonly used

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Developmental supervision	1	41	41.00	41.00
Self-Assessment supervision	2	8	8.00	8.00
Clinical supervision	3	13	13.00	13.00
Peer supervision	4	25	25.00	25.00
None	5	13	13.00	13.00
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Quality and Adequacy of Teaching Practicum Supervision Function

As mentioned earlier on, the perception of student teachers with regard to the quality of supervision they receive can vary considerably based on a range of factors. As a way of trying to measure the quality of supervision, as perceived by student teachers and college tutors, a perceived supervision quality questionnaire survey was used. The model was adopted and redeveloped to suit the study and to measure a range of service quality dimensions with regard to supervision of student teachers' practicum. The supervision function and practice dimensions that were examined include:

1. The reliability of the supervision being given
2. The responsiveness of supervisors
3. The assurance that comes from supervisors
4. Empathy, and
5. The appearance of physical facilities, equipment, etc.

For each factor of the supervision quality dimensions mentioned, the model measured both the expectation and perception of the student teachers and the college

tutors on a Likert Scale of 1 to 7, twenty-two (22) questions in total were asked. This was done to establish the adequacy or otherwise of the supervision of the teaching practice that student teachers undertake during the latter part of their training as teachers.

For the purpose of this study, a positive gap score is the minimum score needed to measure true satisfaction for the combined dimensions as well as each sub category of the dimensions. For example, a quality of supervision response gap score of zero or more for a particular dimension would indicate an acceptable level of satisfaction for that dimension. The inverse would also be true for a dimension that has a gap score of less than zero, an indication of unacceptable levels of satisfaction for that dimension.

Tangibility

The Tangibility dimension of the quality of supervision perception tool consisted of four factors. These factors examined the physical facilities at the schools in which the student teachers undertook their teaching practice, the teaching and learning materials available and the professional appearance of their supervisors and staff of the schools. Considering the four factors making up the tangibility dimension of student teacher satisfaction, the expectations of the student teachers exceeded their perceptions. In the area of modern looking facilities, the gap score was -2.03 and in visually appealing school facilities, the gap score of P-E was -1.28. However, the perceptions of the participants exceeded their expectations in the areas of the professional appearance of their supervisors and staff of the schools where they undertook their teaching practicum by 0.01. This, in percentage terms, constitute only 76% level of perceived satisfaction relative to the maximum level of satisfaction in the Likert Scale used. The last factor in the tangibility dimension concerned the

availability of teaching and learning materials. This factor recorded a -2.24 gap score; an indication that the pertaining was not satisfactory.

The negative gap score was an indication that the actual conditions at the various schools where they undertook the teaching practicum, i.e. the perceived score, was less than what was expected. Table 4.4 presents the overall tangibility gap score of -1.385 score. The general perception of the student teachers was that the facilities, teaching and learning materials required to promote quality education were to some extent non-existent.

Table 4.4 Tangibility Gap Scores

Statement	Expectation (E)							Avg Score	Perception (P)							Avg Score	Gap Score
	Frequency of Responses								Frequency of Responses								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		(P-E)
1	11	3	6	6	14	20	40	5.3	26	16	16	11	16	9	6	3.26	-2.03
2	2	5	9	17	12	26	29	5.3	10	17	10	24	16	13	10	3.98	-1.28
3	5	6	3	13	21	17	35	5.3	5	4	8	8	19	25	31	5.31	0.01
4	4	3	0	13	6	19	55	5.4	21	12	16	16	10	15	10	3.67	-2.24
																Average Tangibility Gap Score:	-1.385

The average perception gap score for tangibility was -1.39. This score fell below expectation because it was a negative score which indicated that the student teachers were not satisfied with the overall tangible appearances of physical facilities, professional appearance of staff and supervisors and the availability of teaching and learning materials. A brief interaction with the student teachers indicated that, the student teachers, used their own money to buy majority of the teaching and learning materials required for their teaching practicum.

Reliability

Reliability measures the ability or competence of the supervisors to conduct the supervision function of teaching practicum as required accurately and dependably.

The Reliability dimension comprised five statements, which assessed the perception of student teachers with regards the reliability of the supervision function. The reliability aspects concerns acting according to promises, sincerity in problem solving, perform the supervision function right, and at the promised time as well as insistence on error free records during the teaching practicum. A close look at each of the five factors making up the reliability dimension of the supervision function of the teaching practicum, the expectations of the student teachers generally exceeded their perceptions in all five areas. However, with regards to acting according to promised intervention by the College of Education, the perception of the student teachers exceeded the expectation. The gap score in this case was 0.12.

The rest of the reliability dimension factors recorded negative gap scores. Regarding sincere interest in solving student teachers' problems recorded a gap score of -0.03, which is below expectation. Performing the supervision function right recorded a gap score -0.38. Supervisors coming to perform supervision functions at the promised time had a gap score of -0.05. The last factor, which concerns error free records about students' teaching practicum, also recorded a below expectation gap score of -0.5. This generally is an indication that, the reliability of the supervision function fell below expectation.

Given the average unweighted gap score for the reliability dimension of student teachers' satisfaction at -0.168 and the reliability weight score of 23%, the gap score jumped to -3.864. In both cases, the survey results showed that the perception of all the student teachers fell below expectations. A summary of the survey results for the reliability dimension of the supervision function of students' teaching practicum is presented in table 4.5 below

Table 4.5 Reliability Gap Scores

Statement	Expectation (E)							Avg Score	Perception (P)							Avg Score	Gap Score
	Frequency of Responses								Frequency of Responses								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		(P-E)
5	11	5	15	12	21	13	23	4.65	6	9	7	17	19	25	17	4.77	0.12
6	8	6	7	12	18	26	23	4.96	4	6	12	19	16	16	27	4.93	-0.03
7	2	7	4	6	23	18	40	5.55	4	2	6	14	30	23	21	5.17	-0.38
8	5	4	8	20	13	22	28	5.1	4	2	12	12	24	29	17	5.05	-0.05
9	9	10	13	18	17	13	20	5.04	11	10	5	21	15	17	21	4.54	-0.5
																Average Reliability Gap Score:	-0.168

Responsiveness

Responsiveness measures the willingness of the supervisor to collaboratively provide support to the student teacher and to provide prompt solution to the problems encountered by the student teacher during practicum.

The Responsiveness dimension of the SERVQUAL instrument consist of four factors, which assessed student teachers' perceptions of the responsiveness of their college of education and supervisors with regard to the supervision function of their teaching practicum. The factors that were considered has to do with: informing student teacher about when supervisors will arrive to supervise, providing the supervision function promptly, the willingness supervisors to provide help to student teachers when necessary and supervisors never being too busy to respond to request for any form of service from student teacher.

For each of the four factors making up the responsiveness dimension, the expectations of the student teachers exceeded their perceptions. The factor which involved informing student teachers about when supervisors will be present to conduct the supervision function had a gap score of -0.18. The provision of supervision function as prompt as possible recorded a gap score of -0.47), and willingness to provide help to student teachers when necessary recorded -0.60.

Perceptions exceeded expectation in the areas of never being too busy to respond to requests for service at a gap score of 0.79. Generally, the perception of the student teachers concerning the responsiveness dimension was below their expectation in all respects. A summary of the survey results for the responsiveness dimension of the quality of supervision function is presented in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6 Responsiveness Gap Scores

Statement	Expectation (E)							Avg Score	Perception (P)							Avg Score	Gap Score
	Frequency of Responses								Frequency of Responses								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		(P-E)
10	9	8	4	11	19	11	38	5.08	8	7	7	11	24	18	25	4.9	-0.18
11	3	4	5	15	18	26	29	5.3	6	6	9	20	16	23	20	4.83	-0.47
12	4	6	5	13	18	24	30	5.27	6	6	15	17	17	22	17	4.67	-0.6
13	6	4	9	12	17	28	24	5.1	11	7	17	16	17	18	14	4.31	-0.79
																Average Responsiveness Gap Score:	-0.51

Assurance

Table 4.7 presents a summary of the results of the assurance dimension. The assurance dimension examined the knowledge and courteousness of supervisors and their ability to convey trust and confidence.

A look at each of the four factors making up the assurance dimension of student teachers' satisfaction, showed that the expectations of the fall below their perceptions in all of the four factors considered. Concerning whether the conduct of supervisors was excellent and instil confidence in student teachers, the difference between the perception and expectation of student teachers recorded -0.47. The question as to whether the student teachers felt safe in their dealings with supervisors and their College of Education also recorded a minus 0.33 (-0.33), a level of satisfaction that fell below expectation. The factor of courteousness on the part of supervisors scored -0.48. Amazingly, the student teachers' expectation about the technical know-how of their supervisors to answer their questions adequately fell

below expectation. The knowledge of supervisors to answer student teachers' questions adequately had a gap score of -0.32. Generally, the expectation exceeds perception in this dimension with an average gap score of -0.40.

Table 4.7 Assurance Gap Scores

Statement	Expectation (E)							Avg Score	Perception (P)							Avg Score	Gap Score
	Frequency of Responses								Frequency of Responses								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		(P-E)
14	3	3	2	7	26	20	39	5.66	4	5	11	9	17	27	27	5.19	-0.47
15	3	6	2	11	22	24	32	5.43	8	4	5	9	24	27	23	5.1	-0.33
16	3	1	6	12	23	30	25	5.41	6	5	10	14	16	32	17	4.93	-0.48
17	3	2	5	11	19	24	36	5.57	7	3	7	15	11	23	34	5.25	-0.32
																Average Assurance Gap Score:	-0.4

Empathy

The fifth and last dimension of the quality of the supervision function of the teaching practicum is empathy. It measured how caring and individualized attention the supervisors give to the student teacher. The results of the survey of this dimension are presented in table 4.8. The Empathy dimension of the SERVQUAL instrument is consist of five factors which assessed the quality of the supervision function of the teaching practice of student teachers with respect to: the individual attention given to student teachers by supervisors, the provision of personal service to student teachers, having student teachers' best interest at heart, the understanding of the student teachers' specific needs etc.

The five factors making up the empathy dimension recorded figures which showed that the expectations of the student teachers fall below what actually occurred on the ground. The survey results presented in Table 4.8 indicated that the ability of supervisors to provide individual attention recorded a gap score of -0.52. Regarding to time that supervisors visit the practice schools for supervision, student teacher had demonstrated dissatisfaction with regards convenience, with a gap score of -0.75. It

also turned out, according to the survey results, that, student teacher perceived their supervisors as not having their best interest at heart. The below expectation gap score of -0.6 was a prove of that perception. The understanding of student teachers' specific needs by supervisors had a gap score of -1.04, one of the highest scores of dissatisfaction in the study apart from the forth factor of tangibility which scored -2.24. The average unweighted gap score for the empathy dimension of the supervision function of the teaching practicum was -0.634, an indication of the overall perception of dissatisfaction among the student teachers.

Table 4.8 Empathy Gap Scores

Statement	Expectation (E)							Avg Score	Perception (P)							Avg Score	Gap Score
	Frequency of Responses								Frequency of Responses								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		(P-E)
18	4	3	7	13	19	16	38	5.4	7	5	11	16	18	17	26	4.88	-0.52
19	4	4	8	14	24	21	25	5.13	6	12	14	19	16	21	12	4.38	-0.75
20	2	5	4	25	20	21	23	5.11	6	3	9	24	19	18	21	4.85	-0.26
21	6	4	7	12	15	23	33	5.27	5	7	11	25	14	21	17	4.67	-0.6
22	2	4	8	11	17	25	33	5.44	10	10	9	20	17	20	14	4.4	-1.04
																Average Empathy Gap Score:	-0.634

Table 4.9 presents the unweighted supervision quality score. This score was derived from the average gap scores for each supervision quality dimension. The average gap score for the tangibility dimension, based on student teachers' perception was negative. The reliability score, responsiveness, assurance and empathy scores, were all negative. The unweighted average score for the quality of the supervision function of the teaching practicum of teacher trainees recorded a -0.6194. Generally, the perception of the student teachers fell below what they expected

Table4.9 Average Unweighted Supervision Quality Score

Service Dimension	Statement	Expectation (E) Score	Perception (P) Score	Gap Score	Avg Gap Score
Tangibility	1	5.29	3.26	-2.03	-1.39
	2	5.26	3.98	-1.28	
	3	5.3	5.31	0.01	
	4	5.91	3.67	-2.24	
Reliability	5	4.65	4.77	0.12	-0.17
	6	4.96	4.93	-0.03	
	7	5.55	5.17	-0.38	
	8	5.1	5.05	-0.05	
	9	5.04	4.54	-0.5	
Responsiveness	10	5.08	4.9	-0.18	-0.51
	11	5.3	4.83	-0.47	
	12	5.27	4.67	-0.6	
	13	5.1	4.31	-0.79	
Assurance	14	5.66	5.19	-0.47	-0.40
	15	5.43	5.1	-0.33	
	16	5.41	4.93	-0.48	
	17	5.57	5.25	-0.32	
Empathy	18	5.4	4.88	-0.52	-0.63
	19	5.13	4.38	-0.75	
	20	5.11	4.85	-0.26	
	21	5.27	4.67	-0.6	
	22	5.44	4.4	-1.04	
			Unweighted Average Gap Score:		-0.6194

The student teachers were also asked to allot percentage points between all the supervision quality dimensions based upon their perceived level of importance. The sum of the all the points allotted was to equal 100. The respondents were asked to assign the most points to the most important dimension and fewer points to the least important dimensions of their choice. This weighted percentage points revealed the ranking of the supervision quality dimensions and the extent to which the student teachers value the quality the entire supervision of the teaching practicum process. Table 4.10 presented the importance weights for the various dimensions of supervision quality measured. In general, student teachers place much importance on the reliability of the process than the four other dimensions. That is, the ability of supervisors and the college of education to perform their duties as required of them dependably and accurately to student teachers. Reliability was allotted 23 percentage

points, followed by tangibility at 21 percentage point. The willingness of supervisors and the College of Education to help the student teacher and provide prompt assistance, which represents responsiveness, and the ability of the supervisors to demonstrate know-how, courtesy and convey trust and confidence, which represents assurance, were allotted 19 percentage points each. The list was empathy, the care and individual attention the student teachers received from their supervisors and the college of education. The empathy dimension was allotted an 18 percentage point. The percentage points allotted among the various dimension appeared evenly distributed with very little gaps in between them. However, it appeared that student teachers are not really concerned about the empathy from their supervisors and college of education.

Figure 4.1 below shows the importance placed on the various dimensions of quality supervision by student teachers. Student teachers place much importance on the reliability of the supervision they receive than all the other dimensions of quality supervision. The reliability of supervision was rated at 23%, the highest among the five dimensions. Tangibility was the second most important to the student teachers. It was rated at 21%, followed by responsiveness and assurance respectively. These two scored 19% each. However, empathy was the less important to the student teachers.

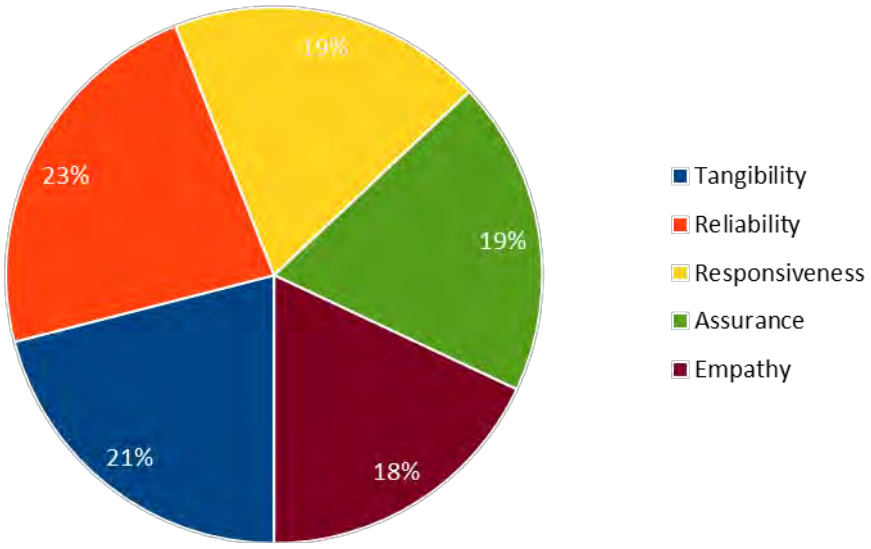


Figure 4.1 Importance Weight of SERVQUAL Dimensions Expressed as Percentage by Student Teachers

The overall weighted score of how student perceived the supervision function of the teaching practicum was a -12.3302. Because the entire dimension recorded a negative gap score, the average weighted score also was negative. Table 4.10, shows the summary of the average weighted average scores of the various dimensions, the importance weights, which was extracted from Figure 4.1 and the overall average weighted score.

Table 4.10 Average Weighted Score

Dimension	Dimension Gap Score	Importance Weights	Weighted Score
Tangibility	-1.385	21	-29.09
Reliability	-0.168	23	-3.864
Responsiveness	-0.51	19	-9.690
Assurance	-0.4	19	-7.600
Empathy	-0.634	18	-11.412
		Average Weighted Score:	-12.3302

The expectation and perception of college tutors were equally measured to understand the extent to which both the student teachers and the college tutors differ or agree on the various dimensions of the supervision function of the teaching practicum of student teachers.

College Tutors/Supervisors' Perception and Expectation

The perceptions and expectations of college tutors, who double as supervisors were also measured for the purpose of comparison. Perhaps their views may conflict or agree with the student teachers. Table 4.11 presents the summary of perception and expectation of the college tutors in all the five dimensions of the quality of the supervision function of the teaching practice that student teachers undertook at the end of their training programme at the colleges of education. A good perception of the supervision process requires that the expectation of the college tutors exceed their perception in all or in majority of the dimensions being measured.

Table 4.11 College Tutors/Supervisors' Perception and Expectation

Service Dimension	Expectation (E) Score	Perception (P) Score	Gap Score (P-E)
Tangibility	5.15	3.87	-1.28
Reliability	4.71	4.61	-0.10
Responsiveness	4.94	4.39	-0.55
Assurance	5.43	4.98	-0.46
Empathy	4.73	4.25	-0.48
		Unweighted Average Score:	-0.57

The expectation of the college tutors has exceeded their perception with regards the tangibility dimension of the supervision function of the teaching practice programme. That is, the general ambiance and the professional appearance of staff of the schools where teaching practice take place, and the availability of teaching and learning materials, recorded a gap score of -1.28. A positive gap score is what is needed to show satisfaction.

Surprisingly, the college tutors scored their own ability and the ability of the college of education to supervise and to perform the duties required of them to student teachers dependably and accurately, poorly. The reliability of the supervision function scored -0.10 by the college tutors. Equally, the responsiveness of college tutors scored

a negative gap score of -0.55, which means that, the college tutors themselves felt that their willingness, including that of the college of education to help student teachers and to supervise as promptly as possible was below expectation. The supervisors' (college tutors') own ability to convey trust and confidence, which is referred to as assurance in the quality dimension recorded negative gap score of -0.46. Finally, the supervisors scored themselves below expectation with respect to their ability to give individual attention to the student teachers they supervise. The empathy dimension which measures this ability recorded a gap score of -0.48, the second highest among the college tutors' perceived score.

Differences in Perception of Tutors/Student Teachers

A comparison between the perception scores of student teachers and that of the college tutors became necessary in order to establish the depth of the perceived inadequacy of the supervision function of the teaching practice programme of the colleges of education. Table 12 presents the difference in perception between student teachers and college tutors.

Table 4.12 Perception of Tutors and Student Teachers

		STUDENT TEACHERS				COLLEGE SUPERVISORS			
Service Dimension	Statement	(E) Score	(P) Score	Gap Score (P-E)	Avg Gap Score	(E) Score	(P) Score	Gap Score (P-E)	Avg Gap Score
Tangibility	1	5.29	3.26	-2.03	-1.39	5.50	3.57	-1.93	-1.28
	2	5.26	3.98	-1.28		5.37	3.63	-1.73	
	3	5.3	5.31	0.01		4.70	4.60	-0.10	
	4	5.91	3.67	-2.24		5.03	3.67	-1.37	
Reliability	5	4.65	4.77	0.12	-0.17	4.97	4.10	-0.87	-0.25
	6	4.96	4.93	-0.03		4.93	4.70	-0.23	
	7	5.55	5.17	-0.38		5.00	4.63	-0.37	
	8	5.1	5.05	-0.05		4.70	4.63	-0.07	
	9	5.04	4.54	-0.5		4.20	4.47	0.27	
Responsiveness	10	5.08	4.9	-0.18	-0.51	4.53	4.20	-0.33	-0.55
	11	5.3	4.83	-0.47		4.83	4.23	-0.60	
	12	5.27	4.67	-0.6		4.97	4.57	-0.40	
	13	5.1	4.31	-0.79		5.43	4.57	-0.87	
Assurance	14	5.66	5.19	-0.47	-0.4	5.10	5.00	-0.10	-0.46
	15	5.43	5.1	-0.33		5.53	5.33	-0.20	
	16	5.41	4.93	-0.48		5.00	4.80	-0.20	
	17	5.57	5.25	-0.32		6.10	4.77	-1.33	
Empathy	18	5.4	4.88	-0.52	-0.63	4.63	4.23	-0.40	-0.48
	19	5.13	4.38	-0.75		4.37	4.13	-0.23	
	20	5.11	4.85	-0.26		4.43	4.17	-0.27	
	21	5.27	4.67	-0.6		5.00	4.37	-0.63	
	22	5.44	4.4	-1.04		5.10	4.33	-0.77	
Unweighted Average Score					-0.62				-0.60

The perceived perception score for tangibility dimension of the supervision function recorded a -1.39 gap score, with respect to student teachers and the college tutors scored -1.28. Though the two scores showed a below expectation performance, the college tutors' perception score sought to be more favourable than that of the student teachers. The perception gap score of -0.17 for the reliability dimension was rather the opposite of the tangibility dimension. Given that college tutors' perception gap score for reliability was -0.25, showed that, the college tutors do not perceive their own ability to reliably perform the supervision function of the teaching practice programme more than their students thought. This is because, a -0.25 is less satisfactory than -0.17. The same argument applied to the responsiveness dimension. College tutors were less satisfied than their trainee teachers with a gap score of -0.55 and -0.51 respectively.

The college tutors again perceived their own ability to give individual attention to the student teachers as less satisfactory than what student teachers perceived. With regards this dimension (assurance), the perceived gap score for college tutors was -0.46 and that of student teachers was -0.4. The last dimension, empathy, saw the student teachers recorded a perceived gap score of -0.63 with a college tutor score of -0.48. However, the average unweighted score has rather indicated that student teacher's perception was way below their expectation and overall, college tutors perceived the conditions surrounding the discharge of the supervision function of colleges of education's teaching practice programme.

Comparison of Importance Percentage Points

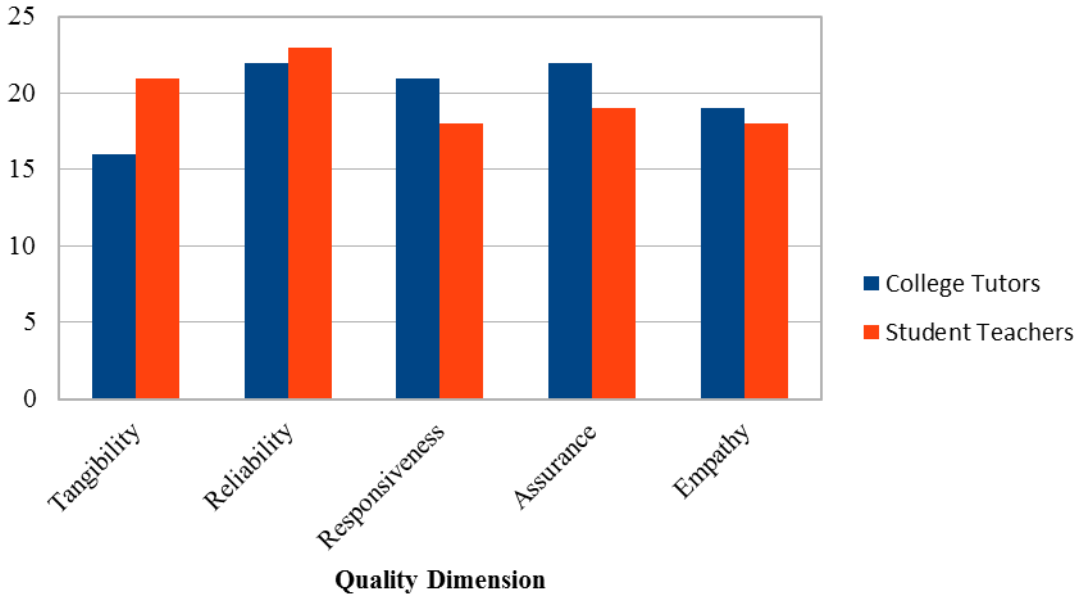
Considering the importance student teachers and college tutors place on the various quality dimensions, student teachers thought that the ambiance or the physical facilities, including teaching and learning material are more important than the college tutors thought. College tutors awarded a 43% points lower as compare to 57% points awarded to the tangibility dimension by student teachers. The ambiance and teaching and learning materials are the less important to the college tutors (supervisor). They awarded 16 percentage points to the tangibility dimension, which constitute 43% in comparison to that of the student teachers' 21 percentage points. Figure 4.2 presented the importance percentage points allocated to each quality dimension by college tutors.

The college tutors believed that: reliability, responsiveness and assurance are the most important elements in the discharge of their duties as supervisors of the teaching practice of teacher trainees. The student teachers also perceived tangibility and reliability as the most important of all the quality dimension of the supervision function of the teaching practice process. Whereas student teachers had awarded 23

percentage points to reliability, college tutors thought that the reliability dimension deserved only 22 percent points. However, college tutors scored responsiveness, assurance and empathy as more important than the student teachers did. Figure 4.3 presented the comparison of how important each of the quality dimensions are, between the student teachers and college tutors. As stated earlier, student teachers held the view that the tangibility and reliability dimensions are the most important when it come to the discharge of the supervision function of the teaching practice programme so they rated

Figure 4.2 Importance of Supervision Quality Dimension Expressed as Percentage by College Tutors

these two dimensions more than their tutors did. The tangibility dimension was rated 57% by student teachers as compared to 43% by college tutors. The reliability dimension was rated 51% and 49% respectively. However, college tutors had rated responsiveness, assurance and empathy dimensions higher than the student teachers. The responsiveness dimension was rated 54% by college tutors and 46% by student teachers. Additionally, the assurance dimension was also rated higher by college tutors at 54% and student teachers at 46%. The actual ratings or importance percentage points can be found in Figures 4.1 and 4.2 respectively.



Figur0.3 Graphical Comparison Between Important Percentage Points

The overall weighted scores showed clearly the difference in perception between student teachers and college tutors. The overall student teacher weighted score was -12.3302, whereas that of college tutors was -10.694. Though both of the weighted scores were negative, that of the student teachers was higher than that of the college tutors; an indication that, the extent to which the perceptions of the student teachers fell below what they expected was higher than that of their college tutors. Table 4.10 and 4.13 respectively presented the average weighted scores of the teacher trainees and supervisors

Table 4.13 College Tutors' Weighted Score

Dimension	Dimension Gap Score	Importance Weights	Weighted Score
Tangibility	-1.28	16	-20.48
Reliability	-0.10	22	-2.20
Responsiveness	-0.55	21	-11.55
Assurance	-0.46	22	-10.12
Empathy	-0.48	19	-9.12
Average Weighted Score:			-10.694

Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice

The third and fourth objective of the study were to explore the challenges both student teachers and their supervisors face during the period of teaching practice. A number of areas where challenges may exist were envisaged. These areas include: professional support, technical know-how, the application of knowledge, success to teaching practice centres, task clarity, teaching aid, and so on.

Teacher trainees require a lot professional support in order to adequately and properly acquire and improve the methods and skills that are necessary for teacher performance. The forms of professional support that could be given student teachers during practicum will require that the supervisors and the college of education are reliable, with regards their ability to identify the professional need of the student teachers, help them to meet those needs and to perform their duties as required of them to the student teachers dependably and accurately. The overall purpose of providing student teachers professional support is to help the student teachers to be able to make precise and informed professional decisions (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002).

The challenge of not receiving or providing adequate professional support was explored in order to determine whether this very important function of teacher training is being given the needed attention. As much as 51% of student teachers and 67% of college tutors, constituting the majority of respondents disagreed with the view that student teachers do not receive adequate professional support from supervisor during practicum. That notwithstanding, 31% of the student teacher respondents agreed that they do not receive adequate professional support. Only 10% of college tutors agreed that they do not provide adequate professional support to student teachers. A section of the respondents, which include 18% of student teachers

and 23% of college tutors could not really state clearly whether professional support is a challenge student teachers face during their teaching practice. Table 4.14 presents a summary of the results on professional support to student teachers, mastery of subject area, application of knowledge and access to practice schools.

Table 4.14 Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (a)

Value Label	Student Teachers		College Tutors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Professional Support				
Strongly Disagree	29	29.00	6	20.00
Disagree	22	22.00	14	47.00
Not Sure	18	18.00	7	23.00
Agree	15	15.00	3	10.00
Strongly Agree	16	16.00	0	0.00
Mastery Over Subject Area				
Strongly Disagree	5	5.00	3	10.00
Disagree	9	9.00	17	57.00
Not Sure	11	11.00	2	6.00
Agree	36	36.00	8	27.00
Strongly Agree	39	39.00	0	0.00
Application of Knowledge				
Strongly Disagree	3	3.00	5	17.00
Disagree	12	12.00	9	30.00
Not Sure	7	7.00	13	43.00
Agree	45	45.00	3	10.00
Strongly Agree	33	33.00	0	0.00
Access to Practice School				
Strongly Disagree	15	15.00	3	10.00
Disagree	13	13.00	7	23.33
Not Sure	21	21.00	3	10.00
Agree	20	20.00	13	43.33
Strongly Agree	31	31.00	4	13.33

One of the professional needs of the teacher is his or her ability to master the subject area he or she is to teach. This can become a matter of serious challenge if special attention is not given to it. That is to say, pedagogical skills alone is not enough. The survey was conducted to determine whether this is an issue to be confronted. Majority of college tutors, 67%, disagreed that mastery of subject area is a challenge. However, the position of the student teachers completely contradicted that

of their supervisors. As much as 75% of the teacher trainees thought that they were challenged when it comes to the subject matter. They lacked adequate mastery over the subjects they teach. This is an indication that, student teachers do not feel confident in teaching all the subjects assigned to them to teach during teaching practice due to lack of mastery over the subject areas.

The issue of student teachers being able to put what they have been taught at college to practice can only be determined through assessment or the supervision of their teaching practice activities. Forty-seven percent (47%) of college tutors thought that student teachers were able to apply the knowledge they acquired at college. Student teachers on the other hand were unable to express the same level of confidence their supervisors expressed in them. Only 15% of them disagreed that they were unable to apply the knowledge they had acquired in college prior to their teaching practice. Seven percent (7%) of them were unsure whether they were up to the task of applying the knowledge they had acquired at college. Majority of them, constituting 78% were of the view that they were not able to apply fully what they were taught in college.

Another factor which was thought of as one of the main challenges both college tutors and student teachers face was access to the practice schools. According to both the student teachers and college tutors, access to their practice schools was a challenge. Fifty-one percent (51%) of student teachers and 56% of college tutors had agreed that access was an issue. However, 28% and 33% respectively, of the two groups of respondents, did not see any challenge at all. And 21% and 10% respectively had not given thought to any such a thing as challenges in reaching their practice schools. Table 4.15 presented the results of another set of perceived challenges that student teachers face. These include: the teaching practice task clarity,

the availability of teaching aids and materials, the work load on the student teacher and the length or duration of the practicum. The role of the college tutors or as supervisors in this part of the study was to evaluate their opinion and to weigh it against that of the student teacher. The clarity of the core duties and tasks required of student teachers during their teaching practice will go a long way to improve their professional standards. So the factor of task clarity was explored in order to determine whether it's a challenge that needs to be addressed. The opinion of the college tutors, who doubled as supervisors was that, the core duties and task required of all student teachers were clear. Fifty percent (50%) of college tutors, as against 27% were of the view that the tasks required to complete the teaching practice successfully were not made quite clear to the student teachers. That is to say, only 27% of the college tutors agreed that there was task clarity. That notwithstanding, 23% of the college tutors were not sure about the fact that the duties and tasks required for the successful completion of student practicum were made quite clear. Additionally, 26% of the student teachers were equally not sure as to whether the tasks required to complete a teaching practice successfully were explicit enough. Whereas 50% of the college tutors believed that the requirements for a successful completion of teaching practice were not explicit enough, 40% of the student teachers thought otherwise. Only 34% of the student teachers agreed with the college tutors on the account that the task required for the completion of the teaching practice were not explicit.

Another form of challenge which was investigated was teaching material and aids. As much as 61% of student teachers agreed that the availability of teaching aids and materials was a challenge, 22% disagreed and 17% was not sure whether teaching aids were posed any form of challenge. As much as 70% of college tutors thought it

was a challenge and 20% of them disagreed about the fact that teaching materials and aids were a challenge.

Table 4.15 Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (b)

Value Label	Student Teachers		College Tutors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Task Clarity				
Strongly Disagree	15	15.00	5	17.00
Disagree	25	25.00	3	10.00
Not Sure	26	26.00	7	23.00
Agree	22	22.00	11	37.00
Strongly Agree	12	12.00	4	13.00
Teaching Aids				
Strongly Disagree	14	14.00	2	7.00
Disagree	8	8.00	4	13.00
Not Sure	17	17.00	3	10.00
Agree	28	28.00	12	40.00
Strongly Agree	33	33.00	9	30.00
Work Load				
Strongly Disagree	16	16.00	2	7.00
Disagree	20	20.00	5	17.00
Not Sure	7	7.00	7	23.00
Agree	27	27.00	14	47.00
Strongly Agree	30	30.00	2	7.00

The challenge of work load was thought of with regard to the size of class and the number of classes the student teachers have to teach vis-à-vis the number of exercises they have to give and the number of scripts that have to be marked. As much as 57% of student teachers believed that the work load during teaching practice was too much and 37% of them disagreed. However, 7% percent of them were not sure whether the quantum of work they did was to be classified as too much or too less. On the other hand, 54% of the college tutors believed that the number of students the student teachers had to handle during teaching practice was to large. However, 24% of them thought otherwise. The general view, however, was that, the work load on the student teachers was too much.

The results of challenges such as the duration of the teaching practice programme, the adequacy of supervision and the role of the college administration are presented in table 4.16 below.

The duration of the teaching practice was explored to determine whether it was perceived as a challenge. Student teachers disagreed about the fact that it is a challenge whereas their supervisors agreed that the duration of the teaching practice was a challenge. That is to say, the length of time is too long. The results of the survey showed that 62% of student teachers disagreed and 53% of college tutors agreed that the duration of teaching practice as it is now in is too long. To this point, we can safely draw a conclusion that the duration of the teaching practice programme does not pose any challenge to the student teachers at all. This is because they, the student teachers, are the main subject under consideration in this study and not their supervisors.

The issue of adequacy was thoroughly addressed with regards the perception of student teacher and their perception. The results indicated that the expectation of the student teachers as well as supervisors fall below expectation. But as to whether that perception constitute a challenge was not established. So a different instrument was used to measure the extent to which the inadequacy of supervision constituted a challenge facing student teachers during teaching practice. Though the results under perception survey recorded a below expectation for the adequacy of supervision, it does not constitute a challenge to both student teachers and college tutors. As much as 62% of student teachers disagreed that inadequacy of supervision was not a challenge they face during teaching practice. However, 26% of them thought it was a challenge.

Additionally, 66% of the college tutors/supervisors also disagreed that there was inadequacy of supervision and only 17% thought otherwise.

Table 16 Challenges Encountered During Teaching Practice (c)

Value Label	Student Teachers		College Tutors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Length of Teaching Practice Period				
Strongly Disagree	47	47.00	4	13.00
Disagree	15	15.00	3	10.00
Not Sure	12	12.00	7	23.00
Agree	10	10.00	12	40.00
Strongly Agree	16	16.00	4	13.00
Adequacy of supervision				
Strongly Disagree	41	41.00	7	23.00
Disagree	21	21.00	13	43.00
Not Sure	11	11.00	5	17.00
Agree	16	16.00	5	17.00
Strongly Agree	11	11.00	0	0.00
The role of college administration				
Strongly Disagree	29	29.00	2	7.00
Disagree	20	20.00	11	37.00
Not Sure	12	12.00	2	6.00
Agree	25	25.00	14	47.00
Strongly Agree	14	14.00	1	3.00

To determine whether the college administration pose any form of challenge both the student teachers and the college tutors who doubled as supervisors, the respondents were asked whether the college administration was able to perform its duty or played its role as required. The general view among the student teachers was that, they had no challenge with respect to the roles the college administration has to play to ensure that they go through the teaching practice programme successfully. Forty-nine percent (49%) of the student teacher respondents disagreed that the administrative roles of the college posed any challenges to the successful execution to the teaching practice duties as teacher trainees. However, 50% of the college tutors were of the view that the college administration has not played it role satisfactorily as against 40% of other college tutor respondents who disagreed

The effect of Teaching Practice on the professional development of Student Teachers

The effect of teaching practice on the professionalism of the student teacher during and after training was studied. The effect, whether positive or negative, on the professionalism of the student teachers was measured through a couple of survey question using a questionnaire. The variables measured include: how important teaching practice was to the student teacher, how significant teaching practice has improved the student teacher's ability to teach, the extent to which teaching practice has improved the pedagogical skills of the student teacher and so on.

To begin with, 97% of college tutors agreed that the teaching practice programme was important. In the same vain, 82% of the student teachers had also agreed that it was important for them to undertake the teaching practice programme. Cumulatively, 85% of the participants agreed that the teaching practice programme is a very important component of the professional training of the student teacher.

Table 0.17 The Importance of the Teaching Practice Programme

		Not Important	Important	Total
College Tutors	Frequency	1	29	30
	Percentage	3%	97%	100%
Student Teachers	Frequency	18	82	100
	Percentage	18%	82%	100%
Total	Frequency	19	111	130
	Percentage	15%	85%	100%

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with the summary of the research findings, conclusions and recommendations. In addition the chapter offers suggestions for further research.

An Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the perception of student teachers and their college tutors, who dabbled as supervisors, with regard to the quality of supervision the student teachers received during their teaching practice programme. It further explored the challenges both the teacher trainees and their college tutors face in the course of their teaching practice and finally, the effect of the entire teaching practice programme was also measured. To achieve the purpose of the study, a descriptive survey design was used, together with a perceived quality of supervision model, which was adapted to measure the quality of supervision being rendered to student teachers during practicum. The supervision quality model was adapted from a conceptual model of service quality (SERVQUAL). This was used to collect data to measure the perception of student teachers as compare to supervisors by examining five quality service dimensions: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangible. The analysis of results for the challenges both teacher trainees and college tutors are facing was presented using frequency distribution table to show the extent (in terms of percentages) of the perceived challenges.

Summary of major Findings

The major findings are;

Research Question one: How student teachers perceive supervision of teaching practice. The analysis of the results indicated that the overall perception of the quality

of supervision function of the teaching practice programme fell below expectation in all the five quality dimensions measured.

Research Question two: How college tutors perceive supervision of teaching practice: The analysis of the results attested to the fact that the quality of supervision function of teaching practice for college tutors also recorded -10 .694 which is a negative gap score which is an indication of dissatisfaction.

Research Question three and four: The challenges supervisors and student teachers face during student teachers practicum. College tutors and student teachers where sought on a number of factors in order to determine whether these factors had in any way presented a challenge. These factors include: professional support, mastery over subject matter, the application of knowledge, access to practice schools, task clarity, teaching aids and materials, work load, the length of teaching practice programme etc Generally,47% as against 38% of the respondents agreed that these factors pose a major challenge. Whereas 15% of the respondents were not sure whether there was any form of challenge at all.

Research Question five: How the supervision of student teachers affect their pedagogical skills and professional development of student teachers. The final part of the study sought out how the supervision of student teachers affects their pedagogical skills and professional development. The results of the study indicated that the teaching practice programme positively affects the professional development of student teachers.

Conclusions

A number of revelations that came out of the study would add up to knowledge on the subject of supervision of student teachers by college tutors. Student teachers require professional support in order to adequately and properly acquire and improve the methods and skills that are necessary for teacher performance. The form of professional support that could be given student teachers will require that supervisors and the college of education are reliable, with regards their ability to identify the professional needs of the student teachers, help them to meet those needs and perform their duties as require of them.

Although pronouncements have been made on the effectiveness of supervision of student teachers posted to basic schools for their teaching practice, it is extremely an unhappy note that student teachers of Offinso college of education consider supervision ineffective. It presupposes that college authorities are not doing effective work. This is not a relief since the aim of supervision in ensuring quality teaching and learning in schools cannot be achieved if there is poor supervision. Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP) could not be achieved if headteachers and circuit supervisors were not performing their roles as expected them.

The observation that the college tutors role as supervisors fell below expectation indicated there were not regular inspection of student teachers to check whether their basic duties such as preparation of lesson notes in time, participation in other co-curricular activities etc were not fully realized. We can therefore say that student teachers never prepared very well as expected of them before going to teach since effective preparation ensures effective teaching.

The observation that the availability of teaching aids was a challenge indicated that the teaching practice exercise that student teachers undertook cannot be fully

considered as a healthy one and would not help them in their future endeavours as teachers. Such a situation will not bring about a conducive working atmosphere. The quality of supervision presently does not meet expectation. That is to say, the supervision function of the teaching practice programme in the colleges of education is not reliable and responsive. College tutors, by themselves, believed that they are unable to reliably provide the kind of supervision required to the student teachers or teacher trainees.

Recommendations

The findings from the study and the conclusions provide basis for a number of recommendations for consideration.

1. It has been observed that both student teachers and college tutors had agreed that the supervision function of the teaching practice programme is negatively challenged. Therefore there is the need for some form of reform both for practice and policy wise

i) To achieve the right results, there is the need for much more collaboration between heads of practice schools and colleges of education.

ii) The college supervisor or tutor must work hand in hand with head teachers of the schools in which student teache**rs** are posted to identify areas of professional growth and opportunities and thereby assist them to roll out programmes, or provide in-service training as a form of support to the practicing teachers.

2. It has been found out that supervision is continuous process, base upon this; it is recommended that the college of education should ensure that there is regular

internal and external supervision of student teachers. . The head therefore requires ability and confidence to objectively appraise the performance of student teachers under him. He is expected to identify the teachers' problems and arrange to help them to solve these problems.

3 Considering the fact that there is the need for a continuous supervision and assessment of the student teachers, the few number of visits by the college tutors to supervise may not be adequate. So, the full involvement of heads of institutions where the student teachers practice may prove to be laudable. Thus the role of heads of institutions and the participating schools must be adequately identified so that they can be properly incorporated into the teacher training programme.

4 Additionally, the supervision of student teachers during teaching practice must be clinical and developmental in nature. The student teachers should be re-looked at as the major objects of attention in the training programme. In so doing, the training programme will be a trainee centred programme rather than just a mere requirement to become a professional teacher

Suggestions for Further Research

As the study progressed, the researcher realised that certain vital areas that the study could have embarked on could not be done due to time. Further research could be carried out on a large scale in the various colleges of education in the region to find out what accounted for the inability of college tutors to reliably supervise the student teachers in order that a solution can be found.

Student researchers could also carry out studies into the relationship between the length of time of the teaching practice programme and the ability of the student teacher to develop professionally.

REFERENCES

Acheampong, K. (2003). Teacher training in Ghana – Does it count? *Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project*, *12*, 23-34.

Adams, H. P., & Dickey, F. G. (1953). *Basic principles of supervision*. New York: American Book Company.

Al Ajez, F., & Hillis, D. (2011). The reality of practicum program at the Faculty of Education at the Islamic University in Gaza, and its ways to improve it. *The Journal of the Islamic University, 19*(2), 1-46.

Al Bengle, A., & Murad, S. (2003). The development of practicum program in the preparation plan of teacher in the faculty of education. *The Journal of Educational Research Center*, *23*, 29-65.

Al Shehri, M. (2003). *The development of teacher preparation program in the College of Education, Taiz, in the light of the needs of comtemporary life. Scientific Conference life*. Science Conference of the fifth Century, Egypt.

Arhin, K. A. (2001). *Supervision of instruction in junior secondary schools in the Techiman District of Ghana*. Cape Coast: University of Cape Coast.

Asiedu-Akrofi, K. (1978). *School organisation in modern African*. Tema: Ghana Publishing Corporation.

Ayodele, J. B., & Oyewole, B. K. (2012). Towards ensuring qualitative supervision of teaching practice in Nigerian universities for sustainable development. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*, *5*(9), 87-94.

Balbrige, J. V. (1971). *Theory and research in educational administration*. New York: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

Ball, D. L., & Forzani, F. M. (2009). The work of teaching and the challenge for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *60*(5), 497-511.

Baneseh, M. A. (2004, October 11). Supervision poor in public schools. *Daily Graphic*, pp. 1–3. Accra.

Berry, B., Montgomery, D., & Snyder, J. (2008). *Urban teacher residency models and institutes of higher education: Implications for teacher preparation.* London: Center for Teaching Quality Routldge.

Bishop, G. (1986). *Innovation in education*. London: Macmillan.

Boardman, W. C., Douglas, H. R., & Bent, R. K. (1953). *Democratic supervision in secondary schools*. Cambridge: The Riverside Press.

Borich, G. D. (1977). *The appraisal to teaching*. Reading Mass: Addison.

Boston, D. L. (1973). *Selection and evaluation of teachers*. Berkely: McCutchan.

Boudreau, P. (1999). The Supervision of a Student Teacher as Defined by Cooperating Teachers. *Canadian Journal of Education / Revue Canadienne de L'éducation*, *24*(4), 454.

Brink, P., Bäck-Pettersson, S., & Sernert, N. (2012). Group supervision as a means of developing professional competence within pre-hospital care. *International Emergency Nursing*, *20*(2), 76-82.

Broadbent, C. (1998). Preservice students' perceptions and level of satisfaction with their field experiences. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *26*(1), 27–37.

Brown, R. N., & Brown, D. P. (1990). *Effective teaching practice*. Lechhampton, Cheltenham: Thornes Publishers Ltd.

Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a theory of instruction*. London: Harvard University Press.

Burton, W. H., & Brueckner, L. J. (1955). *Supervision: A process*. New York: Appleton- Century Inc.

Carey, S. M. (1953). *Action research to improve school practices*. New York: Bureau

Publication Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Carretta, T. R., & Ree, M. J. (1997). Expanding the nexus of cognitive and psychomotor abilities. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *5*(3), 149-158.

Certo, S. C. (2000). *Supervision concepts and skill building* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill Companies.

Chen, J., & Mu, Z. (2010). The cross-national comparison of pre-service mathematics teacher education and curriculum structure. *Journal of Mathematics Education, 3*(1), 119-136.

Cheong, D. (2010). The effects of practice teaching sessions in second life on the change in pre-service teachers' teaching efficacy. *Computers and Education*, *55*(2), 868–880.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (2009). *Inquiry as stance: Practitioner research for the next generation*. London: Teachers College Press.

Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1983). *A guide to teaching practice*. London: Routldge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). Research methods in education. *British Journal of Education Studies, 48*(4), 446-446.

Conway, C. (2002). Perceptions of beginning teachers, their mentors, and administors regarding preservice music teacher preparation. *Journals of Research in Music Education, 50*(1), 20-37.

Cooper, J. (2013). *Classroom teaching skills* (4th ed.). London: Cengage Learning.

Cooper, S. (2013). *Transformative Evaluation: Combining learning and accountability through participatory practice:* Paper Delivered at the UK evaluation society Annual Conference: University of London: April 2013.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1999). *Educating teachers for the next century: Rethinking*

policy and practice. The education of teachers. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). How teacher education matters. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *51*(3), 166-173.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Berry, B. (1999). Recruiting teachers for the 21st Century: The Foundation for educational equity. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *68*(3), 254.

Darling-Hammond, L., Hammerness, K., Grossman, P., Rust, F., Shulman, L., & Bransford, J. (2005). The design of teacher education programs. In *preparing teachers for a changing world. What teachers should learn and be able to do* (pp. 390–441). Retrieved on 12/6/15 from http://doi.org/10.5860/CHOICE.43-1083

Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A. E., & Pease, S. R. (1983). Teacher evaluation in the organizational context: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*, *53*(3), 285-328.

Dolan, A. M. (2012). Reforming teacher education in the context of lifelong learning: the case of the BEd degree programme in Ireland. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*(4), 463-479.

Daresh, J. C. & Playko, M. A. (1995). *Supervision as a proactive* (2nd ed.). Prospect Height, IL: Waveland Press.

Dreeben, R. (1970). *The nature of teaching*. London: Scott, Foreman Company.

Duke, D. L. (1987). *School leadership and instructional improvement*. New York: Random House-Lane Arkers, Tnc.

Duminy, P., MacLarty, A., & Maasdorp, N. (1992). *Teaching practice*. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Edward, W. S., Stanley, W. K., & Mark, M. A. (1961). *The educator's encyclopaedia*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Edzii, A. A. (2000). *Teacher management support systems in Ghana*. Cape Coast, Ghana: University of Cape Coast.

Elsbree, W. S., & Harold, J. M. (1967). *Elementary school administration and supervision.* New York: Litton Educational publishing Inc.

Etimbi, E. M. (1994). *Successful teaching for teacher certificate*. South Africa: University of Buea.

Evans, N. D., & Neagley, R. L. (1970). *Handbook for effective supervision of instruction*. Englewood Cliffs, N. 1.: Prentice-Hall. Inc.

Eye, G. G., & Netzer, L. A. (1971). *Supervision of instruction phase of administration*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Eyers, V. (2005). *Guidelines for quality in the practicum.* Canberra: National Institute for Quality Teaching & School Leadership.

Farrant, J. S. (1990). *Principles and practice of education*. London: Longman.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2008). Here's the book, go teach the class': ELT practicum support. *RELC Journal*, *39*(2), 226-241.

Fayne, H. R. (2007). Supervision from the student teacher's perspective: An institutional case study. *Studying Teacher Education*, *3*(1), 53-66.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Parker, M. B. (1990). Making subject matter part of the conversation in learning to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(3), 32-43.

Fraser, D., & McGee, C. (2011). *The professional practice of teaching*. London: Routldge.

Garner, G., & Rosaen, C. (2009). Strengthening partnerships and boosting conceptual connections in preservice field experience. *Teaching Education*, *20*(4), 329-342.

George, J., Worrell, P., Rampersad, J., & Rampaul, B. (2001). *Becoming a primary school teacher in Trinidad and Tobago Part 2: Teaching Practice Experience of Trainees*. St. Augustine Trinidad: School of Education Faculty of Humanities and Education The University of the West Indies St.

Ghana Education Service. (2002). *Circuit supervisors' handbook*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Glatthorn, A. A. (1987). Cooperative professional development: Peer-centred options for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership*, *45*(3), 158-160.

Glatthorn, A. A. (1990). *Supervisory leadership: Introduction to instructional supervision*. New York NY: Harper Collins.

Glickman, C. D. (1990). *Supervision of instruction: A development approach*. Boston MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., Ross-Gordon, J. M. (1998). *Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Gordon, S. P., Ross-Gordon, I. M., & Glickman, C. K. (1998). *Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gravett, S., & Geyser, H. (2009). *Teaching and learning in higher education.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Grossman, P., & Loeb, S. (2008). Who goes into early-entry programs? In P. Grossman & S. Loeb (Eds.), *Taking stock: An examination of alternative certification* (pp. 31–220). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Grossman, P., Compton, C., Igra, D., Ronfeldt, M., Shahan, E., & Williamson, P. W. (2009). Teaching practice: A cross-professional perspective. *Teachers College Record*, *111*(9), 2055-2100.

Groundwater-Smith, S., Deer, C. E., Sharp, H., & March, P. (1996). The practicum as

workplace learning: A multi-mode approach in teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *21*(2), 3-9.

Grudnoff, L. (2011). Rethinking the practicum: Limitations and possibilities. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *39*(3), 223-234.

Gustafson, B. J., & Rowell, P. M. (1995). Elementary preservice teachers: constructing conceptions about learning science, teaching science and the nature of science. *International Journal of Science Education*, *17*(5), 589-605.

Haigh, M. (2001). Coherence and congruence of perceived roles within practicum partnerships-a case study. In *annual conference New Zealand Association for Research in Education (NZARE). Christchurch, New Zealand*.

Haigh, M., & Tuck, B. (1999). Assessing student teachers ' performance in practicum. In *Australian Association for Research in Education Conference*. Melbourne: Auckland College fo Education New Zealand.

Halpin, A. W. (1956). *The leadership behaviour of school superintendents*. *The school community development study monograph.* Columbus: Ohio State University Press.

Hammad, S. (2005). The reality of practcum in the areas of Al-Quds Open University in Gaza Governorates from the perspective of students. *Journal of the Islamic University, 13*(1), 155-193.

Hammerness, K., McDonald, M., & Grossman, P. (2009). Redefining teaching, re-imagining teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *15*(2), 273-289.

Hanvey, R. (1976). *An attainable global perspective.* New York: The American Forum for Global Education.

Harris, B. M. (1975). *Supervisory behavior in education* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs,

N.J: Prentice-Hall.

Henry, M. A., & Beasley, W. W. (1976). *Supervising student teachers the professional way: A guide for cooperating teachers.* Terre Haute, IN: Sycamore Press.

Hill, G., & Brodin, K. L. (2004). Physical education teachers' perceptions of the adequacy of University Coursework in Preparation for Teaching. *Physical Educator*, *61*(2), 75-79.

Hollins, E. R. (2011). Teacher preparation for quality teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *62*(4), 395-407.

Houston, W. R. (1990). *Handbook of research on teacher education: A project of the Association of Teacher Educators.* ERIC.

Hudson, K. (2004). Falling standards in schools, lack of supervision a major cause. *Daily Graphic*, p. 17.

Jenkins, J. M., Garn, A., & Jenkins, P. (2005). Preservice teacher observations in peer coaching. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, *24*(1), 2-23.

Jusoh, Z. (2013). Teaching practicum: Student teacher's perspectives. In *FLLT 2013 conference.* Retrieved on 12/6/15 from litu. tu. ac. th/FLLT2013/www. fllt2013. org/private_folder/.../865. pdf.

Kennedy, J. (2006). *A study of learning environment in the extended practicum of a Pre-service*. Course at a Catholic University.

Khan, M. S. (1993). *Teacher education in India and aborad*. New Delhi: Ashish Publishing House.

Korthagen, F. A. J. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher: Towards a more holistic approach in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20,* 77-97.

Lampert, M. (2010). Learning teaching in, from, and for practice: What do we mean? *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*(2), 21-34.

Larrivee, B. (2000). Transforming teaching practice: Becoming the critically reflective teacher. *Reflective Practice*, *1*(3), 293-307.

Lewin, K. M., & Stuart, J. M. (2003). Insights into the policy and practice of teacher education in low-income countries: The multi-site teacher education research project. *British Educational Research Journal*, *29*(5), 691-707.

Lingam, G. I., Teasdale, J., & Nabobo-Baba, U. (2002). Practicum component: Preparation of teachers for the real world of work. *Directions: Journal of Educational Studies*, *24*(1), 47-61.

Lockheed, M. E., & Verspoor, A. M. (1991). *Improving primary education in developing countries.* London: Oxford University Press for World Bank.

Long, J. J., van Es, E. A., & Black, R. W. (2013). Supervisor–student teacher interactions: The role of conversational frames in developing a vision of ambitious teaching. *Linguistics and Education*, *24*(2), 179-196.

Macedo, A., & Morgado, L. (2009). Learning to teach in second life. *European Distance and E-Learning Network Seventh Open Classroom Conference*, *2*, 1-10.

Majzub, R. M. (2013). Teacher trainees' self evaluation during teaching practicum. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *102*, 195-203.

Manion, L., Morrison, K., & Cohen, L. (2010). *A guide to teaching practice*. Routledge.

Manzar-Abbas, S. S., & Lu, L. (2013). Keeping the Practicum of Chinese preservice teacher education in world's perspective. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *3*(4), 172.

McNamara, D. (1992). The Reform of Teacher Education in England and Wales:

teacher competence; panacea or rhetoric? *British Journal of Teacher Education*, *18*(3), 273-285.

McWilliams, H. O. A., & Kwamena-Poh, M. A. (1978). *The development of education in Ghana: An outline* (2nd. ed.). London: Longman Group Limited.

Melchoir, W. T. (1950). *Instructional supervision*. Boston: Heath & Company.

Merryfield, M. M. (1997). *Preparing teachers to teach global perspecticve: A handbook for teacher educators.* Califonia: Corwin Press.

Merton, R. K. (1968). *Social theory in education*. New York: The Free Press.

Metzler, M. (1990). Instructional supervision for physical practice: A make or break phase for student teachers. *South African Journal of Education, 29*, 345-358.

Ministry of Education Ghana (2013). *Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Colleges of Education in Ghana 2012/2013*. Accra.

Moorer, S. H. (1956). *Supervision: The keystone to educational progress*. Florida, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Musaazi, I. C. S. (1985). *The theory and practice of educational administration*. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

Myers, E., & Murphy, J. (1995). Suburban secondary school principals′ perceptions of administrative control in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *33*(3), 14-37.

National Commission on Teaching & America's Future. (1996). *What matters most: Teaching for America' s Future*. *World Wide Web Internet And Web Information Systems*. New York.: McGraw-Hill.

Neagley, R. L., & Evans, N. D. (1970). Handbook for effective supervision of instruction. Retrieved on 4/3/14 from http://library.wur.nl/WebQuery/clc/348425

Nguyen, H. T. M. (2013). Peer Mentoring : A Way Forward for Supporting Preservice

Efl Teachers Psychosocially During the Practicum. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *38*(7), 31-44. Retrieved on 12/5/14 from http://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2013v38n7.3

Ngoh, M., & Tan, I. (2000). Teachers in Singapore schools. *REACT, 1*, 1-9.

Nwana, O. C. (1992). *Introduction to educational research.* Ibadan: Heineman Educational Books (Nigeria)PLC.

Oliva, P. F., & Pawlas, G. E. (2001). *Supervision for today's schools*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Ong, S. K., Ros, A. S., Azlian, A. A., Sharnti, K., & Ho, L. C. (2004). Trainee teachers' perceptions of the school practicum. In *Proceedings of the National Seminar on English Language Teaching* (pp. 84–89). Nigeria: University Press.

Parasuraman, A., Berry, L. L., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, *49*, 41-50.

Renes, P. B. (1970). *Teacher training at Bitumba: A case study in Tanzania.* The Nethalands: Walters, Hoordhoff N.V.

Robert Jr, V., Birrell, J. R., Young, J., Clark, D. C., Erickson, L., Earle, R. S., Egan, M. W. (1999). Paradise unrealized: Teacher educators and the costs and benefits of school/university partnerships. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *50*(5), 381.

Samuel, M. (2010). Searching for a "pedagogy of hope": Teacher education and the social sciences. *Perspectives in Education*, *28*(1), 5-15.

Schulz, R. (2005). The practicum: More than practice. *Canadian Journal of Education / Revue Canadienne de L'éducation*, *28*(1/2), 147-167.

Scoft, T. (1998). *The nature of supervisory practices and policies*. London: SSTA Research Centre.

Scott, T. (1998). *The nature of supervisory practices and policies*. London: Prentice-Hall

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. C. N. L. (2002). *Supervision: A redefinition* (7th ed). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, *15*(2), 4-14.

Smith, R. (2000). The future of teacher education: Principles and prospects (1). *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *28*(1), 7-28.

Spanjer, R. A. (1990). Competency-based student-teacher supervision. *NASSP Bulletin*, *12*, 51-57.

Saunders, M. N. K., Lewin, P., Thornhill, A., & Wang, C. L., (2009). *Research methods for business students* (5th ed.). UK: Prentice-Hall.

Starratt, R. I., & Sergiovanni, T. I. (1998). *Supervision: A redefinition* (6th ed.). New York.: The McGraw- Hill Companies Inc.

Stoddart, T., & Floden, R. (1996). Traditional and alternate routes to teacher certification: Issues, assumptions, and misconceptions. *In Currents reform in preservice teacher education* (pp. 80–106). East Lansing MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

Stratemeyer, F. B., & Lindsey, L. (1969). *Working with student teachers*. New Delhi: Eurasia Publishing House.

Swearingen, M. E. (1962). *Supervision of instruction: Foundations and dimensions*. London: Allyn and Bacon.

Tambo, I. L. (2005). *Principles and methods of teaching*. Limbe: Anucam.

Tamakloe, E. (1997). *Listen to the sounds.* The amateur poet. Unpublished.

Tang, S. Y. F., & Chow, A. W. K. (2007). Communicating feedback in teaching

practice supervision in a learning-oriented field experience assessment framework. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(7), 1066-1085.

Taylor, J. H., & Bilbrey, J. K. (2011). Teacher perceptions of inquiry-based instruction vs. teacher-based instruction. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, *2*(1), 152-162.

Thobega, M., & Miller, G. (2008). Perceptions of supervision practices by agricultural education student teachers. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, *49*(3), 65-75. Retrieved on 3/6/15 from http://doi.org/10.5032/jae.2008.03065

Thomas, R. M. (1991). *International comparative education*. London: Rouledge and Kegan Paul.

Tozer, S., Violas, P. C., & Senese, G. B. (2002). *School and society: Historical and contemporary perspectives*. USA: McGraw-Hill.

Tsui, A. (1995). Exploring collaborative supervision in inservice teacher education. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, *10*(4), 346-371.

Unruh, G. G. (1973). Instructional supervision. *Trend and Issues of Educational Leadership*, *34*(8), 563-592.

Vick, M. (2006). "It's a Difficult Matter" 1: Historical perspectives on the enduring problem of the practicum in teacher preparation. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(2), 181-198.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E. (1999). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Wiles, K. (1967). *Supervision for better schools* (3rd ed.). Englewood cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Wise, A. E. (1996). Building a system of quality assurance for the teaching profession: Moving into the 21st century. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *78*(3), 190.

Wragg, E. C. (2002). *Primary teaching skills*. London: Routledge.

Yassin, R. (2004). *The development of practicum program at the University of l-Aqsa by using systems analysis*. Gaza: Al-Aqsa University.

Zeichner, K. (1996). *Currents of reform in preservice teacher education.* London: Prentice-Hall.

Zeichner, K. (2012). Educating teachers for cultural diversity in the United States. *Teacher Education in Plural Societies (RLE Edu N): An International Review*, *141*, 12-14.

Appendices

University of Education, Winneba

College of Technology Education, Kumasi

Department of Educational Leadership

SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE AS EXPERIENCED BY COLLEGE TUTORS AND STUDENT TEACHERS OF OFFINSO COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Dear Student,

I am a final year student offering Master of Philosophy in Educational Leadership at the University of Education, Winneba, in the department of Educational Leadership. I am investigating the Supervision of Teaching Practice as Experienced by College Tutors and Student Teachers of Offinso college of Education as part of my final year thesis. Your opinion is very important to me to complete this study. Please take some few minutes to complete the questionnaire. You are guaranteed complete anonymity; no identification of information is requested or will be transmitted with your completed questionnaire. Participation is voluntary. Thank you.

Sincerely yours

Student Researcher:

(Festus Frimpong)

Quality and Adequacy of Supervision Questionnaire

SECTION 1A

Please tick ☒ the answer that matches your response

Key:

Developmental supervision	= DS
Self-Assessment supervision	= SAS
Clinical supervision	= CS
Peer supervision	= PS
None	= N

Statement	Type of Supervision				
	DS	SAS	CS	PS	N
1Which of the following types of supervision are you aware of?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2Which are you comfortable with?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3Which of them do you believe your supervisors uses the most or have been using?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION 1B

Quality of Supervision Factor Importance Weights

Listed below are five sets of factors pertaining to the quality and adequacy of supervision. I would like to know how much each of these sets of features is important to you. Please allocate 100 points among the five sets of factors according to how important each is to you. Make sure the points add up to 100.

	Features	Points
4	The appearance of physical facilities and staff of the school where teaching practice take place, and the availability of teaching and learning materials.	
5	The ability of supervisors and the College of Education to perform the duties required of them to student teachers dependably and accurately	
6	The willingness supervisors and the College of Education to help student teachers and provide prompt service.	
7	The knowledge and courtesy of the supervisors and their ability to convey trust and confidence.	
8	The caring individual attention the supervisors provide student teachers.	
	Total:	100

SECTIION 1C

The questionnaire below is in two sections. The first section asks you to rank all supervisors and supervision services being provided by your college according to your expectations i.e. what you expect all supervisors to do. The second section asks

you to rank the supervisors and supervision services according to your experiences and perceptions.

A. Expectations

This section of the survey deals with your opinions of supervisors and supervision services. Please show the extent to which you think the supervisor and supervision services being provided by your College of Education should possess the features listed below. What we are interested in here is a number that best shows your expectations about supervision services you should receive.

Please rank each statement as follows:

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Statement	Score
9Schools in which student teachers go to practice should have modern looking facilities.	
10The physical facilities at the schools where student teachers practice should be visually appealing.	
11Staffs at excellent basic schools **will be neat in their appearance. Have to appear professionally neat**	
12Teaching and learning materials should be provided for and made readily available to student teachers during practicum.	
13When supervisors promise to do something by a certain time, they do.	

Statement	Score
14When a student teacher has a problem, supervisors will show a sincere interest in solving it.	
15Excellent supervisors should perform their duty right.	
16Excellent supervisors will visit at the time they promise to do so.	
17Excellent supervisors will insist on error free records.	
18Excellent Colleges of Education will tell student teachers exactly when supervision will be performed.	
19Excellent Colleges of Education will give prompt service to student teacher on teaching practice as and when required.	
20Excellent supervisors will always be willing to help student teachers on teaching practice.	
21Excellent supervisors will never be too busy to respond to student teachers' requests.	
22The behaviour of excellent supervisors will instil confidence in student teachers	
23Student teachers under good supervision will feel safe in their dealings with supervisors and their College of Education.	
24Excellent supervisors will be consistently courteous with student teachers.	
25Excellent supervisors will have the knowledge to answer student teachers questions.	
26Excellent supervisors and Colleges of Education will give student teachers individual attention.	
27Excellent supervisors will have visiting times convenient to all their student teachers.	
28Excellent supervisors will provide personal service to student teachers.	

Statement	Score
29Excellent supervisors will have student teachers' best interest at heart.	
30Excellent supervisors will understand the specific needs of their student teachers.	

B. Perceptions

The following statements relate to your feelings about the quality and adequacy of supervision you are receiving during your teaching practice. Please show the extent to which you believe this supervision has the feature described in the statement. Here, I am interested in a number from 1 to 7 that shows your perceptions about the supervision of teaching practice in your College of Education.

Please rank each statement as follows:

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Statement	Score
31The school where you practice has modern looking facilities.	
32The school's physical features are visually appealing.	
33The school's staffs are neat appearing.	
34Teaching and learning materials needed for your practice are provided	

Statement	Score
for and made readily available to student teachers during practicum	
35When the supervisor promises to do something by a certain time, he/she does so.	
36When you have a problem, the supervisor shows a sincere interest in solving it.	
37The supervisor performs his/her duty right.	
38The supervisor provides his/her duty at the time he/she promises to do so.	
39The supervisor insists on error free records.	
40The College of Education indicates exactly when the supervision will be performed.	
41The College of Education provides you prompt service when required.	
42Supervisors are always willing to help student teachers on teaching practice.	
43Supervisor are never too busy to respond to student teachers' request.	
44The behaviour of supervisors instils confidence in student teachers.	
45Student teachers feel safe in their transactions with both their supervisors and College of Education.	
46Supervisors are consistently courteous with student teachers.	
47The supervisors have the required knowledge to answer student teachers' questions.	
48The College of Education and supervisors gives student teachers individual attention.	
49Supervisors visit student teacher at a time convenient to all student teachers.	

Statement	Score
50Your supervisors give you personal attention.	
51The College of Education and supervisors have student teachers best interests at heart.	
52Supervisors understand the student teachers' specific needs.	

SECTION 2

Please tick ☒ the extent to which the statements below indicate the challenges you face during teaching practice.

Strongly Disagree = (SD), Disagree = (D), Not Sure = NS, Agree = A and Strongly Agree = SA

Statement	D	S	A
53There was inadequate professional support from your supervisor during practicum			
54I am confident in teaching all the subjects assigned to me			
55I am able to put all that I have been taught at college to practice			
56Student teachers are posted to remote and inaccessible schools			
57The required tasks that I need to accomplish during the practicum were not quite clear			
58These problems include lack of teaching aids			
59The number of students in class are too large to handle			
60The period of teaching practice was not enough			
61There is inadequate supervision during teaching practice			
62The administrative roles played by your college is inadequate			

SECTION 3

Please tick ☒ the extent to which the statements below show how teaching practice has positively or negatively affected your training as a professional teacher.

Strongly Disagree = (SD), Disagree = (D), Not Sure = NS, Agree = A and Strongly Agree = SA

Statement	D	S	A
63Teaching practice is important to me as a student teacher?			
64In your perspective, you have seen significant improvement in your way of teaching because of teaching practice			
65Before you embark on teaching practice you knew what to do and how to do it when it comes to teaching			
66Suggestions by your supervisor have added to my experience			
67The teaching practice helped me to get new ideas about teaching.			

Thank you for your participation

Individual results of this study will be completely confidential

Appendix II

University of Education, Winneba

College of Technology Education, Kumasi

Department of Educational Leadership

SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE AS EXPERIENCED BY COLLEGE TUTORS AND STUDENT TEACHERS OF OFFINSO COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Dear Student,

I am a final year student offering Master of Philosophy in Educational Leadership at the University of Education, Winneba, in the department of Educational Leadership. I am investigating the Supervision of Teaching Practice as Experienced by College Tutors and Student Teachers of Offinso college of Education as part of my final year thesis. Your opinion is very important to me to complete this study. Please take some few minutes to complete the questionnaire. You are guaranteed complete anonymity; no identification of information is requested or will be transmitted with your completed questionnaire. Participation is voluntary. Thank you.

Sincerely yours

Student Researcher:

(Festus Frimpong)

Quality and Adequacy of Supervision Questionnaire

Strongly **Strongly**

Disagree **Agree**

SECTION 1A

Please tick ☒ the answer that matches your response

Key:

Developmental supervision	= DS
Self-Assessment supervision	= SAS
Clinical supervision	= CS
Peer supervision	= PS
None	= N

Statement	Type of Supervision					
	DS	CS	PS	SAS	AR	N
1. Which of the following types of supervision are you aware of?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Which are you comfortable with?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Which of them do you believe your supervisors uses the most or have been using?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION 1B

Quality of Supervision Factor Importance Weights

Listed below are five sets of factors pertaining to the quality and adequacy of supervision. I would like to know how much each of these sets of features is important to you. Please

allocate 100 points among the five sets of factors according to how important each is to you. Make sure the points add up to 100.

Features	Points
4. The appearance of physical facilities and staff of the school where teaching practice take place, and the availability of teaching and learning materials.	
5. The ability of supervisors and the College of Education to perform the duties required of them to student teachers dependably and accurately	
6. The willingness supervisors and the College of Education to help student teachers and provide prompt service.	
7. The knowledge and courtesy of the supervisors and their ability to convey trust and confidence.	
8. The caring individual attention the supervisors provide student teachers.	
Total:	100

SECTIION 1C

The questionnaire below is in two sections. The first section asks you to rank all supervisors and supervision services being provided by your college according to your expectations i.e. what you expect all supervisors to do. The second section asks you to rank the supervisors and supervision services according to your experiences and perceptions.

C. Expectations

This section of the survey deals with your opinions of supervisors and supervision services. Please show the extent to which you think the supervisor and supervision services being provided by your College of Education should possess the features listed below. What we are interested in here is a number that best shows your expectations about supervision services you should receive.

Please rank each statement as follows:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Statement	Score
9Schools in which student teachers go to practice should have modern looking facilities.	
10The physical facilities at the schools where student teachers practice should be visually appealing.	
11Staffs at excellent basic schools **will be neat in their appearance. Have to appear professionally neat**	
12Teaching and learning materials should be provided for and made readily available to student teachers during practicum.	
13When supervisors promise to do something by a certain time, they do.	
14When a student teacher has a problem, supervisors will show a sincere interest in solving it.	
15Excellent supervisors should perform their duty right.	
16Excellent supervisors will visit at the time they promise to do so.	
17Excellent supervisors will insist on error free records.	
18Excellent Colleges of Education will tell student teachers exactly when supervision will be performed.	
19Excellent Colleges of Education will give prompt service to student teacher on teaching practice as and when required.	
20Excellent supervisors will always be willing to help student teachers on teaching practice.	
21Excellent supervisors will never be too busy to respond to student teachers' requests.	
22The behaviour of excellent supervisors will instil confidence in student teachers	
23Student teachers under good supervision will feel safe in their dealings with supervisors and their College of Education.	
24Excellent supervisors will be consistently courteous with student teachers.	

Statement	Score
25Excellent supervisors will have the knowledge to answer student teachers questions.	
26Excellent supervisors and Colleges of Education will give student teachers individual attention.	
27Excellent supervisors will have visiting times convenient to all their student teachers.	
28Excellent supervisors will provide personal service to student teachers.	
29Excellent supervisors will have student teachers' best interest at heart.	
30Excellent supervisors will understand the specific needs of their student teachers.	

D. Perceptions

The following statements relate to your feelings about the quality and adequacy of supervision you are receiving during your teaching practice. Please show the extent to which you believe this supervision has the feature described in the statement. Here, I am interested in a number from 1 to 7 that shows your perceptions about the supervision of teaching practice in your College of Education.

Please rank each statement as follows:

Strongly **Strongly**

Disagree **Agree**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Statement	Score
31The school where you practice has modern looking facilities.	
32The school's physical features are visually appealing.	

Statement	Score
33The school's staffs are neat appearing.	
34Teaching and learning materials needed for your practice are provided for and made readily available to student teachers during practicum	
35When the supervisor promises to do something by a certain time, he/she does so.	
36When you have a problem, the supervisor shows a sincere interest in solving it.	
37The supervisor performs his/her duty right.	
38The supervisor provides his/her duty at the time he/she promises to do so.	
39The supervisor insists on error free records.	
40The College of Education indicates exactly when the supervision will be performed.	
41The College of Education provides you prompt service when required.	
42Supervisors are always willing to help student teachers on teaching practice.	
43Supervisor are never too busy to respond to student teachers' request.	
44The behaviour of supervisors instils confidence in student teachers.	
45Student teachers feel safe in their transactions with both their supervisors and College of Education.	
46Supervisors are consistently courteous with student teachers.	
47The supervisors have the required knowledge to answer student teachers' questions.	
48The College of Education and supervisors gives student teachers individual attention.	
49Supervisors visit student teacher at a time convenient to all student teachers.	
50Your supervisors give you personal attention.	
51The College of Education and supervisors have student teachers best interests at heart.	

Statement	Score
52Supervisors understand the student teachers' specific needs.	

SECTION 2

Please tick ☒ the extent to which the statements below indicate the challenges you face during teaching practice.

Strongly Disagree = (SD), Disagree = (D), Not Sure = NS, Agree = A and Strongly Agree = SA

Statement	SD	D	NS	A	SA
53There was inadequate professional support from your supervisor during practicum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54I am confident in teaching all the subjects assigned to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55I am able to put all that I have been taught at college to practice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56Student teachers are posted to remote and inaccessible schools	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
57The required tasks that I need to accomplish during the practicum were not quite clear	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
58These problems include lack of teaching aids	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
59The number of students in class are too large to handle	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
60The period of teaching practice was not enough	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
61There is inadequate supervision during teaching practice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
62The administrative roles played by your college is inadequate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION 3

Please tick ☒ the extent to which the statements below show how teaching practice has positively or negatively affected your training as a professional teacher.

Strongly Disagree = (SD), Disagree = (D), Not Sure = NS, Agree = A and Strongly Agree = SA

Statement	SD	D	NS	A	SA
63Teaching practice is important to me as a student teacher?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

64In your perspective, you have seen significant improvement in your way of teaching because of teaching practice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
65Before you embark on teaching practice you knew what to do and how to do it when it comes to teaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
66Suggestions by your supervisor have added to my experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
67The teaching practice helped me to get new ideas about teaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you for your participation

Individual results of this study will be completely confidential