

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PERCEPTIONS ON HEADTEACHERS' SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES
IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE KWAEBIBIREM DISTRICT IN THE
EASTERN REGION OF GHANA

BY

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature..... Date

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Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of Thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to find out the perceptions of teachers, headteachers and circuit supervisors on headteachers' supervisory competence at the basic school level. It sought to find out whether and how headteachers are trained, how they are developed, how teachers and circuit supervisors perceive headteachers as being competent, how the headteachers perceive their own level of competence, and the support the headteachers receive from their circuit supervisors.

The views of a total of 240 teachers, 60 headteachers and 10 circuit supervisors were sought. Two self - designed instruments (questionnaire and interview guide) were used for collecting information from teachers, headteachers, and circuit supervisors.

The major findings indicated that headteachers are more competent in administrative duties than in instructional supervisory duties. The conclusion drawn was that if the school would attain its goals, then that aspect of the classic Scientific Theory of supervision within which workers are viewed as appendages of management in the country should be seriously looked at. Again, the position of the headteacher should be competed for by selective means rather than appointive and that, the managerial competence of the prospective headteacher should be focused by public schools.

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DEDICATION

To my husband John, and my children Jude, Julia and Judy. Without them this work and my life would be much less lively.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page	
DECLARATION	ii	
ABSTRACT	iii	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv	
DEDICATION	v	
LIST OF TABLES	x	
CHAPTER		
ONE	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background of the Study	1
	Statement of the Problem	10
	Purpose of the Study	11
	Research Questions	12
	Significance of the Study	13
	Delimitations	13
	Limitations	14
	Definition of Terms	14
	Organisation of the Thesis	14
TWO	REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	16
	Concept of Supervision	16
	Administration and Supervision	18
	Nature and level of Supervision	20

	Page
Evolution of Supervision	20
Role Concept of Supervision	21
Development of Supervision in Ghana	22
Theories of Supervision	27
Principles of Supervision	31
Aims of Supervision	33
Functions and Contents of Supervision	33
Content of Supervision	35
Types of Supervision and Supervisors	37
Educational Policy on Supervision in Ghana	40
Training and Development for Headteachers as Supervisors	41
The Concept of Competence and its Implication to Headteacher's Role in Supervision	47
Competencies for Instructional Improvement	50
Assessing Competencies	52
The Role of the Headteacher in Supervision	53
The Instructional Supervisor	55
Challenges in Supervision	56
Summary	57
THREE METHODOLOGY	58
Research Design	58

	Page
Population	59
Sample and Sampling Procedure	60
Data Collection Instrument	62
Pilot-testing of Instrument	65
Data Collection Procedure	66
Data Analysis Plan	66
FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	67
Demographic Data of Teachers and Headteachers	67
Gender of Teacher / Headteacher Responses	67
Highest Professional/ Academic Qualification	70
Teaching Experiences	77
Present Rank	80
Kinds of In-service Training Given to Headteachers after their First Appointment	83
Training Received After Appointment as Headteacher	84
Kinds of Staff Development Programme in Place for Headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District	89
Perceptions of Headteachers' Competence as Supervisors	97
Kinds of Support Received by Headteachers from Circuit Supervisors	109

	Page
FIVE SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Summary of the Findings	117
Main Findings	118
Conclusions	119
Recommendations	119
Other Findings	120
Suggestions for Future Research	122
REFERENCES	123
APPENDICES	
A Questionnaire for Headteachers	130
B Questionnaire for Teachers	135
C Interview Guide for Circuit Supervisors	138
D Introductory Letter to the District Director of Education	141

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Number of Circuit Supervisors, Schools, Teachers and Headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District	60
2	Distribution of Respondents by Gender	68
3	Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Highest Academic / Professional Qualification	71
4	Distribution of Headteacher Respondents by Highest Academic / Professional Qualification	75
5	Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Length of Service	78
6	Distribution of Respondents by Experience as Headteachers	79
7	Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Rank	81
8	Distribution of Headteacher Respondents by Rank	82
9	Opportunity to be Trained	84
10	Nature of Training	85
11	Circuit Supervisors' Opinion on Headteachers' Training After Appointment	86
12	Staff Development Programmes for Headteachers	90
13	Topics Treated at Training Programmes for Supervisors	91
14	Circuit Supervisors' Responses on Staff Development	93
15	Competence Ratings of Headteachers by Teachers	98
16	How Headteachers Perceive Their Own Level of Competence	99

Table		Page
17	Headteachers Competence as Supervisor as Perceived by Circuit Supervisors	100
18	Headteachers Promotion of Effective Teaching and Learning in School?	105
19	Gender Comparison of Teachers' Opinion on Headteachers Effective Promotion of Teaching and Learning in Schools	106
20	Challenges Headteachers Face in the Discharge of their Administrative and Supervisory Duties	107
21	Support by Circuit Supervisors	110
22	Frequency Distribution of Kinds of Support Given to Headteachers by Circuit Supervisors	113
23	Frequency of Circuit Supervisors' Visits to Schools within their Circuits	114

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Supervision is one of the administrative tools which individuals as well as groups of people employ in the day- to-day administration of their work or organisations. Supervision is traceable as far back as the AD 70s during the Israelites' exodus from Egypt under the leadership of Moses. Moses' -father-in-law Jethro saw how Moses had occupied himself with a lot of activities without rest while there were still a lot of people to be attended to. Realising that there were other capable people around, Jethro advised Moses to appoint competent people to work with so that he oversees their activities (Exodus, Chapter 8). Supervision has since then become an integral part of administration and has been practiced in almost every organisation throughout the world.

In social work field, Impact Research Group Publications (2003) stated that, supervision has existed for around thirty years. Impact Research Group Publications (2003) quoted Pritchard that supervision at these times has mainly been concerned with value for money and ensuring quality control by measuring performance but recently, emphasis has been placed on the three areas of managing, teaching and support (p.8). Impact Research Group Publications (2003) continued to say that in the commercial sector,

supervision is used and it is often given a different name such as, ‘coaching’, ‘mentoring’, or ‘one- on – one’(p.8) .

Gordon, Mondy, Sharplin and Premeaux (1990) have observed that in most organisational structures, “the line and staff at the management level have violated the principle of unity of command (having one boss) and have adopted the functional authority in their respective organisational structures” (p.254). Supervisory managers who are appointed in these areas directly oversee the efforts of those who actually perform the work. To Gordon et. al. (1990), “most supervisory managers in this sense, have titles such as, ‘supervisor’, ‘foreman’, ‘lead man ’or ‘office manager’” (p.9).

Supervision has been looked at from various angles. It can be said to be a process by which one worker is given responsibility by the organisation to work with other worker(s) in order to meet certain organisational, professional and personal objectives. It can also be viewed as a professional relationship and the process involves the development of skills, the gaining of knowledge, the monitoring of performance and the provision of support. Musaaazi (1985) cited Swearingen that supervision is a consciously planned programme for the improvement and consolidation of improvement. (p.225). Sidhu (2006) also cited Malchoir that supervision means essentially ‘superior vision’ (p.295). Impact Research Group Publications (2003) quoting Morrison, had this to say, “supervision is a process by which one worker is given responsibility by the organisation to work with other worker(s) in order to meet the organisational, professional and personal objectives” (p. 9). McNamara (2008) also sees supervision as, “the activity carried out by

supervisors to oversee the productivity and progress of employees who report directly to the supervisor.”

The supervisor, however, is usually the supervisee’s line manager. He provides a professional service to the supervisee. To Oliva and Pawlas (2001), a supervisor is, “anyone who oversees the work of another” (p.14). Effective and regular supervision is of great benefit to both the organisation and the supervisee in a number of ways: Impact Research Group Publications (2003) note that in the organisation, there is good quality staff; more motivated staff; training needs are identified and information flows more freely throughout the organisation both up and down. Again, there is reduction of staff sickness and staff turnover is also reduced. Apart from the issues raised above, communication is enhanced and the organisation also has good reputation. In the case of the staff (supervisees), their roles and responsibilities are clear; their ideas and creativity are actively encouraged; workers feel valued and they are able to offload their work stress and share their problems. Furthermore, their skills and confidence also increase. Lastly, there is good teamwork among the staff (p. 12).

There has also been the recognition of the role of supervision within the educational sector. From the researcher’s lecture notes, Knezvich (1983) traces the origin of school supervision to the United States of America’s (USA) strategy for quality education. There has been gradual evolution of the concept of supervision through the years. Originally, the process was authoritative and sometimes primitive. It was not surprising that supervision process was dubbed; “snooper vision” by teachers who felt the supervisor was present only to criticise and admonish. From this stage, the concept of

improving the teacher through supervision changed to school effectiveness and school improvement. From 1935 to date, USA placed emphasis on the development of human relation and competencies necessary for making supervision meaningful.

One concern preoccupies quite a lot of politicians, educational administrators, school leaders, employers, parents, and pupils around the world – making school improvement happen. This desire stimulates much effort and activity: National governments legislate for educational reform, regional and district administrators reallocate their budgets, schools are restructured, teachers follow in-service training programmes, employers and parents become increasingly involved in school governance and pupils also let their voices heard on school councils. Such an important goal cannot be realised in the school system without instructional supervision.

Supervision is crucial in the school system. Sidhu (1996) quoting the Indian Education Commission, described Supervision as “the backbone of instructional improvement” (p.287). Supervision should be seen as a continuous process which should be used to equip the classroom teacher to manage the content of the education he offers so that the educant becomes a useful member of the society. Sidhu (1996) buttressed this point and added that the immediate purpose of supervision is the improvement of instruction. (p.287). He continued that it incorporates checking, enquiry, fact-finding, keeping watch, survey, guidance, direction, diagnosis, correction, prevention, inspiration, and improvement. (p. 287).

The performance of the school as set against the goals and objectives of the school and the working conditions makes the headteacher and the

Circuit Supervisor's positions important in the instructional supervisory hierarchy. Supervisors as key figures in any reform of classroom practice wield authority and should be consulted from the very beginning for their criticisms and suggestions carry weight.

Ghana's anxiety to universalise education, has taken education to the doorstep of every Ghanaian child of school going age. For example, the introduction of the Capitation Grants and the School Feeding Programme in the Public Basic Schools in Ghana has resulted in rapid increase in enrolment (although, there may be other variables which might have contributed to the increase in enrolment) Gobah (2006, p.1), notes "total enrolment for 2004/2005 was 3,698,000. The figure shot to 4,314,887 last year, representing 16.67 per cent increase when the grant was first introduced." It is very paramount to keep up the standard of education in Ghana and safeguard its quality. But according to The Editor (2006, p.3), the 2006 Basic Education Certificate Examination (B.E.C.E.) results indicated that, only 62% had aggregate 06-30 which was the cut off- point for selection of candidates to Senior High Schools and Technical Schools. In 2008 also, according to Salia (2008, p.1), "out of the total 173,315 candidates, 139 constituting 0.08 % had been placed." The question to ask is what is the fate of the remaining 38% in 2006 and 99.92% in 2008? This is a clear indication that, quality is being ignored for the sake of quantity. Obviously, it is supervisory service that can address the standards and quality of education in Ghana.

Headteachers and teachers encounter various problems. Some of these are lack of knowledge of administration, methodology, discipline, adjustment and mental health. The headteachers and teachers get stagnated with these

problems which need constant orientation and revival. There are also instances when headteachers and teachers needed clarifications, interpretations, guidelines, advice and approval from more competent teachers and educational authorities. Supervision seeks to tackle these problems and provide timely intervention to avert the situation.

The supervisors' new role as a development partner in the classroom teaching and learning situations demands that they must not only be motivated with new ideas and practices but also their performance in the school needs greater attention. Glickman (1990) notes that,

Teachers are in the forefront of successful instruction; supervision is in the background, providing the support, knowledge, and skills that enable teachers to succeed. When improved instruction and school success do not materialise, supervision should shoulder the responsibility for not permitting teachers to be successful (p.5).

This suggests that, teachers must be helped to develop a sense of responsibility and the right attitude to work.

To assume more dynamic leadership and to guide more steadfastly than in the past, the question to ponder over is, how do supervisors of instruction progress in their work? It is obvious that instruction as a human enterprise needs improvement which come about primarily through people whether there is focus on curriculum or materials development, staffing, in-service education or public relations. But supervisory practices must extend well beyond good human relations. There should be uniquely defined roles,

backed by specific competence to perform, a structure for collaborative efforts and finally evaluative thrust that yields priorities.

Since the colonial era, Ghana's educational system was financed and managed by the state. But getting to the latter part of the twenty-first century, due to heavy dependence on state financing as declared by the World Bank report (1996), "the micro-economic turmoil of the 1970s and early 1980s plunged the country's education system into severe decline. Expenditures on education by the government fell from 6.4 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to 1.4 per cent between 1976 and 1983" (p.2). This aside, shortage of foreign exchange deprived schools of textbooks and other instructional materials. Trained and qualified teachers who were not satisfied with the conditions of service left the country for greener pastures elsewhere. School plants deteriorated. Such a situation in which the country's educational system found itself called for urgent educational sector reform as part of the national Economic Recovery Programme. A lot of measures have been adopted until now to get the educational sector on track. There have been restructuring of schools; revision of curriculum; development of teaching-learning materials; provision of in-service training; raising of teacher qualification requirements; untrained teachers are steadily being replaced; administrative decentralisation; community participation in the management of schools; school feeding programme and capitation grant system.

In addition to the effort made by the government of Ghana to make education accessible to all Ghanaian children of school - going age, private participation in education has been encouraged to supplement government's effort. Private schools have sprung up all over the country and it is very

common to see some of these private schools operating under sheds and unwarranted structures. It is also common knowledge to find parents struggling to send their wards to private schools and are prepared to pay very high school fees. Even parents from deprived communities forgo the relief of the government's capitation grant system and the school feeding programme being provided to the Public Basic Schools, travel and sometimes walk long distances to send their wards to private schools. The questions to ponder over are: Why the proliferation of private schools in the country? Why are people trooping in to send their wards to private schools?

There is the agitation by the general public that, the academic performance of students has fallen. Ofori-Mensah (2005) notes that parents are disturbed because their wards fare poorly in final examinations and students themselves are worried because their future is in jeopardy. Mensah, cited in Opare (1999), commented that the greatest disappointment is caused by the observation that pupils' academic performance in the private school is far higher than what prevails in the public schools, where the bulk of pupils receive education (p.2). The National Education Assessment Report also attests to the fact that there is poor student academic performance in the country's public basic schools. Ghana News Agency (2008, p.1), comments that reports on the administration of 2005 and 2007 National Education Assessment (NEA) test in English and Mathematics for primary three and six pupils provided evidence of the poor performance of public primary schools with regard to literacy and numeracy skills. The question to ask is why are the public schools not performing academically but the private schools keep excelling?

The cause (s) of the disparity in performance between the two systems cannot be attributed to the content. There is notional loss of contact hours in the public schools which cannot be denied by any knowledgeable Ghanaian. Training is not the issue since the public schools are staffed with well trained certificated teachers whereas most of the private sector schools are staffed with untrained teachers and sometimes public school drop-outs. According to Opare (1999), “seventy per cent (70%) of private schools teachers are untrained. The thirty per cent (30%) trained teachers, greater proportions are retired teachers” (p.7). In terms of remuneration, the private school teacher’s salary is nothing to write home about. Majority take about a quarter of the public school teacher’s salary. Considering staff development programmes, private schools do not come near the public schools. Workshops, short courses and seminars are organised by stakeholders of education for public school teachers to update their knowledge and skills content and current teaching strategies. Teaching / learning materials (TLMs) can never be the issue since the government provides the public schools with TLMs which will facilitate teaching and learning in public schools.

Lastly, the issue at stake cannot also be attributed to enough time on task for the private schools. The phenomenon can be attributed to management, administration and supervision in private schools.

Another issue to deliberate on is whether there are any special criteria used for the selection of instructional supervisors? The mode of recruitment and appointment of instructional supervisors in the public sector leaves much to be desired. It is common knowledge that the issue of recruitment and appointment of headteachers (the internal instructional supervisor of the

school) and the Circuit Supervisors (the external supervisor of the school) are by default. The question to ask then is of what capacity does the Circuit Supervisors have to supervise or support the headteacher? How can a person who lives in ignorance direct a fellow ignorant person? The students' poor academic performance is not characterised by teacher motivation, retraining of teachers or workshops that are organised for teachers. It is neither the question of posting graduate teachers to the schools nor with the supply of teaching / learning materials and good pedagogical strategies. The problem is people are just losing confidence in the public sector education and this can be attributed to poor supervision of instruction. So what do we do?

Statement of the Problem

It is certain that the major objective of the instructional supervisor is to facilitate the professional development of the teacher, which will in turn bring about quality teaching and learning and high academic achievement of students. In spite of the efforts that the stakeholders of education are making to ensure that students perform well in examinations, much has not been achieved. This is evident in the increasing concern expressed by stakeholders about students' poor performance in the public schools. Reactions from the general public on the phone - in segment on radio stations clearly suggest to the researcher that they are displeased and dissatisfied when it appears the school is failing a large number of students who are identified as drop-outs. The public views this as a non-productive pool for the labour market and recipients of burdensome welfare system. They attribute this to the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the school and assert that teachers are not adequately supervised for good performance. Thus, the poor performance of

students in the system is blamed on the poor supervision of teaching and learning by headteachers as instructional supervisors.

The same worry was expressed by parents especially in the Kwaebibirem District. Their worry stems from the fact that the Basic Education Certificate Examinations (B.E.C.E.) revealed that, in 2004, eight schools in the District scored zero per cent while five schools scored zero per cent in 2005. In addition, five schools scored zero per cent in 2006 and 2007 respectively. The Performance Monitoring Test (PMT) results also indicated that there is nothing to write home about regarding students' academic performances in the district.

The pertinent questions that readily come to mind are whether headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District are supervising effectively. What kind of training do headteachers go through after they have been selected as heads of their schools? Do the headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District utilise the knowledge acquired in supervision? What kind of staff development programmes are in place for headteachers?

Finding answers to these questions require in-depth investigation. Yet, there has been little attention given by researchers in this area within the Kwaebibirem District. It is this gap that necessitated the study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the perceived competence of headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District as instructional supervisors. Specifically, the study sought to find out:

- a. Perceptions on the effectiveness of heads on supervision.

- b. Whether headteachers are given training in supervision when they are first appointed.
- c. Whether headteachers utilise the knowledge acquired in supervision.
- d. The kind of staff development programmes that are in place for the heads.
- e. Headteachers' perception of their level of competence as supervisors.
- f. Teachers' perception about the competence of their headteachers as instructional supervisors.
- g. The sort of support headteachers receive from Circuit Supervisors

Research Questions

The study sought to address the following questions:

- a. What kind of training did the headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District go through after their first appointment as heads?
- b. What kind of staff development programmes are in place for headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District?
- c. How do headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District perceive their own level of competence as supervisors?
- d. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the competence of their headteachers as supervisors?
- e. What sort of support do headteachers receive from Circuit Supervisors?

Significance of the Study

The study undoubtedly will contribute immensely towards the total educational development in the country. The beneficiaries of the study will be as follows:

The headteachers who are the direct beneficiary of the study stand at a greater advantage when the study results are disseminated. A copy will be made available at the District Teachers' Resource Centre to serve as reference material for headteachers during in-service training programmes. They will find it useful for the improvement of their own supervisory skills. The findings and suggestions from this study will help Circuit Supervisors and wardens of resource centre to give more technical assistance to the headteachers during supervision and training programmes. Conclusions and findings from the study will serve as a useful base for more advanced scientific study of supervisor competence in the educational sector and add to the existing literature on the area.

Delimitations

The scope of the study was confined to Primary and Junior High School headteachers. This is because the researcher believes that any meaningful work can begin at the basic level which is the foundation of learning upon which others are built.

Lastly, the scope of the study was delimited to supervision. The researcher believes that, instructional supervision is the bedrock on which instructional improvement is built.

Limitation

The study relied mainly on the perceptions of the respondents. Thus the results could have been limited by the accuracy and honesty of the responses provided by respondents. Such perceptions and indeed, conditions on the ground do change over time sometimes, quite quickly. These limit the extent to which the results of the study can be generalised over time and conditions elsewhere.

Definition of Terms

Basic School – The minimum formal education level to which children / citizens are entitled out of right to equip them to function effectively in Ghana. [This constitutes eleven years of formal education (2 years of Pre-school 6 years of Primary education and 3years of Junior High School education)].

Instructional Supervision – The process of working with teachers to improve classroom instruction.

Supervisory - The role of someone who oversees the activities of others in an organisation.

Competence - Ability to perform an activity.

Competencies – All actions taken by an overseer that are related to those that help orient the organisation towards its objectives.

Perceptions – Opinion about an issue

Organisation of the Thesis

The study is organised into five chapters. The first chapter deals with the introduction of the study. This comprises the background, statement of the problem, purpose of the study and research questions. Other items embodied

in this chapter include the significance of the study limitations, delimitations and definitions of terms.

Chapter Two focuses on the review of the related literature on constituent(s) of instructional supervision. The researcher tackled the task in this chapter under the following sub-headings: Concept of Supervision; Administration and Supervision; Nature and level of supervision; Theories of supervision; Principles of supervision; Aims of supervision; Functions of Supervision and Contents of supervision. Others are: Types of Supervision and Supervisors; Supervision Policy in Ghana and Training and Development of the teacher. The rest are: The concept of competence and its implication to headteacher's role in supervision; Competencies for instructional improvement; Assessing competencies; The role of the headteacher in supervision; The instructional supervisor and Challenges in Supervision. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature review.

The methodology used for the study is found in Chapter Three. It follows the following pattern: research design, population, sample, instruments, pilot testing, procedure for data collection and data analysis procedure.

Chapter Four consists of the findings and discussion, as well as summary of the findings. Chapter Five is devoted to the major findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter focuses on the review of related literature on constituent(s) of instructional supervision. The researcher tackled the task in this chapter under the following sub-headings: Concept of Supervision; Administration and Supervision; Nature and level of supervision; Theories of supervision; Principles of supervision; Aims of supervision; Functions of Supervision and Contents of supervision. Others are: Types of Supervision and supervisors; Supervision Policy in Ghana and Training and Development of the teacher. The rest are: The concept of competence and its implication to headteacher's role in supervision; Competencies for instructional improvement; Assessing competencies; The role of the headteacher in supervision; The instructional supervisor and Challenges in Supervision.

Concept of Supervision

Different people view supervision differently. Neagley and Evans (1980) look at modern school supervision as, “positive, dynamic, democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals – the child, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator and the parent or other lay person”(p.20).

Harris (1985) in clarifying the supervisor's role maintains that supervision is related directly to helping teachers with instruction but only

indirectly to instructing students. Supervision is not the act of instructing students that is teaching but rather, the actions that enable teachers to improve instruction for students.

Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) in their contribution to the concept of supervision, maintain that supervision is not to be perceived only in terms of the act of instructing students rather as the activities that enable teachers to improve instruction for students. It is to be considered as a process and a function but not to be viewed as a particular position or person. What is crucial is not the person's title but rather his or her responsibilities.

In the opinion of Musaaazi (1985), supervision of instruction is intended to improve upon the teaching and learning process in school. For him, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work and in which they will feel secure. It is his responsibility to ensure that teachers have opportunities to share ideas and to work together effectively as a team in order to achieve the goals of the school. The supervisor should strive to broaden the base of leadership by utilising the full potential of teachers. Thus, an inspector of education is a person responsible for working with others to increase the effectiveness of a school's teaching and learning (pp.225 -226).

Beach and Reinhartz (1989) in their contribution towards the improvement of instructional supervision consider supervision as "the process of working with teachers to improve classroom instruction" (p.8).

Sidhu (1996) contends that supervision is, in a sense, the backbone of educational improvement (p.287). He points out that supervision provides education leadership and guidance to various workers in the field of education

(p.287). He continues by saying that it incorporates checking, enquiry, fact-finding, keeping watch, survey, correction, diagnosis, and improvement (p.287). To him its immediate purpose is the improvement of instruction.

Deducing from the above, it is realised that the scope of supervision is very broad and covers all the factors that affect the teaching and learning of pupils in schools. It is therefore, imperative that after necessary human and material resources have been procured, adequate supervision should take place to ensure the realisation of the school objectives.

Administration and Supervision

There is a bone of contention as regards administration and supervision. Sidhu (1996) gave the etymology of the term administration as derived from the Latin word "ministric" which means service rendered to others for their welfare (p.5).

Looking at the meaning of the term "administration", Sidhu (1996) quoting Ryburn on the meaning of administration had this to say, "administration is not primarily concerned with arrangement, timetable, scheme of study, type of building, records etc., but it is concerned with attitude of work and with the children we work " (p.8). Since educational administration is a comprehensive effort intended to achieve some specific educational objectives, distinction between Administration and Supervision will be desirable.

Sidhu (1996) distinguished between Administration and Supervision. He claimed that administration executes, directs; Supervision advises, stimulates, explains, leads guides and assists (p.8). In the similarities, he wrote

that plan, diagnose, and inspect, but administration orders execution, while supervision helps to decide and assist in improving institution.

To him, the basic purpose of administration is to organise, and operate the school so that schooling may take place whereas the purpose of supervision is to bring about a continuing improvement in schooling and instruction. He sees administration representing the whole enterprise of school management and supervision representing a portion of the job delegated to the supervisory staff by the administrators. Supervision looks at the overall direction of the school enterprise. Again, Sidhu (1996) notes that,

Administration precedes supervision just as organisation precedes any programme of instruction. But many of the activities have definite supervisory implications. At the same time, supervision saves us from many pitfalls of administration and plays a corrective role of administration when it is going astray (p.8).

Oliva and Pawlas (2001) in differentiating the supervisor from the administrator had this to say, “supervisors are special service personnel to be found on the staff of administrators of state, district and school levels. In the administrative parlance, these service personnel are staff employees, whereas the administrators, equipped with the mantle of status and authority, are line employees” (p.16).

Nature and Level of Supervision

Mullins (1996) quoted Myers and said “the effective supervisor is one who provides a climate in which people have sense of working themselves” (p.525). The nature and level of supervision is a factor, which can influence the satisfaction people derive from their work. Supervision involves technical knowledge, human relations skills and co-ordination of work activities. To Mullins (1996), effective supervision is necessary for job satisfaction and for high levels of work performance. He continues by saying that supervisors who adopt a considerate manner towards their workers tend to have the more highly satisfied work groups (p.525). Considering the nature of supervision, one may wonder the development of supervision.

Evolution of Supervision

In the school context, supervision started in America. Knezevich (1984) traces its origin to the United States of America’s (USA) strategy for quality education. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) date the major periods in the historical development of supervision as far back as the 1620s (p.5). There has been a gradual evolution of the concept of supervision through the years. Originally, the process was authoritative and sometimes primitive. It was not surprising that supervision process was dubbed; “Snooper vision” by teachers who felt the supervisor was present only to criticise and admonish. From this stage, the concept of improving the teacher through supervision changed to school Effectiveness and school improvement. From 1935 to date, USA placed emphasis on the development of human relation and competencies necessary for making supervision meaningful.

The Role Concept before the 20th Century

Due to the quality nature of education that instructional leaders wanted, supervision of instruction has undergone various innovative panaceas in search of instant progress. Supervision took the form of visitation by school committee members and members of school boards. The purpose was more or less inspection (evaluation). It is questionable if much assistance in the improvement of instructions resulted from the visits of these lay persons who were mainly concerned that the three R's (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic) were being taught effectively. However, the laymen had the power and terminated some teachers' appointments. In the middle of the C 19th, it was generally agreed that professional supervision be initiated with the organisation and the country's superintendents of schools' office. For the following 55 years, the community's superintendents in many areas provided notable service to the school including direct supervision of the instructional process. The USA's Institute originated during this era as a means of improving teachers' skills and keeping them abreast with the latest educational trends.

Harris (1976) agrees with Wiles and Rogers in their attempt to give a brief historical perspective of the role of instructional supervision, have grouped the events into three eras from 1950 as follows: 1950 – 1960 - Emphasis on human relations skills, avoidance of conflict, lack of directionality, and uncritical response to teachers' expressions of need. 1955 – 1965 – Population explosion, crash programmes of teacher preparation, permanent employment of men and women to teach with little selection or evaluation, rapidly expanding schools and districts to outrageous sizes, and

emphasis upon growth with little attention to quality. 1960 – 1975 – Growing demands for change in instructional practices, frenzied demands for newer and better programmes, appeals for meeting special pupil needs, insistence upon opportunity for all children with little tolerance for failure (p.332).

Development of Supervision in Ghana

In the Ghanaian context, supervision of instruction started in the early part of the 15th century with the inception of the Castle Schools in Elmina, Christiansborg and others. However, supervision took the form of super-ordinate – subordinate relationship and limited itself to the administration of the Castle Schools.

Later, in 1882, when Rowe became governor of the Gold Coast now Ghana, he passed the 1882 Education Ordinance which sought to promote the advancement of education in the British Colonies - Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. Among the provision in the ordinance was the payment of government grants to schools (both government and mission schools which were assisted by government) on the basis of enrolment of pupils in each class in a school. The minimum enrolment qualifying a school for this grant was at least twenty pupils in a class. To enforce this provision, a central general school board was set up in Ghana with the mandate to establish local boards in the other colonies – Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. These local boards were to have inspectors of schools responsible for certifying schools for government grant in their respective countries (then colonies). However, due to lack of personnel, Reverend Sunter was appointed the first inspector of schools, (now called supervisor) in the British colonies

under the general board to be in-charge of supervision of schools in these countries. Due to the large area of coverage Reverend Sunter's supervision was ineffective. This era marked a dramatic turn from the castle centred supervision. However, this supervision placed emphasis on pupil's enrolment and attendance to school. Supervision to a greater extent was limited to the schools in Cape Coast. This was as a result of the poor nature of roads, which made travelling difficult and sometimes impossible.

Then, in 1987, when Griffiths took over the reign as governor in Ghana, he passed the 1887 Educational Ordinance for Ghana alone. This ordinance abolished the payment of grants on the basis of enrolment and rather tied it up to pupils' academic performance in class. This was to ensure that government's investment in education was worth its cause. This brought about the concept of "payment by results." By this concept a board of education was established with the power to appoint inspectors of schools and certificated teachers.

The inspectors were to set and conduct a yearly examination in the affected schools, and the results of such schools were the basis of the payment of government grants to them. For example, according to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, (1975), an amount of two shillings per pupil per year was paid for a pass in Reading, Writing and Arithmetic and additional amounts ranging from six pence to two shillings per pupil, based on average attendance were paid in each of the other subjects (p.41). That is, the teachers' salaries depended on the number of pupils passing the inspector's examination in each class in each school. This marked the conflict between teachers as instructors and inspectors as supervisor.

In 1908, John Roger was appointed governor of the Gold Coast. He quickly set up a committee whose terms of reference was to study the various ordinances passed, and make recommendations for the advancement of education in the Gold Coast. Among these recommendations were the termination of the “payment by results” and the introduction of payment by general efficiency of schools. To enforce and maintain the implementation of this provision, the concepts of school boards were withheld and some inspectors of schools were appointed.

These inspectors were assigned the responsibility of inspecting schools to ascertain their general efficiency in classroom instruction, teacher and pupil attendance to school among other environmental factors like cleanliness. Schools, which did not meet the criteria set, did not receive any grant from government. After the end of the First World War in 1918, Gordon Guggisberg was appointed the Governor of Ghana, the then Gold Coast. He showed tremendous interest in the development of education in the Gold Coast. Consequently, he formulated the sixteen principles for the development of education in Ghana. Among these principles was the abolition of payment of grants based on general efficiency of teaching. However, to improve upon the quality of teaching/learning in school, he thought this could be achieved through improvement in teacher training and supervision of instruction. This brought about the concept of teacher certification. This concept of teacher certification led to the closure of one hundred and fifty “bush” schools which were not manned by trained certificated teachers and the establishment of more teacher training colleges, and the upgrading of the existing ones to

certificate 'A' and certificate 'B' awarding institutions, (MacWilliam & Kwamena-Poh,1975, p.59).

The concept of supervision was so dear to Guggisberg's heart that he had to personally inspect schools in the Northern Territories (now Tamale, Bolgatanga and Wa). This visit resulted in the appointment of Rev. A.H. Candler as head of the Northern Territories Education Department in 1925. To give legal backing to his principles, the 1925 Education Ordinance was passed. This ordinance remained in force until the 1961 Education Act came to replace it. It is clear that until the early 1960s however, these systematic inspections operated at the level of basic education.

In 1961, the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) was formally established as a professional unit distinct from the administrative schedules of the Ministry of Education. It was responsible for school inspection and evaluating administrative standards and maintenance of standards in pre-university education institutions as inspecting officers and principal teachers who worked mainly at the district and circuit levels, visited and inspected primary and middle schools. The early inspectors assessed the work of teachers and pupils. These inspections were characterised by the use of force and issuing of orders and commands. The inspectors were regarded as "tin gods", all knowing, and people who can have ultimate authority to hire or fire and dismiss teachers, to discipline anybody in the school and to open or close schools on their own volition. School Inspectors, tip-toed to schools without the knowledge of the teacher and sometimes left their cars kilometres away from the school's premises. Schools were sometimes inspected during

weekends when the school was out of session and reports were made and sent to the regional and headquarters offices.

In April 1969, the first substantive Chief Inspector of Schools with the rank of Deputy Chief Education Officer was appointed to head the Inspectorate Division of Education. The inspectorate maintained pre-determined basic minimum educational standards in pre-university institutions to ensure equality of educational opportunities throughout Ghana. They ensured that the work of teachers, pupils and general conditions in the schools conformed to the policies and specifications determined by the government through the Ministry of Education.

During and after the 1987 Education Reforms, some National Service Personnel were appointed as Monitoring Assistants to the District Education Officers (DEOs) who reported directly to the then Secretary of Education. They were empowered to enter any school premise to carry out school inspection even though they were not professional teachers. With the coming into force of the District Assembly Concept and the implementation of the government's decentralisation policy, management of both basic and second cycle institutions came under the District Director of Education.

In 1990, the post of Circuit Supervisors was created, and the first batch of Circuit Supervisors who received training, replaced the then circuit officers. Before then, to qualify for the post of a circuit officer, a teacher was expected to pass The General Certificate of Examination (G.C.E.) Ordinary Level in at least five (5) subjects and be of the rank of Principal Superintendent of the Ghana Education Service.

Presently, Circuit Supervisors are first-degree holders who give clinical supervision to teachers at the basic level and report to the Assistant Director in charge of supervision. In addition, the Ghana Education Service Act, 1995 (Act 506) established the District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) to oversee the proper functioning of education at the district level and to work with the School Management Committee (SMC) to promote teaching and learning.

These events were more or less sequential in nature; and each one tended to promote, stimulate and reinforce the next one. Having made strong commitment to humane, nondirective, service oriented supervision, the tidal wave of events caused by population explosion left many supervisors floundering, struggling for survival inundated by teacher incompetence, overextended, overworked, and inappropriately tooled.

Theories of Supervision

One cannot practise effectively without being guided by theory. According to Creswell (2003), theories provide a lens to guide the researcher as to what issues are important to examine and the people that need to be studied. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), note that supervisors and teachers typically do not characterise their work as being informed by theory. It is very difficult to engage in teaching or supervisory practice without being theoretical (p.5). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), continued by looking at some of the pioneers in administrative theory. According to them, Van Miller often spoke of the practical art of using theory. Miller, cited in Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), also noted that it was very difficult to administer and

supervise in schools without using theory (p.5). Sergiovanni and Starrat (1998) continued that practices typically do not lead to other practices without some help (p.5). To Miller, with theory, the professional can reach a new step in professional decision-making and practice. He continued that theory can provide the profession with a surer view of the situation, serve as a guide to the selection principles, and provide a basis for evolving improved practices in the light of improvements in one's theoretical outlook (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1998, p.6).

Having known the importance of theory in supervision and teaching, there is the need to look at some of the different theories of supervision and teaching. Presently, supervisory practices in schools are largely based on one or a combination of four general views of the following:

Scientific Management: The father of this theory is Frederick Taylor. From his technical background; he came up with the idea that human beings could be programmed in such a way as to perform efficiently and effectively like machines in factories. Drucker, cited in Afful-Broni (2004), contend that,

This man-the-machine perspective of Taylor and his followers, it was believed that in any organisation, especially the industry, in order to achieve the optimum output, workers must be offered a minimum of moral and monetary motivation, and unfailing amount of constant direction (p. 46).

Taylor's ideas were later refined and these principles stated that all the workers in any organisation need to be provided with clearly defined daily

tasks. This way according to the proponents of the theory, the worker would not laze about nor lie in wait after every task performed. Further on, Taylor developed the principle that the worker ought to be provided with standardised conditions and appliances; this way he/she could be more efficient to accomplish his given tasks. Under this principle was the assumption that, given the necessary tools, the worker had to be able to achieve the assigned tasks. He established the best way of doing things. He instructed workers to do what they were told and only as they were told. Obviously, one's pay would be determined by the extent to which one was able to perform one's task; and again, failure to perform one's task was tantamount to forfeiting one's pay, irrespective of any potentially valid reasons for non-performance. He also proposed that as the organisation became more developed and complex, those workers who could not rise up to challenges should be getting rid of. This was justified by insistence on regular human resource training.

This theory is reflected in the images of supervision portrayed by category of supervisors. It represents a classic autocratic philosophy of supervision within which workers are viewed as appendages of management and as such hired to carry out pre-specified duties in accordance with the wishes of management. In the school situation, teachers are viewed as implementers of highly refined curriculum and teaching systems and where close supervision is practised 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 are emphasised in this theory within an atmosphere of clear-cut manager-subordinate relationship. Though elements of the scientific management of

supervision can still be found in schools, by and large, traditional scientific management is not currently in favour. Its basic building and precepts are still thought to be attractive by many policy makers, administrators and supervisors. The ideas have not changed but strategies for implementing these ideas have.

Human relations supervision: The human relations supervision emerged during the 1930s. The works of Mary Parker Follet, Elton Mayo and others are important in the development of human relations supervision. They believed that the productivity of workers could be increased by meeting their social needs at work, providing them with opportunities to interact with each other, treating them decently, and involving them in decision-making process. The classic research carried out at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company of Chicago in 1920s gave testimony to these ideas. Human relations supervision can be applied to the school situation. Teachers were viewed as whole persons in their own right rather than as 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 objective was to make teachers feel that they were useful and important to the school. Human relations approach promised much but delivered little. The problem was as a result of how the approach should work. It eventually resulted in the widespread neglect of teachers and the participatory supervision became permissive supervision, which in practice was the laissez-faire supervision.

The focus now on human relations supervision is still an emphasis on “winning friends” in an attempt to influence people. Although this approach developed considerably up till the 1950s when it became clear that increases in school productivity would not be achieved merely by assuring the happiness of teachers.

Human resources supervision: According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), “in 1967, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development’s Commission on Supervision Theory concluded its 4 -year study with a report entitled: Supervision, Perspectives and Propositions (p.14). The head of the team was William Lucio. The report discussed scientific management and human relations vie on supervision to combine emphasis on both tasks and human concerns into a new theory. The main features of domains, individual commitment and self-responsibility. In the school situation, there is high regard for teachers’ needs, potential and satisfaction. Teachers have a sense of worth and importance. Teachers are again, creative and innovative because room is created for them to contribute their quota for the achievement of the educational goals.

Principles of Supervision

Supervision like any other service cannot function effectively without laid down principles governing it. Sidhu (1996) enumerates these as the twelve principles of good supervision. That is supervision should contribute to the general efficiency and improvement of the school and to the professional growth of teachers; Supervision should be done sympathetically; Supervision should be very thorough and comprehensive; Supervision should try to assess

the spirit of a school in addition to its instructional work. This spirit will be reflected by records of staff meetings, programmes of the morning assembly, co-curricular activities, experimental projects, standards of discipline, and the human relationships in the school; The individuality of the teacher should be respected; Supervision should not be cursory in character; The work and ability should not be judged in a few minutes; The supervisor should not hold back praise when it is deserved; The supervisor should not expect impossibilities from the teachers; Inspection should not be confined to the four walls of the school. Those done outside the school should be assessed; Inspections should be done in advance. The academic work of the school will be thoroughly checked by a panel of experts with supervisor as chairman (p.310).

Aims of Supervision

There are a number of aims and purposes of which supervisory services has to fulfil. Sidhu (1996) has summed up these aims as it provides professional leadership to educational workers so as to improve their work and give them correct direction; It offers technical service to teachers in the form of teaching techniques, instructional aids, diagnostic techniques and remedial measures; It promotes the professional growth of all teachers by providing in-service training now and then; It clarifies and interprets educational goals for educational institutions and gives them all types of help and guidance to achieve these goals. Negatively speaking, supervisory service aims at checking inefficiency and negligence in schools, finding out serious lapses and irregularities in their functioning and ensuring that all these short – comings are removed. Positively speaking, it aims at offering new, forward looking and

constructive suggestions to educational workers. It also goes to their help in solving their difficulties. It is the duty of the supervisor to inspire teachers by his wise counselling; It aims at appraising the work of educational institutions so that those not doing well may be encouraged to do better and those doing well may be guided to come up to the mark (p.228).

Functions of Supervision

Burton, cited in Oliva and Pawlas (2001), listed the tasks he saw pertinent to the supervisor and labelled it “arenas”. These they pointed out as, the improvement of the teaching act (classroom visits, individual and group conference, directed teaching, demonstration teaching, development of standards for self-improvement among others); The improvement of teachers in service (teachers’ meetings, professional readings, bibliographies and reviews bulletins, inter-visitation, self-analysis and criticism, etc.); The selection and organisation of subject-matter (setting up objectives, studies of subject matter and learning activities, experimental testing of materials, constant revision of courses, the selection and evaluation of supplementary instructional materials, etc.); Testing and measuring (the use of standardised and local tests for classification, diagnosis, guidance, etc.); The rating of teachers (the development and use of rating cards and checklists, stimulation of self-rating) (pp.20-21). Oliva and Pawlas (2001) quoted Burton’s work above as, “the first modern statement and concept” of supervision (p.20). The contents are still relevant in examining the numerous tasks that supervisors actually perform today.

Harris (1985) also enumerated ten tasks of the supervisor as

Developing curriculum: Designing or redesigning that, which is to be taught by whom, when, where and in what pattern. Developing curriculum guides, establishing standards, planning instructional units and the instituting new courses are example of this area; Organising for instruction: Making arrangements whereby students, staff, space and materials are related to time and instructional objectives in co-ordinate and efficient ways, for instance, grouping of students, planning schedules, assigning spaces, allocating time for instruction, scheduling, planning events, and arranging for teaching teams; Providing staff: Ensuring that there is availability of instructional staff in adequate members and with appropriate competencies for facilitating instruction. Recruiting, screening, selecting, assigning and transferring staff are endeavours of this area; Providing facilities: Designing and redesigning and equipping facilities for instruction, the development of space and equipment specifications is included in this area; Providing materials: Selecting and obtaining appropriate materials for use in implementing curricular designs. Previewing, evaluating, designing and otherwise finding ways to provide appropriate materials; Arranging for in-service education: Planning and implementing learning experiences that will improve the performance of the staff in instruction-related ways. This involves workshops, consultations, field trips, and training sessions, as well as formal education; Orienting staff members: Providing staff members with basic information necessary to carry out assigned responsibilities. This includes getting new staff members acquainted with facilities, staff and community but it also involves keeping the staff informed of organisational developments;

Relating special pupil services: Arranging for careful co-ordination of services to children to ensure optimum support for the teaching process; Developing public relations: Providing for free flow information on matters of instruction to and from the public while securing optimum levels of involvement in the promotion of better instruction; Evaluating instruction: Planning, organising and implementing procedures for data gathering, analysis and interpretation, and decision making for improvement of instruction.

Content of Supervision

Sidhu (1996) looks at these as the contents of supervision. Instructional work: The supervisor is concerned with the improvement of instruction. He, therefore, has to observe the methods of teaching, the audiovisual aids employed, the time table, distribution of work among teachers, written work of teachers and its correction, teachers' diaries and the entire planning of instructional work of the school.

Concerning co-curricular activities, along with instructional work, the supervisor has to supervise co-curricular activities like sports and games, educational tours and library service in the school; The supervisor has to examine all sorts of school records and registers. He has to scrutinise all government's accounts and student's funds. And make sure that they are not misused and misappropriated. He has to verify the school stocks of equipments and apparatuses; School Environments: He has to look into the school discipline, general behaviour of students and their habit of cleanliness; Development Aspects: The supervisor tries to assess whether the school is justifying its existence or not by examining the various steps taken by the

school to serve the community. He obtains the report of the school about its year to year progress towards educational objectives. He is also concerned with the all round development of the students.

Another area is Guidance. The supervisor is expected to help and guide the teachers in their activities and programmes and construction of test; analysing test results and remedial measures; in planning and initiating instructional devices; in conducting workshops for the study of special problems; in utilising community resources for enriching classroom teaching; and in their overall professional growth. He arranges and holds meetings and conferences of teachers so that they discuss their problems.

In terms of management, he runs his own office as a clearing house of new ideas, techniques and practices for the improvement of instruction. He has to collect statistics of, deal with aided schools and their managing committees. He has to arrange for the onward communication of the large number of orders and curricular issued from the directorate, the disbursement of grants received from the government for the schools in his area, holding a number of enquiries and investigations as a result of complaints, sanctioning leave, appointing and transferring teachers, providing clarification and interpretation of rules, conducting surprise inspections from time to time, acting as a channel for departmental correspondence, and making various recommendations about various schools (p.297).

Types of Supervision and Supervisors

In Ghana, there are two types of supervision - external and internal supervision. This is in line with Neagley and Evans' (1970) concept of

supervision. The Internal Supervision refers to supervision in the various institutions by the institutional heads while the external supervision deals with supervision from the local, district or national office. They look at the internal supervision as the principal in present day public school organisation as the chief school administrator and the representative in the day- to- day administration and supervision of the school. Musaaazi (1985) sees internal supervision as a situation where the head is to ensure the improvement and the making of the instructional process more effective.

Musaaazi (1985), also talks about three types of supervision namely, full supervision, where all aspects of organisation and instructional work are carefully examined. Routine supervision also involves discussion with teachers on specific issues. He talks of casual or check-up visits which are usually informal. Here, the supervisor forms an opinion on what he sees. This is, however, noted for further future action (p.228).

Having looked at the various aspects of supervision, the issue to consider is who a supervisor is? Oliva and Pawlas (2001) note “a supervisor is anyone who oversees the work of another” (p.14). They further explained that if the concept of supervision is limited to management of resources and personnel, then the administrator is labelled as a supervisor. However, if we delimit supervision to the means of improving curriculum and instruction, we may not conclude that every administrator is an instructional supervisor. Thus, any school official who assists teachers in improving curriculum and instruction is a supervisor.

On the question of types of supervisors, Oliva and Pawlas (2001), again refer to supervisors as auxiliary personnel or staff (p.16). They

continued by quoting Sturges who recommended two types of instructional supervisors. These he said are, “The Consultative Instructional Supervisor and the Administrative Instructional Supervisor” (p.67). He stated that the Consultative Instructional Supervisor is concerned with the improvement of instruction and works closely with teachers. The Administrative Instructional Supervisor on the other hand is also concerned with the improvement of instruction but from controlling and co-ordinating level. In most cases, according to him, the Administrative Instructional Supervisor is housed at a central office. His duties, he said, include administrative functions and the overall co-ordination of the instructional programme.

Oliva and Pawlas (2001), again describe two types of supervisors as Generalists and Specialists. According to them, the Generalists are the supervisors who have responsibilities for supervising teachers in a number of grades or in a variety of subjects. They possess expertise and experience in at least one teaching field. They also supervise in areas they have or have had no special training at all. They are experts at teaching and know good general methods and classroom managements. Generalists, according to them, understand learning theories and have broad view of the curriculum. In Ghana, heads of institutions, district and regional directors of education can be put under this group. The Specialists, they say are the type of supervisors who have depth of preparation and experience in a particular level of subjects. They know the subject thoroughly and also know modern techniques and latest trends in teaching. This group of supervisors possesses some of the same knowledge and skills as the generalist. They also understand learning theories and can help teachers with classroom management and methodology. The

specialists can help the teacher on the appropriate use of Teaching/Learning Materials (TLMs). They know the sources of useful TLMs to teachers. Whereas the specialists have more limited view of the curriculum and instruction than the generalists, the specialists work within one area and the generalist works across areas (p.73). Circuit Supervisors in Ghana can be likened to specialists. In Ghana, both Generalists Supervisors and Specialists Supervisors are found at the headquarters of the education sector, the regional level, district and the school levels. Meanwhile, different supervisors at each level have their peculiar role to play as far as supervision is concerned in Ghana.

Educational Policy on Supervision in Ghana

Anderson cited in Thompson (1984) emphasises that to a large extent, what education is and does is not determined by the educator but by others (p.22). The government of Ghana had realised supervision as the main lever for bringing about change in the educational delivery system in the country. It is against this background that the 2001 Policies and Strategic Plans for the education sector outline four elements in school quality assurance policy. These are: inspection, external supervision and support, monitoring, and internal supervision and management. These four elements, according to the policy document are “combined in a multi-layered, integrated school inspection and supervision system with a clear distinction between inspection and supervision functions” (p.29). On the issue of supervision, the document makes it clear that; the skills of the Circuit Supervisor will be upgraded through training. Again, supervision system will remain decentralised, with quality control of supervision in the hands of the National Inspectorate.

The document grouped the main elements of school supervision and quality management into two categories as: Supervision which is external to the school: This type of supervision provides an element of independent inspection. Supervision based in the school: This aspect of supervision forms the basic layer of self regulation and school based improvement under the responsibility of the headteacher. This policy document has realised the importance of the role of headteachers in supervision and had placed the responsibility of the school-based supervision on their shoulders. Meanwhile, the document made no provision for training and development for headteachers as supervisors and their supervisees. They, therefore, need adequate tools for the accomplishment of their job.

Training and Developing the Teacher

Throughout the globe, nations are struggling to revive their educational sectors. Among the key elements of these revivals or reforms is the development of the teacher who is the most important agent in the educational revival. But Oliva and Pawlas (2001) regret that specialist in supervision limit their supervisory tasks to a single domain. They have the view that supervisors focus on instructional or curriculum rather than improvement on the staff member. Training and development is very vital for teachers in executing their duties. Mathis and Jackson (2000), see training as, “a process whereby people acquire capabilities to aid in the achievement of organisational goals” (p.317). They made clear distinction between training and development and that the latter is, Broader in scope and focusing on individuals gaining new capabilities useful for both present and future jobs” (p.317). On the explanation of staff

development, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) quoted Dale “the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute towards an individual’s being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role” (p.355). Oliva and Pawlas (2001), note “staff development connotes the idea of training, the goal of which is improvement of the persons who make up the organisation and the organisation itself” (p.354). Glatthorn cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) see staff development as, “the provision of organised in-service programmes designed to foster the growth of teachers” (p.11).

On the question of in-service training as a means of developing the teacher, Vellegas-Reimas (2003) has this to say, “the meaning of in-service education is changing, and it varies from country to country depending on the level of preparation teachers receive prior to their entering the profession” (p.55). Bolam, cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), sees in-service training as,

Those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary schoolteachers and principals, following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively (p.55).

Vellegas-Reimas (2003) again quoted Ingvarson on the meaning of in-service training as, “where the employers have control, the government establish goals, the actors can be universities, employers or consultants, and the models used are usually short-term courses or workshops which are not

necessarily related to practical issues” (p.16). In the Ghana Education Service, in-service training is often used to update teachers’ knowledge.

There are however criticisms of in-service training. Castro and Davini stated in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), “the content of in-service courses does not cater for the needs of teachers, and teachers do not have a systematic way of communicating to administrators (who are in-charge of developing these courses) that which they need to” (p.62). Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quotes Castro “educators of in-service training courses are poorly prepared” (p.62). Subira and Nogales commented in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), “courses are theory oriented and do not address practical concerns.” (p.62); Sidhu (1996) also said that supervisors lack adequate training and are unsatisfactory in quality. ; Tovar in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) also said that courses are offered in locations difficult to reach, particularly by those teachers who need the courses most (p.63). ; Vellegas-Reimas (2003) again referred to Davini and Schiefelein et al. that there are few reading materials related to the field available to teachers (p. 63). Vonk expressing his view on the limitations of in-service training as stated in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) has these to say that there is lack of clarity on the part of participants; concerning the aims and objectives of this kind of training, many in-service training activities do not target the main goal of improving the professional competence of teachers; and in-service training providers transmit the knowledge and skills they have, regardless of their relevance to the recipients (p.63). Kievet; Sato and Ushiwata stated in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) noted that majority of in-service training programmes are too short, too unrelated to the needs of teachers and too ineffective to upgrade teaching knowledge (p.63). Jesness cited in

Vellegas-Reimas (2003) commenting on the nature of in -service training and staff development had this to say, “anyone who thinks education can be substantially improved with workshops probably hasn’t ever attended one” (p.93).

Means of developing the teacher have taken a new dimension to professional development. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quoted Glatthorn, “teacher professional development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his/her teaching systematically” (p.11). Vellegas-Reimas (2003) see this to imply both formal experiences (like workshops and seminars) and informal experiences (which include reading professional publications and watching television documentaries which are related academic discipline). On the part of Grace, noted in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), he views professional development as, “a collaborative process with interactions among teachers, administrators, parents and community members” (p.14).

Vellegas-Reimas (2003) commented on the new dimension of developing the teacher said that this perspective is new to teaching. The only form of professional development available to teachers was, ‘staff development’ or ‘in-service training’ which consists of workshops or short-term courses that offers new information on a particular aspect of their work (p.11). Vellegas-Reimas (2003) observed that the in-service training was the only type of training teachers would receive and was usually unrelated to teachers’ work. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) referred to Cochran-Smith and Lytle; Walling and Lewis that only in the past years has professional development been considered a long term process that includes regular opportunities and

systematically to promote growth and development in the profession (p.12). These professionals referred to professional development as “a revolution in the teacher education” (p.12). Glatthorn as cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) compared professional development to staff development that professional development is broader than staff development (p.11).

Training for unqualified teachers as a means of developing the teacher, Vellegas-Reimas (2003) noted, “in-service training is the only preparation teachers would receive when they are hired while not yet having qualified (or certified) teacher status” (p.50).

Vellegas-Reimas (2003) in clarifying better option in developing the staff quoted Cohen, Ganser, Lieberman and Dudzinski et al. that a series of related experiences (rather than one-off presentations) is seen to be the most effective as it allows teachers to relate prior knowledge to new experiences (p.13). Abdal-Haqq (1996) notes that the most effective form of professional development is that which is based in schools and is related to the daily activities of teachers and learners. Wood and McQuarrie, cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), on the issue of the effective means of developing the teacher had this to say, “the most successful teacher professional development opportunities are ‘on-the- job learning’” (p.14). Guskey and Loucks-Horsley stated in Vellegas-Reimas (2003), note “professional development is a process of culture building and not of mere training” (p.14).

Concerning the role of professional development, Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin; Shifter, Russel, and Bastable stated in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) comments that the role of professional development is to aid teachers in building new pedagogical theories and practices (p.14). Pre-service teacher

preparation is also a form of professional development. Concerning quality of teacher candidates, Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quotes Schieffelin and Tedesco that the majority of teacher candidates entering the teaching profession are among the least qualified of all students who are entering the professional workforce (p.50). Assigning reason for poor academic preparation of candidates entering the teaching field, Benejam and Espinet (1992) observe that there are not enough qualified teachers to satisfy demands.

Concerning the nature of teacher training or preparation for the Basic level in the country, The Report of The Institute of Education (2007) identified the problem of the philosophy behind the training of teachers in the country. The report stated that teachers at the Basic level are trained to be generalist teachers. With the complexity and voluminous nature that the subject content is becoming, where a teacher's competence do not lie within the teaching of a particular subject, poor performance is likely to be carried out to students. On the entry behaviour of new entrants into teacher training colleges, the report pointed out that generally, candidates entered the teacher training colleges with very weak grades since most of them applied after having failed to gain admission to other tertiary institutions. Meanwhile, attempts to raise aggregate may also lead to inadequate number of applicants to the colleges. The duration of the out component of Diploma in Basic Education programme is also another factor identified by the report. All teacher trainees need a solid content base to enable them to teach effectively. The report emphasised that currently, teacher trainees spend one year out of the three years on the field. The report also hinted that there are also inefficiencies of mentoring, supervision and co-ordination.

Another sensitive and critical area that the report emphasised is The Untrained Teachers' Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) programme. According to the report, "It has the weakest entry behaviour of applicants. The content of their programme is also weak structurally. The credit weightings of the core subjects are woefully inadequate. The report continued that, the total number of credits for the programme is lower than those of the regular Diploma in Basic education Programme. Another area within the teacher preparation that the report commented is that, the content and structure of the three programmes (regular, sandwich and the UTDBE) being run in the teacher training colleges are not the same.

Teachers are expected to ensure effective teaching and learning in their schools. Their competencies will ensure that their effectiveness and efficiency positively affect the academic and professional competencies of such teachers which have direct bearing on the quality of their performance and as a result the achievement of pupils.

The Concept of Competence and Its Implication to Headteacher's Role in Supervision

Expectations for competent people are high. It is against this background that competent people on the job, whether subordinates or superordinates are those who are able to meet their performance expectations. As noted by Armstrong (1999), they are capable of using their knowledge, skills and personal attributes (attitudes) to achieve the objectives and standards specified for their personal roles. The concept of competencies was first popularised by Boyatzis in 1982. Through research, Boyatzis discovered a

range of factors differentiated successful from less successful managers. The range of factors of supervisor competence according to Torrington and Hall (1998), cited Boyatsis' elements of competency as: It may be a trait, which is a characteristic or quality that a person has, like efficacy; it may be a motive, which is drive or thought related to a particular goal, like achievement, which is a need to improve the competence against a standard of excellence; it may be a skill, which is the ability to demonstrate a sequence of behaviour that is functionally related to attaining a performance goal. Being able to tune and diagnose faults in a car engine is a skill because it requires the ability to identify a sequence of actions, which will accomplish a specific objective. It also involves being able to identify potential obstacles and sources of help in overcoming them; it may be a person's self-image, which is the understanding we have of ourselves and an assessment of where we stand in the context of values held by others in our environment, for example, "I am creative and innovative. I am expressive and care about others." It may be a person's social role, which is a perception of the social norms, and behaviours that are acceptable and the behaviours that the person then adopts in order to fit in or it may also be a body of knowledge (p .416).

Competencies are required for superior performance and if these are the elements of competency, then instructional supervisors need to reflect in that direction. Torrington and Hall (1998), quoted Boyatsis' definition on competency as, "an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and or superior performance in a job; they include personal skills, knowledge, motives, traits, self-image and social role" (p.416). They did not, however, see eye to eye with him when he used the same meaning of

competence for competency. They, therefore, came out with the difference as competence being the general ability to do something to an acceptable level. They, however, quoted Woodruffe's definition on competency to bring out the difference as, "a competency is a set of behaviour patterns that the incumbent needs to bring to a position in order to perform its task and functions with competence." Torrington and Hall (1998) then came out with their definition on competence as, "the general ability to do something to an acceptable level" (p.418).

Competencies, from the HRSG's; Comprehensive Competency Dictionary are general descriptions of the behaviour or actions needed to successfully perform within a particular (work) context (for example job, group of jobs). Roberts (1997) see competency as all the work related personal attributes; knowledge, skills, and values that a person draws upon to do their work well.

In his view of the concept of competency, Armstrong (1999) claims that competence is essentially about performance .It is also directly concerned with the factors contributing to high levels of individual contributions and, therefore, organisational or institutional effectiveness. He goes on to say that, a number of people contend that competency is only concerned with behaviour which is capable of transforming personal attributes such as knowledge, skills, and attitudes of job holders into output (immediate results) and outcomes (long-term contributions).

Considering the various views on competency, it can be concluded that competencies are all actions taken by the overseer that are related to those that help orient the organisation towards its objectives. Torrington and Hall (1998)

gave the advantage of competencies and said that, they can be used in an integrated way of selection, development, appraisal and reward activities. The behavioural indicators can be derived against which assessment can take place.

Many organisations are developing competency profile as a means of setting the criteria against which selection can be made. Competencies are required for greater performance. The various studies of the concept of competence give an in-depth discussion of the subject. The use of the word can, therefore, be understood meaningfully and applied to the area of research which seeks to address the competencies of headteachers of basic schools in the Kwaebibirem District. The issues about competency have great implications for heads of schools in their role as supervisors of instruction.

Competencies for Instructional Improvement

Instructional improvement is a unique role for instruction. Competencies needed for such a unique and demanding form of educational leadership are numerous. Harris (1976, p.334) quoted Special Education Supervisor Training Project, Document No. 7, and enumerated twenty – four (24) Critical Professional Supervisory Competencies titles as:

- A. Developing Curriculum
 - A.1 Setting instructional goals
 - A.2 Designing instructional units
 - A.3 Developing and adapting curricula
- B. Developing Learning Resources
 - B.1 Evaluating and selecting learning materials

- B.2 Producing learning materials
- B.3 Evaluating the utilisation of learning resources
- C. Staffing for instruction
 - C.1 Developing a staff plan
 - C.2 Recruiting and selecting personnel
 - C.3 Assigning personnel
- D. Organising for instruction
 - D.1 Revising existing structure
 - D.2 Assimilating programmes
 - D.3 Monitoring new arrangements
- E. Utilising supporting services
 - E.1 Analysing and securing services
 - E.2 Orienting and utilising specialised personnel
 - E.3 Scheduling services
 - E.4 Evaluating and utilisation of services
- F. Providing In- Service Education.
 - F.1 Supervising in a clinical mode
 - F.2 Planning for individual growth
 - F.3 Designing in- service training sessions
 - F.4 Conducting in- service training sessions
 - F.5 Training for leadership roles

G. Relating to Public

G.1 Informing the public

G.2 Involving the public

G.3 Utilising public opinion

The basic idea of competency - based training is that it should be criterion-oriented, directed at developing the ability of trainees to perform specific tasks directly related to the job they are in or for which they are prepared, expressed in terms of performance outcomes and specific indicators. The mere fact that someone is in the teaching service and has the rank of Senior Superintendent, Principal Superintendent or Assistant Director and bears the title of 'headteacher' does not necessarily mean that the individual is competent enough in terms of having the right attitude for knowledge of, or skills in performing a task as challenging but professionally developmental as supervision.

Assessing Competencies

The vehicle or key to sound instructional leadership is based on assessed competencies. From the concept of competency reviewed, it is clear that, competencies are descriptions of behaviour or actions needed to successfully perform a job. Since competence assessment is mostly based on behaviour, it would be expedient to adopt attitude measurement in assessing headteachers' competencies.

Attitude as defined by Oppenheim (1966) is "a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with stimuli." (p.105). He continued by saying that, the individual's attitude present is

dormant most of the time. According to him; they become expressed in speech or other behaviour only when the object of the attitude is perceived.

There are many attitude scales which can be used to measure competence. In order to arouse the interest of the researcher's respondents, the Likert Scale had been selected to assess the competencies of headteachers. The rationale behind the choice is that: it has a high degree of validity; it provides single scores from a set of items; it has a very high reliability; allows ranking from respondents, and it is relatively easy to construct.

The Likert Scale, according to Sarantakos (1998), was developed by Likert in 1932. Sarantakos claims that, the scale operates in a similar way as to that of the Thurstone Scale (an earlier developed attitude measuring scale). He asserts that, it consists of items of equal value and a set of response categories constructed around a continuum of agreement/disagreement to which subjects are asked to respond (p.89).

The Likert scale is produced or constructed as described by Oppenheim (1966) as follows: An item pool is composed Six –answer response categories are assigned to each item categories ranging from 6 “Very Often” , down to 1 for “ Never” including numerical values for example, 1-6 respectively. Statements are administered to respondents in a pilot study. The record of each respondent is scored, item scores are added up for a total score. The total scores are computed. Lastly, an item – analysis to determine the best statements for the scale is carried out. Items with substantial correlation are retained and items with low correlation are discarded. The constructed scale is then administered to all respondents (p.133).

The Role of the Headteacher in Supervision

The Centre for Continuing Education (2000, p.129) cited Robbins and Alvy and classifies the supervisory role of the head into three, notably:

General supervisory role: This includes the school community relationship, curriculum instruction and appraisal, staff personnel, student personnel, school plant and financial management of the school. Instructional supervisory role: This concerns the direct role the head has to play relating to classroom teaching and learning. This includes the ability to secure teaching and learning materials and supervision of their effective and efficient use. The head should properly supervise the activities of his teachers. He also has to ensure that the teachers give students enough exercises and assess their performance. He should offer the teacher all the assistance he requires. He should also create a congenial atmosphere for students to learn without fear or intimidation. Evaluation of teacher performance: Robbins and Alvy as quoted in CCEUCC (2000, p.131), a typical teacher performance evaluation should include two main areas: Instructional and curriculum area: This is classified into three areas namely: Classroom methods and techniques: The teacher is assessed to determine whether he/she uses a variety of instructional techniques and materials to facilitate teaching and learning, demonstrates skill full questioning techniques among others. Curriculum: The teacher is assessed whether he/she displays breadth and depth of subject matter knowledge; relate content to the age and level of students. Classroom climate: Here, the teacher is assessed to find out if for instance, he/she provides opportunities for all students to learn and experience success, or communicates often with students

and encourages classroom dialogue. Professional areas: This is classified into three: Teacher relations and communications; Professional competencies and qualities; Professional growth and development.

The Instructional Supervisor

The instructional supervisor exercises various roles within specific domains. These include instructional, curricular and staff development. He assists teachers in the improvement of instruction, curriculum planning and improvement, and personal and professional growth and development. Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) contends that a supervisor's work is to stimulate teachers and children's enthusiasm for the improvement of their work (p.82). To be able to perform these roles, the supervisor must possess a wide repertoire of knowledge and skills because what is universally true throughout the school systems is that, much is expected of all supervisors.

Currently, supervision is giving and receiving help in an effort to improve instruction. This effort is concerned with what to teach, when it should be taught, to whom, by whom, and how to teach it. In carrying out these functions, the supervisor becomes an overseer and the person responsible for the well being of his men in good heart.

The supervisor must be a helper to teachers. He should be able to effect a democratic environment in which the contributions of each participating member are valued. The supervisor must be able to live with change and help teachers adapt to changing needs of society and of children. He should be able to work effectively in both one-to-one relationships and groups.

The instructional supervisor is required to encourage better teacher output and ensure that productivity is maintained. He is not judged on how well he guides his subordinates but on how well his unit functions and produces. It is also the duty of the supervisor to point out to the teachers, their strengths and weaknesses and offer them the needed assistance. Mbiti (1974) describes supervision as “sensory system” in an organisation (p.11).

It is again clear that supervision has significant influence on successful schools. This, to a large extent, depends on the head. Glatthorn (1994) agrees to the point that principals (heads) play a very active part in developing special curricular for their schools.

In view of the various ideas of experts put forward, it can be deduced that a competent head as an instructional supervisor should be someone who has the expertise and knowledge in the field of instructional related matters and is responsible for providing services to teachers and students that will eventually result in improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

Challenges in Supervision

Much as there are numerous benefits to providing high quality and effective supervision, there remain many challenges and obstacles to the delivery of good supervision as noted by Impact Research Group Publications (2003, p.13) as follows: There is inadequate training of supervisors. Also, the supervisors lack the expertise to enable them to supervise effectively. Heads in general, do not have adequate training. Supervisors are not made to go into any agreement as to the sanctions if they fail to deliver. Another common barrier to supervision is that, there is no supervision for the supervisors. In

most cases, they work as they desire. The workers who are in the fore front and are supposed to work for the achievement of the organisational goals lack adequate preparation.

Sidhu (1996), also consider the issue at stake as “drawbacks” in supervision. In his view, schools have multiplied tremendously and that, there is no appropriate expansion in the supervisory service. He quoted Mohiyuddin that,

Education expansion has outgrown administrative capacity.....whereas money had to be spent in establishing more and more schools, not so much money has been spent in expanding the inspectorate. The inspectorate staffs are generally found to be inadequate in numbers and unsatisfactory in quality (p.290).

Again, to Sidhu (1996), majority of the educational supervisors are heavily involved in the performance of official routine in the office and find themselves lacking in stamina, energy and enthusiasm for academic work. He supported his argument by quoting the observation made by the Indian Education Commission that the combination of administrative and supervisory functions by the same officer affects supervision adversely because administrative work which has increased greatly in recent years always has a priority (p.294). The Commission again saw, “lack of adequate competence in the inspecting staff” (p.294). Sidhu (1996, p.291) again realised recruitment procedure as defective since supervisors are appointed on the basis of seniority

alone. To him, there is no other criterion of suitability or merit. Lastly, in his view, the supervisor is also supposed to examine the work of every subject teacher irrespective of whether he is qualified or not.

Summary

The review sees supervision as actions that help teachers to improve instruction for students. When competent instructional supervisors are employed, the educational goals are likely to be achieved because supervision contributes to school effectiveness. The difference between administration and supervision made clear that supervision is a special service which represents portion of the job delegated to the supervisory staff by administrators and looks after the overall direction of the school enterprise.

The literature on the role of headteachers in supervision, the instructional supervisor, competencies for instructional improvement and assessing competencies has yielded information on how to measure the components of competence. Thus, the researcher has acquired the knowledge and skills to construct the appropriate instrument for the study.

Finally, the review shows what needs to be done to make supervisors aware of their roles and how they can work to achieve the educational goals of the country.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology that was used in carrying out the study. It discusses the population and sample as well as research design that was adopted for the study and the instrument that was used.

Research Design

The study was a descriptive survey and its fundamental aim was to find out the competence level of heads of public basic schools as supervisors as perceived by teachers, headteachers and Circuit Supervisors in the Kwaebibirem District. According to Osuala (1982), descriptive research is the type which specifies the nature of a given phenomena (p.197). It determines and reports the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Sarantakos, 1998). Descriptive research thus, involves data collection in order to test hypothesis or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. The rationale for selecting the descriptive design was that, it helped the researcher get accurate information on headteachers and Circuit Supervisors in relation to the competence level of headteachers within the Kwaebibirem District. Besides, it assisted the researcher to construct standardised questionnaire which provided data in the

same form from all respondents. To add more to the points raised, the use of descriptive survey enabled the researcher to observe, describe and document aspects of the situation as they naturally occur rather than explaining them. Lastly, this method afforded the researcher the opportunity to select sample from the population being studied and made generalisation from the study of the sample.

Notwithstanding the merits of survey design, the researcher encountered some weaknesses. It was found that there was diverse opinion between Circuit Supervisors' response and that of the headteachers on certain characteristics pertaining to headteachers. This is evident with common knowledge that, there is the tendency of careless responses given in an offhand manner by respondents that is sometimes at variance with the more serious opinion that are expressed as actual decisions.

In order to overcome the demerits associated with the descriptive design into this study, the purpose of the study was thoroughly explained to respondents and their confidentiality and safety also assured. A pilot test of instruments was conducted to help correct all ambiguities and questions which could pose problems to respondents. Also, to ensure a hundred per cent return rate of questionnaire, the researcher administered them personally. In a situation where respondents were not ready to return questionnaire on the same day, an arrangement was made for another time.

Population

The study targeted 227 basic schools in the Kwaebibirem District. A total of 207 headteachers, 10 Circuit Supervisors and 1140 teachers in the

Kwaebibirem District constituted the population for the study. The Table 1 shows the information on the different categories of the population of the study.

Table 1
Number of Circuit Supervisors, Schools, Teachers and Headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District

Circuit	Number of C/S	Number of Schools		Number of Teachers		Number of Headteachers	
		PRIM.	J.H.S	PRIM	J.H.S	PRIM.	J.H.S.
Akwatia	01	19	15	106	91	16	15
Kade 'A'	01	16	09	91	56	14	09
Kade 'B'	01	13	11	64	57	09	11
Asuom	01	16	10	80	54	13	10
Boadua	01	12	08	61	48	12	08
Otumi	01	12	06	53	24	10	06
Takyiman	01	13	08	62	37	11	08
Wenchi	01	20	09	93	39	18	09
Atobiriso	01	08	05	29	18	07	05
Abaam	01	11	06	50	27	10	06
Total	10	140	87	689	451	120	87

Source: GES, Kwaebibirem District.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample consists of a carefully selected subset of the units that comprise the population. Descriptive design is concerned with the present

status of a phenomenon and considering the fact that the population for the study is too large to cover within the period for the study, the researcher used the table provided by Krejcie and Morgan cited in Sarantakos (1998, p.161) to determine the sample size of the population. Using simple random sampling procedure, 300 teachers were selected to serve as respondents in this study. First, 60 schools were selected out of the 227 schools in the district by simple random sampling technique using the lottery method. The schools were listed and numbers were assigned to each school. These numbers were written on pieces of papers and put into a basket. Numbers corresponding to schools were picked until the required sample size was obtained. This technique gave all schools an equal chance of being selected.

The headteacher of each selected school was automatically selected as a respondent. In all, 60 headteachers were selected. Four other teachers from each selected school who have taught for more than one year were also selected to serve as respondents. A total of 240 teachers were selected as respondents. This was achieved using simple random method. A list of teachers in each of the selected schools was provided by the headteacher. The listed names were assigned numbers on pieces of paper. These pieces of papers were folded, put into a box and vigorously mixed up. A slip of paper was picked from the box and the remaining slips were then picked until the four teachers were selected. The process was repeated for the remaining schools.

The Circuit Supervisors were purposively selected as respondents. The rationale for using the purposive sampling is explained by Sarantakos (1998) that (also known as judgemental sampling) researchers purposely choose

subjects who, in their opinion, are thought to be relevant to the topic (p.152). In view of this, 10 Circuit Supervisors were purposively selected as respondents because they are in-charge-of supervision and deal directly with headteachers on the field and can provide the needed information. This brought the number of respondents for the study to a total of 310.

Data Collection Instrument

The main data collection instruments for the study were questionnaire for teachers and headteachers and an interview guide for Circuit Supervisors. The reason for the researcher using questionnaire was that, it is widely used for the collection of data and it can be given to a larger number of respondents at the same time. Respondents can also have ample time at their disposal or they can answer the items at their own convenient time. Again, questionnaires are less expensive and can be administered through mail as compared to instruments like interviews and observations. In addition, Centre for Continuing Education (2000) states that questionnaire is stable, consistent and uniform measure without variation and also offer greater assurance of anonymity (p.176). Since no instrument had been found that specifically measures the level of headteachers' supervisory competence in the Public Basic Schools in Ghana, the researcher developed her own questionnaire. The initial items were constructed by identifying instructional supervisory problems; issues and ideas frequently found in literature, seminars and workshop reports on instruction. The questionnaire consisted of two main segments. Section 'A' focused on respondents' biographic data concerning their qualification, work experience and present rank in the Ghana Education Service.

The section 'B' carried closed-ended and open-ended questions on perceived supervisory performance of headteachers based on established areas of instructional supervision and their level of involvement in instructional development as supervisors. The reason for the choice of closed-ended items and open-ended items are that, the former prevents respondents from deviation and giving superfluous responses; results are easy to analyse and also make the work of the respondents easier though they are difficult to construct. The latter on the other hand, provides more useful but unanticipated information. Since they require greater effort, on the part of respondents, returns are always small. It is also difficult to interpret hence; the reader needs to be a critical reader to see the information which are explicitly stated and those that are implicitly stated. This segment had sub-sections based on the 5 research questions.

The questionnaires for both teachers and headteachers consisted of closed ended items and a few open ended questionnaires. This was made up of two sections. Section A asked for information on the biography of respondents, concerning their gender, professional qualification, rank and number of years spent in the school. Section B sought information on headteachers' supervisory competence: their initial training, staff development programmes organised for them, headteachers level of their competence, teachers' perception of headteachers competence and the support they receive from Circuit Supervisors. This section had subsections based on the five research questions. The items in the section were on a five-point likert scale and were weighted as described by Oppenheim (1966, p.134). The rationale for using likert scale is that it helped the researcher to obtain a high degree of

validity. It also allow ranking of the respondents. Then also it is relatively easy to construct. Nonetheless this type of scaling has received some drawbacks which have been pointed out by Kimmon cited in Sarantakos (1998). Total scores referring to many and diverse items say little about a person's response to the various aspects of the research object and also, it is difficult to have equal items in the scale.

The interview schedule for the Circuit Supervisors was a semi-structured one. It affords ample freedom for the researcher to formulate questions and to determine the order of questions. Although interviews are more costly, time consuming and offers less anonymity than other methods, the researcher's choice of interview guide stems from the fact that, respondents will have the opportunity to react verbally to items of particular interest; there is flexibility in it because the interviews can be adjusted to meet many diverse situations; it is easy to be administered because it does not require respondents to have the ability to read. It will also afford the opportunity to observe non-verbal behaviour of respondents. Again to Marshall and Rossman (1999) "an interview is a useful way to get a large amount of data quickly" (p.108). Lastly, the capacity for correcting misunderstanding by respondents is assured since the presence of the interviewer can assist in correcting any misunderstandings as well as assisting in answering the questions. The interview schedule for the Circuit Supervisors contained five items with subsections. This elicited information on research questions on the major perceived areas of supervisory competence: how supervision is carried out, conception of Circuit Supervisors as regards

competent supervisors and some of the activities by Circuit Supervisors to enhance the heads' supervisory competence in the basic schools.

Pilot Testing of Instrument

In order to ascertain the validity, reliability, consistency and appropriateness of the questionnaire instrument and the interview guide, a pilot test of the questionnaire and the interview guide were conducted at the Birim North District. This procedure was necessary because as Leedy (1989), observed "all questionnaire should be pilot tested on a small population" (p.43). This will reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions, and to test whether there will be any items that respondents might have difficulty understanding. This was analysed using Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) to establish the reliability of the test. The reason for selecting Birim North District was that, it has the same characteristics as the study area. The pilot testing was conducted in 3 circuits. Six headteachers and 24 teachers were drawn from 6 schools. Three Circuit Supervisors were involved in this exercise. The rationale for the pilot test was to validate the instrument for the main study. While result for teachers' reliability test (in standard item alpha) was .6560, the result for headteachers' reliability test was .8021 (in standard test alpha). On the basis of the pilot test, results item under question 1 (ii) of the interview schedule which respondents did not understand was revisited.

Data Collection Procedure

A letter of introduction was collected by the researcher from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) and shown to the District Director of Education and the various heads of schools that were

selected. After sampling, the selected teachers and the headteacher were given the questionnaires personally by the researcher. The questionnaires were collected after two weeks. The personal contact helped the researcher to explain some portions of the questionnaire (upon demand) to respondents. Indeed about 95% of questionnaire administered were returned.

The interviews in the study were conducted personally by the researcher. The researcher visited the Circuit Supervisors in their offices. She introduced herself to them individually; explained the intention of the visit and the purpose of the research. She also ensured anonymity and confidentiality, explained details of the research and finally arranged the date for the interview. The interview lasted between thirty and forty-five minutes.

Data Analysis Plan

The data that was collected was analysed using the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS). Each questionnaire was given a serial number for easy identification before scoring the responses. The variables were decoded and interpreted. Descriptive statistics was used and that gave the researcher the opportunity to make precise statements and described things in a more accurate manner. Mean perceived levels of headteachers' supervisory competence and standard deviations were computed. Frequency distribution tables were also used to present the distribution of respondents' perceptions and demographic data.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the introduction of the data that were collected from the field on the perceptions on headteachers' supervisory competence in the Basic Schools in the Kwaebibirem District. The first section deals with the biographic data of respondents for the study.

The study involved a sample of 310 respondents made up of teachers, headteachers and Circuit Supervisors.

:

1. Training after appointment.
2. Staff development programmes.
3. Support by Circuit Supervisors.
4. Headteachers' competence as instructional supervisors.

Demographic Data of Teachers and Headteachers

This section gives an overview of the descriptive statistics of the data collected from teachers and headteachers. Two hundred and forty teachers and 60 headteachers were used as respondents. An analysis of the responses by gender, academic qualification, rank and teaching experience are as follows:

Gender of Teacher / Headteacher Responses

Gender in this context is the classification of sex in masculine and feminine forms. The researcher believes that knowledge should be tapped from both males and females. It is, therefore, imperative to determine if there was fair representation on gender. For the purpose of analysis, simple frequencies and percentages have been derived and used for the assessment for the study. Table 2 presents the result of gender distribution in the study.

Table 2

Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Teachers		Headteachers	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Male	144	60.0	51	85.0
Female	96	40.0	09	15.0
Total	240	100.0	60	100.0

An examination of Table 2 indicates that out of 240 teachers who participated in the study, 144 (60.0% were males while 96(40% were females. This shows that male teachers are in the majority in the district. The male teacher dominance could be that the district being in an agricultural zone attracts male teachers who engage in agricultural activities like citrus and oil palm farms which are the dominant occupation in the area. Meanwhile, the result shows that there is fair representation of gender in the study.

On the part of headteachers, responses from the same table indicates that majority 51(85%) of respondents were male headteachers and only 9

(15%) were female headteachers. There is an indication that more male headteachers are in the district than female headteachers. The male dominance might be attributed to the fact that the district being in the rural area fails to attract female senior teachers or the female senior teachers are denied such a higher responsibility.

It is an undeniable fact that women play second fiddle to men in Ghana and almost everywhere in the world today. There is a glaring gender gap that exists in all areas of endeavour. In administrative positions, it is common that there are few women in spite of their predominance in, for example, teacher and nurse positions. Karikari-Ababio (2000) points out that globally, the ratio of men to women in management position is estimated to be 1:8 (p. 113). He did highlight the strategic plans to bring more women into the scene of management by saying that the United Nations is targeting that a ratio of 3:10 that is 23% of people in management should be women. This figure is insignificant since women constitute the bulk of the population. Ghana alone can boast of fifty-one per cent of women of her population, Ghana Statistical Service Report (2000). Women have been relegated to the background for a long time. The historical analysis highlights the prejudices behind the difficulties which faced women seeking careers in education and while circumstances are different, the basic underlying prejudices are similar. The degree to which these prejudices have prevented many women from reaching their potential in administration is evidenced by continuing absence of women in high positions in education.

Girls and for that matter, women, suffer from low self-esteem. They are, therefore, described as a vulnerable group in our society. This gender

imbalance may also be attributed to social and cultural barriers that have discouraged women and girls from seeking equal opportunities in our society. In Ghana, the education of girls is considered a waste of resources because they would end up as wives in men's homes. The main priority of women is to marry and raise children. Women without husbands and children in African societies are looked down upon.

The barriers to women being in administrative position include: Androcentrism (The practice of viewing the world and shipping reality from male perspective). Women were viewed as less rational than men. Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) confirms that women were not as free as men (p. 3). It is common knowledge that people in administrative positions were unwilling to employ women in senior positions. Women's attitude to further education is also another barrier. Women were generally not socialised to participate in further study. They had difficulty in finding financial support and sponsorship for their studies. In a situation where either a girl-child or a boy-child is to go to school due to financial difficulties within a family, the lot will fall on the boy-child so that the girl-child will work to support the boy-child. This has brought the adult literacy rate among female in Ghana very high. The Ministry of Education, Science and Sports (2008) comparing the male adult illiteracy rate to female adult illiteracy had this to say: "The literacy rate among males (15 years and older) is 37.1 per cent and as high as 54.3 per cent for female" (p.2). In certain cases, women found difficulty with the sexist nature of many instructional materials. Lastly, the lack of available role models seems to be a hindering factor in developing women's aspirations to senior positions.

Highest Professional/Academic Qualification

It is an accepted principle that teachers are the crucial element of any meaningful and in fact are the pivot around which everything else evolves in the teaching and learning process. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) believes that the efficiency of teachers is related to their general education and experience (p.51). Hence, in order to meet the diverse challenges in the educational sector, there is the need to consider the calibre of teachers and headteachers at the various levels of the educational system. The educational qualification of teacher respondents is depicted in Table 3. Simple frequencies and percentages were used in its analysis.

Table 3

Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Highest Academic / Professional Qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Per cent
Pupil teacher	34	14.2
Certificate 'A' (4- Year		
Certificate 'A' (3- Year		
Specialist		
's	21	8.8
University Degree	6	2.5
	240	100.0

Concerning the educational background of teacher respondents, Table 3 reveals that large proportion of teachers are Certificate 'A' (3- Year . This represents 123(51.3 of the total number of respondents. Fifty-four (22.5%) are Certificate 'A' (4-Year) while 34(14%) are pupil teachers (untrained teachers). Whereas 21(8.8%) of the teachers hold Teachers' Diploma Certificate, only 6(2.5%) are with University Degree. Specialists are the minority and they constitute 2(0.8%) of respondents. The reason for specialists being in the minority stems from the fact that, that type of qualification has been phased out of the Ghana Educational Service.

It came out from the study that 34(14%) of the respondents are pupil teachers. According to the President's Committee on review of Education Reforms in Ghana (2002, p.97), in 2000/2001 academic year, out of 19,141 vacancies for teachers at the Basic Level, only 6285 were filled. According to the same report, there was about 6000 annual turn out of teachers from training colleges and teacher attrition rate of about 2000 per annum(p.98). Such problems continue to exist in the public basic schools, thereby compelling the educational authorities to recruit untrained teachers to fill the vacancies created. The reasons of teacher attrition may be due to poor conditions of service in the Ghana Education Service. Teachers in the service are denied of allowances like risk allowance, uniform allowance, accommodation and lunch allowances. It is unfortunate that teachers who are developing themselves through sandwich, distance learning and UTDBE programmes are not considered for fees subsidy/allowance rather the regular trainees at the training colleges are given training allowance. Until the institution of the Nat

¢2.50p)

per year for the teacher, spouse and children. Even this, teachers found it very difficult to access the said medical allowance. Teachers who felt that they could not withstand such frustrations in the education service found themselves in areas where they think conditions of service were better than the Ghana Education Service. Ghana News Agency (2007) confirms this by attributing the inadequate qualified teachers in the system to unattractive service conditions resulting to frustration and large number of them leaving the profession to join other lucrative departments, agencies and institutions. Others also use the teaching profession as a stepping stone. After acquiring higher academic qualification through the teaching service, join other professions where they can better their standard of living.

It is very important for teachers' educational/professional qualification to be upgraded to meet current global standard of teaching. The current educational policy in Ghana as depicted in the Ministry of Education (2001, p.27) stipulates that it is intended that, the basic school teacher qualification be upgraded to obtain diploma/degree certificates at all the Colleges of Education and other universities in the country as well. Among the worried issues are whether all the teachers enrolled in the various programmes are the right materials for those programmes. Taking the content of the Diploma Programme in the Colleges of Education which is to prepare the students especially the regular students for the task for which they were selected leaves much to be desired. All teacher trainees need a solid content base to enable them teach effectively. Currently, regular teacher trainees spend

one year out of the three years on the field only to come back to college to write their final examinations.

The 2007 Report of The Institute of Education attests to the fact that there are problems associated with the teacher preparation at the Basic Level in the country. The report also makes it clear that there are inefficiencies of mentoring, supervision and co-ordination. The issue to ponder over is, “what traits have the teacher mentors, supervisors and co-ordinators to offer the mentees?” The mentors see the presence of the mentees as a relief from duty. The researcher’s experience as a tutor indicated that, some of the mentors allow their mentees to copy the mentors' lesson notes. The continuous absent from duty on the side of the mentors do not help the mentees development on the job. Korda (2008), reports that professional teachers are absent more frequently than untrained teachers (p.11). This makes some of the mentees go back lacking. The philosophy behind the training of teachers in the country is one of the areas the report hinted. According to the report, teachers at the basic level are trained to be generalist teachers. The issue is, with the complexity and voluminous nature that the subject content is becoming, where a teacher’s competence does not lie within the teaching of a particular subject, poor performance is likely to be carried out to students. Another sensitive and critical area the report emphasised is, The Untrained Teachers’ Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) programme. From the report, it has the weakest entry behaviour of applicants, the content of their programme is structurally weak and the credit weightings of the core subjects are woefully inadequate. The total number of credits for the programme is lower than those of the regular Diploma in Basic Education Programme, the report indicated. There is

the need to question the content and structure of the three programmes (regular, sandwich or top-up and the UTDBE) being run in the Colleges of Education. Deducing from the report, it could be confidently said that, the three programmes are not the same. Meanwhile, all these categories of teacher trainees would be awarded the same certificate. They are all expected to perform the same duties after the completion of their courses. This observation is supported by a statement made by an eminent educationist that those holding Diplomas, awarded by the Colleges of Education, lack certain qualities of the job (Kofoya-Tetteh 2008, p.14).

The analysis of responses on the professional qualification of headteachers who served as respondents is summarised in Table 4. For the sake of assessment and analysis, simple frequencies and percentages were used.

Table 4
Distribution of Headteacher Respondents by Professional Qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Certificate 'A' 4 – year	23	38.3
Certificate 'A' (Post Secondary)	23	38.3
Teacher's Diploma	10	16.7
University Degree	4	6.7
Total	60	100.0

Forty-six (76.7%) respondents possess the basic professional qualification of Certificate 'A'. However, the data reveals that 14 (23.4%) respondents have upgraded themselves to improve their professional qualification ranging from Teacher's Diploma to University Degree.

Ghana's previous educational system was such that teachers with highest educational qualifications were posted to higher institutions of learning to teach. In Tables 3 and 4, the study showed that degree holders were under represented. Table 3 indicated that 197(73.5%) of teacher respondents are Certificate 'A' teachers and Table 4 showed that headteacher respondents who are Certificate 'A' teachers are 46 (76.6%). 27 (10.13%) of teacher respondents and 14(22.14%) of headteacher respondents are Diplomas and Degree holders. It is very common to find Degree holders in the second cycle institutions with the bulk of the teachers at the first cycle being Certificate 'A' holders in the country. This problem may be attributed to the recruitment system in the Ghana Education Service.

Apart from the problem with teacher recruitment, another problem might be attributed to the nature of teacher preparation in the country. One of the problems associated with teacher training or preparation in the country is the question of entry requirement of possible applicants. Students from Senior High Schools with good aggregates/grades go to universities, polytechnics, nursing training colleges and other tertiary institutions. Only a few of those, who for one reason or the other could not qualify to enter into such institutions, find their way to the teacher training colleges.

This means that students with weak grades are admitted at the teacher training colleges. Attempts to raise aggregate for teacher training colleges

requirement will mean that there will be inadequate number of applicants for the teacher training colleges. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quoted Schiefelbein and Tedesco to attest to this statement that the majority of candidates entering the teaching profession are among the least qualified of all the students who are entering the professional workforce (p.50). Vellegas-Reimas (2003) assigned reason for poor academic preparation of candidates entering the teaching profession as, “there are not enough qualified teachers into the profession to satisfy demand” (p.50). After completion of course, students who found their way to the universities are posted to the second cycle institutions while the majority of students who found their way to the teacher training colleges are posted to the basic schools in the country.

The Basic Education level is the foundation at which the child’s knowledge is built. It is, therefore, paramount to get a strong foundation at the base of the educational ladder for the child. Such a system of teacher distribution in the country weakens the base. The basic level needs teachers with in-depth knowledge in both subject base (content) and pedagogical strategies to help sustain students’ interest in school and give them very firm foundation.

Teaching Experience

One cannot dispute the fact that teachers’ teaching experience is a determinant in students’ academic performance. For this reason, respondents’ teaching experience was not overlooked during the data collection process. Table 5 provides distribution of respondents by teaching experience in frequencies and percentages.

Table 5

Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Length of Service with the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.)

Length of Service	Frequency	Per cent
Below 6 years	109	45.0
6 - 10 years	42	17.5
11 - 15 years	24	10.0
16 - 20 years	36	15.0
21 – 25 years	14	5.8
26 - 30 years	10	4.2
Above 30 years	5	2.1
Total	240	100.0

The table indicates that majority of teachers who responded have limited teaching experience. Out of the total number, 109 (45%) had less than six years of teaching experience, 42 (17.5 %) had taught for between six and ten years while 36 (15.0 %) had between sixteen and twenty years. Only a small number 5(2.1%) constituted the most experienced teachers, who had taught for more than 30 years.

The headteacher as internal supervisor of the school's experience was not ignored in the study. The data on the distribution of headteacher respondents by teaching experience is represented in Table 6 in frequencies and percentages.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Experience as Headteachers

Length of service with GES	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Below 6years	21	35.0
6 – 10 years	15	25.0
11 – 15 years	5	8.3
16 – 20 years	7	11.7
21 – 25 years	6	10.0
26 – 30 years	3	5.0
Above 30 years	3	5.0
Total	60	100.0

A look at Table 6 indicates that 79 (65.0%) of headteachers who served as respondents had more than six years experience as headteachers. This suggests that they have gained considerable experience and are very competent as instructional supervisors.

It is an unquestionable fact that workers with considerable experience have had the skills to work in organisations to help such organisations to achieve its set objectives. Whereas Table 5 shows 109 (45.0%) of teacher respondents who have served below 6years and 5 (2.1%) who are above 30 years, table 6 indicates 21 (35.0%) of headteacher respondents who have also served below 6 years and 3 (5.0%) as those above 30 years.

This indicates that a lot of people get recruited into the teaching profession but majority of them leave the profession and join other professions. The Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education

Reforms in Ghana (2002), states “there is an attrition rate of about 2000 teachers per annum” (p.97-98). Vellgas-Reimas (2003) also observes that many teachers leave their jobs after only a few years (p.51). The reasons may be due to poor conditions of service in the Ghana Education Service. Teachers are denied allowances like risk allowance, uniform allowance, accommodation and lunch. Until the institution of the National Health Insurance Scheme, teachers in Ghana were receiving medical allowance of Two Ghana Cedis, F (¢2.50p) per year for the teacher, spouse and children. Even this, teachers found it very difficult to access the said medical allowance. Teachers who felt that they could not withstand such frustrations in the education service found themselves in areas where they think conditions of service were better than that of the Ghana Education Service. Others also use the teaching profession as a stepping stone. After acquiring higher academic qualification through the teaching service, join other professions where they can better their standard of living.

Present Rank

Novice in organisation could be easily identified by their ranks. Teachers’ ranking could indicate their qualification and experience which is a determinant in students’ academic performance. Teachers’ rank was considered during the data collection process of the study. Simple frequencies and percentages were used for its analysis. Table 7 shows the distribution of teacher respondents by rank.

Table 7

Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Rank

Present Rank	Frequency	Per cent
Teachers (Without rank)	51	21.2
Superintendent II	65	27.1
Superintendent I	41	17.1
Senior Superintendent	58	24.2
Principal Superintendent	20	8.3
Assistant Director	5	2
Total	240	100.0

A good number of teacher respondents 65 (27%) hold the rank of Superintendent II, 58(24.2%) are Senior Superintendents. Senior members who responded are the minority. They are Principal Superintendents 20 (8.3%) and Assistant Directors 5 (2.1%).

Table 8 represents the distribution of the various professional teaching ranks held by headteacher respondents. Simple frequencies and percentages were used as the analytical tool for the study.

Table 8

Distribution of Headteacher Respondents by Rank

Rank	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Superintendent II	2	3.3
Superintendent I	5	8.3
Senior Superintendent	9	15.0
Principal Superintendent	21	35.0
Assistant Director	23	38.3
Total	60	100.0

Examination of Table 8 reveals that 23 (38.3%) are Assistant Directors and 21 (35.0%) are Principal Superintendents who are senior members of the teaching profession with the minority of 16 (26.6%) being of lower rank. This could be assumed that these minorities are in the deprived areas in the district where the senior members refuse to be transferred to.

The ranking system has become the order of the day whereby organisations use as a measure of appointing their administrators as depicted in the study. It is absolutely right for experienced persons or senior members in organisations to be appointed heads. Sidhu (1996, p. 291) also observed that recruitment procedure as defective since supervisors are appointed on the basis of seniority alone. To him, there is no other criterion of suitability or merit. Among the issues to ponder over are: “Whether all these experienced persons in the organisations possess supervisory qualities? How many of these personalities are prepared to be committed to their given responsibilities?” In the rural communities especially, it is very common to see some headteachers,

who collaborate with teachers and use students on menial jobs during instructional periods. This aside, teachers are seen laze around sometimes chatting on the school veranda whereas the head looks on during instructional hours. Such low output of supervision in schools results in poor student academic performance.

The researcher agrees with Asiedu-Akrofi (1998) that a supervisor's work is to stimulate teachers and children's work (p. 82) This implies that, the ranking system should not be the sole measure to appoint teachers as instructional supervisors but other relevant qualifications should be additional needs to ensure effective supervision.

Kinds of In-service Training given to Headteachers after their First Appointment

Training and retraining are very important in organisational effort to build skills based competencies. According to Jones and George (2006), "training, primarily focuses on teaching organisational members how to perform their current job and helping them acquire knowledge and skills they need to be effective performers" (p.427). Training, therefore, is a vehicle to be an efficient performer in an organisation and is also an essential component of any organisational culture. Tables 9 - 11 give the summaries of training heads received after their appointment.

In-service Training Received after Appointment as Head

Table 9 indicates whether heads had the opportunity to be trained when they were first appointed. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the issue.

Table 9

Opportunity to be Trained as an Instructional Supervisor

Whether trained	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Yes	45	75.0
No	15	25.0
Total	60	100.0

From Table 9, 45(75.0%) of respondents claim they had opportunity to be trained after their first appointment. This means that 15(25.0%) of the respondents representing minority had no formal training.

In order for employees to perform their job successfully, and create a positive impression in the minds of the public, the employees must be given the necessary tools. Depending on the employee's position and the focus of the organisation, the training should address interpersonal skills, and organisational awareness. The training should help employees to know what is expected of them and how to fulfil those expectations. Table 10 presents the sort of training respondents had. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the issues.

Table 10

Nature of In-service Training

Topic treated	Frequency	Per cent
Developing learning resources	32	53.3
Staff development	38	63.3
Relating to public	32	53.3
Instructional supervision	42	70.0
Evaluating teacher performance	40	66.7

It could be noted that respondents ranked instructional supervision highest. This means that, 42(70.0%) had training in instructional supervision and 40(66.7%) evaluation of teacher performance. All the topics treated ranked a little above 50%. This picture seems to disconfirm the assertion by Sidhu (1996) that supervisors lack adequate training and are unsatisfactory in quality.

Triangulation of the kinds of training received by headteachers after their appointment was done through an interview with the Circuit Supervisors. Table 11 summarises the confirmation made by Circuit Supervisors concerning the nature of training received by heads after their appointment. Frequencies and percentages were used in its analysis. Results have been arranged in descending order.

Table 11

Circuit Supervisors' Opinion on Headteachers' Training after their Appointment

Mode of training	Frequency	Per cent
Mentorship	4	40
Emulation of professional colleagues	3	30
Special training programme	2	20
In-service Training	1	10
Total	10	100.0

From the information in the table, it can be observed that out of the 10 respondents, 4(40%) said their headteachers received training after appointment as heads through mentorship, whilst in-service training had 1 (10%) as the least form of training.

The success of training can be gauged by the amount of learning that occurs and is transferred to the job. Without a well designed systematic approach to training, what is learned may not be the best for the running of the organisation. There is conflicting results in Tables 9 and that of the 11. Whereas the headteachers say special training programme was organised for them when they were first appointed as heads, the Circuit Supervisors are on the contrary. This makes it very difficult to confirm or disconfirm the assertion made by Sidhu (1996) that supervisors lack adequate training and are unsatisfactory in quality. Yet, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) note that the large number of areas from which a knowledgeable and skilled supervisor must draw suggests the need for a broad training programme in preparation for work as a supervisor. The researcher agrees with Sidhu's (1996) view that

there should be a special pre-service training programme for the supervisors, so that they are equipped with all the know-how before undertaking this specialised and technical job (p.311).

It is very common to see the headteacher, sitting at the office and always busy with his administrative duties. Sometimes, they attend to their private businesses with the excuse of visiting the “office” or “attending meeting”. Korda (2008) confirms this assertion on teacher absence rate that headteachers are more frequently absent than the regular teachers (p.11). This gives the teachers the opportunity to laze around and sometimes stand on the veranda and chat during contact hours. Sometimes some of the ladies come with their babies and attend to their babies whilst others do petty trading. In the rural areas, teachers use students for menial jobs. At times, these teachers use the students on their farms or make them work for other people for a fee with the excuse of using the money for the development of the school. One needs not talk about teachers’ lateness and absenteeism to school. Aside these, sometimes, teachers do not co-operate with headteachers. Such work attitude of teachers shows headteachers’ ineffectiveness and inefficiency. It also depicts the kind of training they were taken through when they were appointed as heads.

The Circuit Supervisor has a responsibility to support, coach and correct headteachers. It is common knowledge to see most Circuit Supervisors who collaborate with their headteachers and more often than not join them in some of their irresponsible activities with the hope of getting “something good” in return. Sometimes, they are seen drinking or eating together whilst the actual purpose for which they visited the school had not been even tackled.

The researcher had an experience at the District Office, when she met a Circuit Supervisor who visited a school only to demand the school's log book, signed, and demanded money from the headteacher and left without supporting the head or any teacher. This is not peculiar to the place she visited only but she believes there are other Circuit Supervisors elsewhere in the country who are noted for such deviant behaviours also. Such issues and activities pertaining to the roles of the Circuit Supervisors need to be dealt with seriously.

Results from the study indicate that mentorship is the highest form of training headteachers undergo. Mentoring is a process whereby someone with more experience or expertise provides support, counselling and advice to a less experienced or less expert colleague. Mentoring is a form of coaching that tends to be short-term for a beginning teacher or for someone new to a school or a system. Harwell-Kee quoted in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) looks at coaching as, "a process by which a colleague who is a critical listener/observer asks questions, makes observations and offers suggestions that help a teacher to grow and reflect and produce different decisions " (p.116). In mentoring, managers at their mid-points in their careers aid individuals in their earlier stages of careers. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quoted Robbins that a mentor provides the newcomer with support, guidance, feedback, problem-solving guidance, and a network of colleagues who share resources, insight, practices and materials (p.116). In mentoring, both the mentee and mentor benefit. Mentorship does benefit the two parties because interpersonal and technical skills are in this relationship. Meanwhile, there is the challenge for the older persons to share their wisdom. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quoted Shaw that mentoring affects both the new teachers who are being mentored and the

experienced teachers who will serve as mentors (p.116). Mentors have many roles to play to help the mentee acquire the relevant skills. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) commenting on the roles mentors have to fulfil said, “it includes sharing information, providing access to resources, role modelling, counselling, coaching, encouraging, reflection, advising in career moves and supporting new teachers” (p.116). If these are the roles of mentors then the questions to ask are, who are the mentors in the Ghana Education Service and what good traits have the mentee headteachers learnt from them? It is obvious that the mentee headteachers’ attitude would only be of their kind – no innovation and improvement. This confirms the statement made by Mathis and Jackson (2000) that mentors who are dissatisfied with their jobs and those who teach a narrow or distorted view of events may not help the mentee’s development (p.366).

Kinds of Staff Development Programmes in Place for Headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District

The school as an organisation performs better when its human resources or staffs go through development. Development focuses on broadening organisational members’ knowledge and skills so that they will be prepared to take on new responsibilities and challenges. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) explaining staff development quoted Dale that the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute toward an individual’s being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role (p.335). The Scientific management theory emphasises this, cited in Sergiovanni and Starrat (1998), that workers in the system should be trained. Headteachers in this instance need to be given the needed knowledge and skills necessary for

successful performance of duties. Tables 12 and 13 deal with staff development programmes. Table 12 presents staff development programmes that are organised for respondents. Frequencies and percentages were the analytical tools used.

Table 12

Staff Development Programmes for Headteachers

Affirmation of staff development programmes organised.	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	54	90.0
No	6	100.
Total	60	100.0

Ninety per cent of headteacher respondents declared that staff development programmes are organised for them to update their knowledge in the profession. For supervision to be effective, the supervisor must have the professional skills and competencies to perform. Table 13 looks at the topics respondents are taken through during staff development programme sessions. Results are presented in simple frequencies and percentages and have been arranged in descending order.

Table 13

Topics Treated at Training Programmes for Supervisors

Activity	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Vetting of lesson notes	51	85.0
Monitoring teaching and learning	50	83.3
In-service Training	48	80.0
Continuous Assessment	47	78.3
Instructional Materials	47	78.3

Table 13 reveals that, the highest rated activities which respondents are taken through are vetting of lesson notes 51(85.0%), monitoring teaching and learning 50 (83.3%) and in-service training 48(80.0%). Continuous Assessment 47 (78.3%) and Instructional Materials 47 (78.3%) was the least.

On the question of topics respondents treat at staff development programmes it came out that vetting of lesson notes ranked highest. It is very important and ethical for the teacher to have his lessons prepared and vetted by the headteacher before the lesson is taught. Much importance is attached to vetting of lesson notes by the headteacher at the neglect of other duties. It is common to see headteachers reporting teachers to Circuit Supervisors and giving queries to teachers for failure or refusal to submit their lesson notes on time or at all. The question to ask is how many headteachers have the knowledge in all the content areas? It takes experts to vet lessons like Science, French and other language areas. Just having knowledge in the rudiments of the subject is not the issue but in-depth knowledge in the content area should be considered. This should have been addressed by the subject

officers in the educational office. Other issues to look at are: Do we have all the subjects in the curriculum's officers at district/municipal/metropolitan offices? Are they really in operation? The core of the role of the instructional supervisor is to make sure teaching and learning go on in schools.

According to Table 13, instructional supervisors or headteachers were developed in monitoring teaching and learning. It is their responsibility to make sure that, teachers and students are in the classrooms during instructional hours at the right time and that teachers are teaching according to the syllabus. Headteachers have to make sure that teachers are using the right methodology. Sometimes, headteachers have to sit in the class and make sure that teachers are not leading the students astray. Headteachers are to see to it that teachers give enough class exercises to students and score. Heads also have to sample students' work to see if enough exercises have been given to students and that they are marked. Headteachers are also to make sure that students are not loitering around the school compound but are in the classrooms learning. The issue to ponder over is: Do headteachers monitor teaching and learning in their schools? Again, most headteachers have adopted the permissive type of supervision – laissez-faire attitude of leadership for the teachers to do what pleases them.

Complexity in the process of administration creates problems and opportunities for public organisations to rethink their strategies for improvement. One approach upon to improve the quality and effectiveness of the educational system is through staff development. It is organisational effort intended to create and promote adequate opportunities for individuals within the organisation to continue to improve themselves professionally in order to

improve upon the organisational performance. It helps in keeping abreast with societal demand and also becoming acquainted with advancement in instructional materials and equipment. Table 14 presents the summary of the ways headteachers in the district update their knowledge as indicated by Circuit Supervisors. Simple frequencies and percentages were used and have been arranged in descending order.

Table 14
Circuit Supervisors' Responses on Content of Staff Development

Activity	Frequency	Per cent
Supervision of instruction	10	100
Vetting of lesson notes	8	80
Organising in-service training activities	6	60
Evaluation of teachers performance	2	20
Distance Education	1	10

On the basis of the data in Table 14, it can be seen that the greater majority 10 (100%) said that headteachers update their knowledge in instructional supervision, Distance Education 1(10%) was said to be the least activity by which headteachers update their professional development.

All the first four subjects in Table 14 are very relevant to the instructional supervisor. They need to be conversant in these first four areas listed in the table. Hence, it is expected that every headteacher will have the opportunity to gain knowledge in these critical subjects which the headteacher is supposed to update his knowledge in.

It is really impossible for managers to take on a new responsibility and remain at that level till retirement without their skills changed. Hence, staff development is an activity which the Ghana Education Service must commit human and fiscal resources into if it is to maintain skilled and knowledgeable supervisors.

During implementation of staff development programmes, the researcher has identified and observed lack of supervision and lack of commitment from the highest level to the lowest employee level. This attitude does not augur well for the realisation of the goals for which the programme was organised. Other limitations which she has observed include the fact that many in-service training activities do not target the main goal of improving the professional competence of teachers. Teachers are not involved in determining what in-service training would be beneficial to them. It is clear that, Ghana Education Service continue to embrace the classic autocratic philosophy of supervision as stated in Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) that workers are viewed as appendages of management and as such, hired to carry out pre-specified duties in accordance with the wishes of management (p.12). Teachers are in this situation, viewed as implementers of highly refined curriculum and teaching systems and where close supervision is practised 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. Such practitioner autonomy is practised in the Ghana Education Service where teachers' autonomy is limited by the state, administrators, supervisors, heads of schools, and local communities. Also, in-service training providers transmit the skills they have, regardless of their relevance to the recipients. This issue is

also supported by an observation made by Vonks cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) that many in-service training activities do not target the main goal of improving the competence of teachers (p.63).

The most common forms of programmes used within the Ghana Education Service to develop its staff are short courses, workshops, conferences and seminars which the government is committed into. Models like regular classroom learning and distant learning are funded by teachers. A few teachers are awarded study leave with pay. With the study leave with pay, a lot of strings are attached to it. For example, there are selected courses which attract study leave with pay. If the selected course does not appeal to teachers, they go on leave without pay after which they join other professions thereby, decreasing the number of teachers within the organisation. After teachers have developed themselves and gone back to the service, such teachers are not even promoted but are given two incremental jumps in terms of salaries.

Again, teachers are not placed on the basis of the course for which the government offered those who had study leave with pay. Such frustrations make the profession unattractive to teachers and others who developed themselves. Then, also, teachers do not see much difference between those who remain on the field who did not develop themselves and those who developed themselves in terms of promotion and salaries. These and other reasons make teachers leave the teaching profession to other professions where they think they may feel comfortable. The use of courses, workshops, seminars and conferences are in most cases one-shot experiences which are completely unrelated to the needs of teachers and providing no follow-ups. It is common to see course organisers rushing teachers through

workshops/conferences and seminars getting to the close of the academic year. Teachers are always rushed through such workshops/ courses. Teachers have no time to make professional development on - going part of their work on a daily basis. Vellegas-Reimas (2003) quoted Jesness that anyone who thinks education can be substantially improved with workshops probably hasn't ever attended one (p.93). This implies that, at the end of the day, teachers do not benefit in any way from such workshops / courses and the purpose for which the courses were organised have come to naught.

Table 14 indicates that Distance Education is the least form of activity by which headteachers use to update professional development. It is unfortunate that in Ghana, distance learning is perceived as a means by which teachers have to travel to their course centres to meet their lecturers. But Perraton, cited in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) sees distance education as, “an educational process which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/ or time from the learner” (p.83). By Perraton's definition of distance education, it implies that not all distance education permits students to meet their course tutors or lecturers at course centres for tuition. As observed by Miller, Smith and Tilstone in Vellegas-Reimas (2003) the following means like, “radio, television, telephone, written and recorded material and electronic communications can be used” (p.83). A typical example of distance learning used in Ghana is the Presidents' Special Initiative on distance learning. This is for selected subjects in the country's educational curriculum. It is also limited to Junior/Senior High Schools' specific subjects only.

Distance education allows teachers acquire further qualification so that they can be promoted to higher levels in their organisations. Again, teachers develop self-confidence and the ability to learn on their own, a skill that is beneficial in their roles as teachers. The cost of distant education, as compared to regular classroom teaching or learning particularly in the rural areas is less if it is carried out well, for instance, when means like radios and televisions are used effectively. Then, also, teachers can continue their training during the regular school year as they do not need to be absent from their classes to participate. The use of radios and televisions (like the President's Special Initiative on distance learning) as an instrument of distant learning must be adopted by teacher education, subject associations, development partners and the government to help reach the vast majority of teachers who are not prepared and or not qualified to go to the universities or teacher training colleges to help them to receive some form of training at a lower cost.

Perceptions of Headteachers' Competence as Supervisors

The competence of every personnel is rated on the basis of the capability of the person to perform certain activities, and the ease, accuracy and speed and quality with which the activities are performed. In the study, teachers outlined a number of criteria for rating the competencies of their headteachers as supervisors.

Table 15 shows ratings of activities perceived by teachers as headteachers' instructional supervisory competence indicators. The responses to items 1-9 are represented by average means and standard deviations and arranged in descending order.

Table 15**Competence Ratings of Headteachers by Teachers**

Competence areas	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Up to date and accurate records keeping	4.26	.81
2. Organisation of staff meetings	4.11	1.08
3. Evaluate teachers' performance	4.10	.86
4. Goes round to monitor teaching and learning during instructional period	3.96	0.99
5. Check the test items to find out whether they are up to standard	3.92	.94
6. Evaluate students' performance	3.87	.95
7. Takes samples of pupils' exercise to check quality and quantity of pupils' work	3.64	.99
8. Provide instructional materials for teaching and learning purposes	3.55	1.11
9. Plan and organise in-service training activities with teachers in response to their needs	3.02	1.19

Table 15 reflects that the major competence areas of the headteachers are in the items 1 and 2. The highest competence area rated by teachers is, headteachers making sure that teachers keep accurate and up to date records of the school. It attracted an average mean of 4.26 (.81) as the standard deviation. Headteachers organising staff meetings for teachers to interact on academic issues gained 4.11(1.08) ratings. Item 9 was ranked the least competence area

of headteachers by respondents. It had the average mean of 3.02 (1.19) being the standard deviation.

Performance appraisal contributes to effective management of human resources in organisations. In the Ghana Education Service, the Ministry of Education’s policy document (2001) mandates the headteacher to appraise its teachers at the school-based level. Similarly, the head as a manager need to evaluate his/her own competencies before teachers could be effectively appraised. Table 16 illustrates how headteachers perceive their own level of competence as heads. Respondents were instructed to give their ratings from 5 – Very Competent to 1 – Not Competent. The results have been arranged in descending order in average means and Standard deviations.

Table 16

How Headteachers Perceive their Own Level of Competence as Heads.

Competence areas evaluated	Mean	Std. Dev.
Organise staff meetings for teachers	4.43	.67
Keeping of accurate and up-to-date records of teachers	4.30	.65
Making sure that standard test items are set	4.10	.77
Go round and monitor teaching and learning	4.10	.71
Checking the quality and quantity of students’ examinations	4.03	.78
Evaluation of teachers’ performance	4.00	.74
Provision of instructional materials	3.92	.77
Evaluation of students performance	3.50	.78
Organisation of in-service training activities	3.50	.95

From Table 16, although most respondents rated themselves as being competent in organising staff meetings for teachers and record keeping for teachers with the least rating being organisation of in-service training activities, all the activities obtained favourable responses.

There is the assumption that Circuit Supervisors are in-charge-of supervision of instruction. Once they deal directly with the heads on the field, they, therefore, know how competent headteachers are in every dimension. Table 17 provides information on the degree of headteachers' competence in supervision as perceived by their Circuit Supervisors. Rating scale from 5 – Very Competent to 1 – Not Competent was used. Frequencies and Percentages of responses are presented in Table 17 below. This has been arranged in descending order

Table 17

Headteachers Competence as Supervisor as Perceived by Circuit Supervisors

Competence area	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organise staff meetings	3.9	0.57
Records keeping	3.5	0.97
Evaluation of teachers' performance	3.1	0.57
Evaluation of students' performance	3.0	0.67
Provision of teaching/learning materials	3.0	1.05
Setting of standard test items	2.9	0.86
Checking students' exercises	2.7	0.82
Organisation of in-service activities	2.7	0.48
Monitoring teaching and learning	2.5	0.97

Information based on Table 17 depicts fairly distributed ratings. Though organisation of staff meetings dominated, its rating had an average mean of 3.9 and standard deviation of 0.57 with the least rating being Monitoring teaching and learning. The Average Mean was rated 2.5 with a standard deviation of 0.97.

Information from Tables 15, 16 and 17 make it clear that respondents identified the problem of heads being ineffectual or weak in the organisation of in-service training activities in response to the needs of teachers. Unfortunately, monitoring teaching and learning which is very vital in the role of the instructional supervisor received the least rating. The world is changing fast. Education is also dynamic and it goes with the changing trends of technology. Although, headteachers showed considerable competence in records keeping and staff meeting organisation, their inability to exhibit maximum levels of skills in other competence areas does not augur well for the supervisory programme.

It is evident that the ultimate goal of the school is to produce graduates who will fit well into the job market and the society as a whole. Education (ancillary staff) Regulation (1987) makes it clear that principals are responsible for the provision of quality education for all students in the school. It is unfortunate that the major role of the instructional supervisor has not received the attention it deserves rather; there is more concentration on the administrative roles. This confirms the Indian Education Commission's observation as indicated by Sidhu (1996) that the combination of administrative and supervisory functions by the same officer affects supervision adversely because administrative work, which has increased

greatly in recent years, always has the priority. It would be unrealistic also for someone to take an extreme position that the supervisor must never accept administrative task. The researcher sees eye to eye with Oliva and Pawlas (2001) that what is needed by today's supervisor is a desire to emphasise supervisory behaviour and de-emphasise administrative behaviour.

Education continues to be affected by rapid technological changes. Such changes demand rapid development of teachers to update their knowledge. In-service training activity is one of the means by which teachers are developed. This planned on-the job activity is carried out to promote the growth of teachers and make them more efficient. It has been observed by the researcher that in-service training activities are in most cases planned by external supervisors and carried out nationwide without the co-operation with those for whom the programme has been planned and designed for. It is common knowledge that every school, circuit, district and even region has its peculiar need which needs to be tackled by themselves. But planning of such laudable activity is not decentralised. Most teachers consider it a as profit-making venture and also relief from duty. One will always notice that the same people are regularly involved in attending workshops while others are exempted. No provision is made for those who go to the training sessions to disseminate the information to other colleagues.

It is also not very common to see school-based or cluster-based in-service training activities being organised for teachers. There is the problem of funding and expertise towards the organisation and implementation of in-service training programmes. Now the crux of the matter is that most headteachers did not receive formal training after their first appointment as

heads. This aside, Circuit Supervisors who are to support the headteacher, most of them have not got the capacity to do that. This implies that, both the Circuit Supervisor and the headteacher have not got the know-how in the organisation of school-based or cluster- based in-service training activities for the teachers.

Dunkin (1997) submits that headteachers are responsible for the organisation of all in-service training sessions which should be held outside instructional time preferably in the afternoon (pp.37-57). Mathis and Jackson (2000) also agree with Dunkin that managers are likely to be the source of technical information used in training. They are also in a better position to decide when employees need training or retraining (p.318). This clearly points out that headteachers are in-charge of school based in-service training activities. According to Tables 15, 16 and 17, the least ratings are organisation of in-service training programmes in school. This means that headteachers are weak in the organisation of in-service training activities. Teachers testify to the weakness of their heads in the organisation of in-service training activities in their schools. Headteachers themselves could not deny the fact that they are not efficient in the planning and organising in-service training activities in their schools. Circuit Supervisors also confirmed the position of teachers and headteachers as regards in-service training activities in their schools. This may be due to the fact that headteachers have not got adequate knowledge in the organisation of in-service training. This confirms the statement made by Vellegas-Reimas (2003) when he quoted Kievet on headteachers' efficiency on the provision of in-service training and education that our lack of knowledge is about how to provide in-service education in an efficient and

effective way (p.61). Sometimes the problems inhibiting the organisation of in-service training in schools are associated to funding. In the basic schools, no funds are directly specified for the organisation of in-service training activities. That does not also mean that teachers should not be developed. The guidelines for the distribution and utilisation of capitation grant to basic schools (2005) makes it clear that school and cluster-based in-service training is one of the key activities by which the capitation grant could be used for (p.4). The fact of the issue is that the grant is paid based on the number of students in the school. This means that in a situation where the student enrolment in a particular school is poor, then, it means that not much could be realised from the capitation grant for that school. School-based and cluster-based in-service training and other equally important activities should be undertaken with the capitation grant. Since the grant is not enough to cover all the activities specified in the guidelines, priority is made by headteachers.

Supervising requires many strategies, techniques, and expertise that are different from the strategies of successful teaching. The person selected for supervisory position may have received the appointment as a result of having been a superior teacher. Good teaching is to the credit of the individual supervisor, but the assumption that the teacher has all the tools required for good supervision can be grossly inaccurate.

Supervisors who have not yet developed the expertise, that might be identified as unique to supervision, are at the emulation of neighbours (when they visit a neighbour's school might receive stimulation or associating with people in convention) and as a result choose to say that what was good for my neighbours supervising must be good for me. Emulation, however,

cannot provide specific expertise for the individual supervisors confronted with unique problems as they always are in the school system.

Headteachers are expected to ensure effective teaching and learning. Their competencies will ensure that their effectiveness and efficiency positively affect the academic and professional competencies of their teachers which have direct bearing on the quality of their performance and as a result the achievement of pupils.

It is the desire of parents/guardians to have their wards to qualify and attain greater heights in terms of education. They struggle hard to send their wards to schools where their dreams will be realised. It is assumed that effective schools depend largely on the efficiency and effectiveness of the headteacher in relation to his administration of his school. Table 18 shows teachers' perception on whether their headteachers promote effective teaching and learning in their schools.

Table 18

Headteacher's Promotion of Effective Teaching and Learning in School

Response	Frequency	Per cent Frequency
Yes	229	95.4
No	11	4.6
Total	240	100.0

Out of the total number of 240 respondents, 229(95.4%) admitted that their heads promote effective teaching and learning in their schools. Quite a small number 11(4.6%) refuted the fact that the activities of their heads promote effective teaching and learning in their schools.

A lot of people have their way of looking at issues. There was gender comparison on the subject of effective teaching and learning promotion by headteachers. Table 19 presents the results in gender. The result was arrived at by means of cross tabulation. Frequencies and percentages were the analytical tools used.

Table19

**Gender Comparison of Teachers’ Opinion on Headteachers
Effective Promotion of Teaching and Learning in Schools**

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Total	Percent
Male	137	95.14	144	100.0
Female	92	95.83	96	100.0
Total	229	100.0	240	100.0

Comparing the female and male responses on this issue, 137(95.14%) males out of 144(100.0%) of the total male respondents appreciated their heads for effective teaching and learning in their schools. Apparently, 92 female respondents representing 95.33% out of 96 (100.0%) also commended their heads for promoting effective teaching and learning in their schools.

On the issue of gender comparison of promotion of effective teaching and learning, as perceived by teachers, it seems there is no difference between male and female perception. Headteachers need to be competent in all the instructional competence areas in order to achieve the schools’ objectives.

The headteacher as the internal instructional supervisor has the duty to provide guidance, support teachers and perform other duties including administrative task and combine teaching. The overwhelming workload of the headteachers put them in a dilemma. Table 20 presents challenges headteachers encounter in the discharge of their administrative and supervisory duties. Frequencies and percentages were used in the analysis. The results are arranged in descending order.

Table 20
Challenges Headteachers Face in the Discharge of their Administrative and Supervisory Duties

Challenges	Frequency	Per cent
Poor working habits of teachers	16	27.2
Poor supply of teaching and learning materials	8	13.6
Administrative constraints	7	11.9
Poor attitudes of parents	5	8.5
Inadequacy of funds and logistics	4	6.8
Poor students' attitude, enrolment and attendance	3	5.1
Lack of cooperation from the community and stakeholders	3	5.1

In this open ended section of the questionnaire, responses from headteachers indicated that there are no serious challenges that they face as they discharge their duties as administrators and instructional supervisors as envisaged. Meanwhile, results from the table shows that poor working habits

of teachers which include problems with lesson notes preparation, lateness to school, irregularity and absenteeism to school ranked highest with 16 (27.2%). Other dominant responses were the issue of poor supply of Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs) 8(13.6%). Other issues were Administrative constraints 7 (11.9), Poor attitude of parents 5 (8.5), Inadequacy of funds and logistics 4(6.8%). Poor students' attitude, enrolment and attendance 3 (5.1), Lack of co-operation from the community and other stakeholders 3(5.1%).

Teachers are very important in any school effectiveness programme. They are also the pivot around which everything else in the teaching/ learning programme evolves. The teacher is to teach, score students' work, assess them; guide the students and even the parent/ guardian as well. This work of the teacher is very demanding and makes teachers sometimes feel that they are not fairly treated when they compare the demands of their work to the corresponding remuneration. Teachers' demand for higher remunerations often leads to the question, whether teaching is a profession or not. In professions, one needs to acquire teaching skills with formal teaching for a specific period of time, join an association of the profession and acquire competence-base knowledge in the profession. With this background, remuneration which is attracted corresponds to the status of the teacher; as in all recognised professions like Medicine, Engineering, and Law. Unfortunately, the situation seems to be different in the teaching profession. Sometimes untrained people are recruited into the profession with the intention of filling in vacant positions which swells their number. Such huge number often scares the government from granting teachers' demands. For example, when The National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT)

embarked on industrial action in 2006, the government refused to pay their salaries, according to Boateng (2006, p.1) but when medical doctors (Adoma, 2006, p.1& Atta, 2005, p.1) and other health workers embarked on a series of strike actions, they went scot-free. Such discrepancies make teachers feel they are unjustly treated. Rather, teachers are often mocked at that “teaching is a sacrificial work” and “teachers’ reward is in heaven”.

Kinds of Support Received by Headteachers from Circuit Supervisors

Encapsulated development is one of the problems associated with human resource development in organisations. Mathis and Jackson (2000), see encapsulated development as “a situation which occurs when an individual learns new methods and ideas in development course and returns to a work unit that is still bound by old attitudes and methods” (p.366). In order to avoid this waste in the school system, there should be follow-ups and reinforcement by Circuit Supervisors to coach the headteachers. Table 21 reveals the support headteachers receive from their Circuit Supervisors. Respondents were asked to rate from the highest 5 - Very Often to 1 – Never. Average Means and standard deviations were used for the analysis. The result is arranged in descending order.

Table 21**Support by Circuit Supervisors to Headteachers**

Support by Circuit Supervisors	Means	Stand. Dev.
Assist me in evaluating the performance of my teachers	4.27	0.82
Helps me in improving school administration	4.18	0.68
Helps in building healthy school/community relationship	3.97	1.04
He assists in supervision of instruction in my school	3.89	0.90
He assists in monitoring pupils' performance	3.65	0.73
He organises in-service activities in response to the needs of my school	3.50	1.05
Relating to the public	1.47	0.50

On the basis of the data in Table 21, it can be inferred that headteachers perceived their Circuit Supervisors to be most effective in assisting headteachers in evaluating the performance of their teachers with a mean rating of 4.27. This figure seems to be very surprising since it is a common knowledge that it is not always so in practice in the Public Basic Schools in Ghana. This stems from the fact that Circuit Supervisors have more schools under their jurisdiction, therefore, it becomes difficult for them to visit all the schools let alone assist headteachers in evaluating teachers' performance. This aside, they are sometimes made to undertake other assignments outside their area of operation in the office. Improvement of

administration in their schools also rated (4.18). Considerable support was also given to headteachers by Circuit Supervisors in the areas of helping to build a good school-community relationship (3.97), supervising instructional materials (3.88) and monitoring pupils' performance (3.65). They also helped to organise in-service training programmes (3.50).

Meanwhile, the least rated support given by Circuit Supervisors was helping heads on how to relate to the public (1.47). Public relations are vital in every establishment. The public's impression concerning the school can mar or make the school's reputation. Harris (1976, p.334) observed public relations as one of the critical professional supervisory competencies for the instructional improvement. To him, it includes informing the public, involving the public and utilising public opinion. The school is situated in the community and has a say in the management of the schools. For instance, the community has the power to recommend the removal of non-performing teachers and those with questionable behaviour like drunkenness and sexual misconduct within their communities. It is therefore very important that there should be good school community relations.

The Schools Management Committees (SMCs) play a major role in the management of the capitation grant. According to the guidelines for the distribution and utilisation of the capitation grant to basic schools (2005), the SMC is one of the key players in the management of the capitation grant (p.2), also the Schools Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP) is to be prepared by the headteacher and the staff with the approval of the SMC (p.4) while request for funds at the school level, are to be endorsed by both the SMC chairman and the headteacher (p.6). The school cannot single-handedly educate the

student without the support of the parents. Good public relations ensures that teachers and parents work together to address children's needs, parents will show more interest in the education of their children and there will be an active participation of the school and community in each other's activities. For example, the community provides labour for school projects, attends school programmes like speech and prize giving days, open days and other anniversary celebrations as well as providing financial support. Accommodation, though not free is mostly provided by the community. The community also produces the pupils for the school. The teachers on the other hand, join the community during communal labour, funerals and festivals. Good public relations results in active and effective Parent - Teacher Associations (PTAs). This brings cordial co-operative and constructive relations between the school and the community, boosts teachers' morale and positive attitude towards work. Teachers will not absent themselves or be late to school rather there will be regular attendance and punctuality of all the staff since they become aware of the communities' involvement in the management of the schools thereby enhancing pupils' academic performance. Circuit Supervisors need to support headteachers to be dynamic in dealing with the public so as to enhance the performance of the school.

Information on the kinds and levels of support received by headteachers from Circuit Supervisors was also sought from interviews with the Circuit Supervisors themselves. One cannot expect headteachers to perform or handle every situation pertaining in the school situation. In some instances, they will have to depend on the experienced supervisor and defer to his/her experience or authority. The supervisor can then pass on valuable

information guide and aid the headteachers' professional development. In line with the above, the interview required Circuit Supervisors to indicate the support they offer to headteachers. Table 22 looks at the kinds of support and their frequencies, given to the headteachers by Circuit Supervisors, as stated by the Circuit Supervisors themselves. Results are in frequencies and percentages have been arranged in descending order.

Table 22

Frequency Distribution of Kinds of Support Given to Headteachers by Circuit Supervisors

Activity	Frequency	Per cent
Improve school administration	8	80
School/community relationship	8	80
Assess teachers' performance	6	60
In-service training activities	6	60
Monitoring pupils' performance	6	60
Supervision of Instruction	5	50

All the activities gained favourable responses. Circuit Supervisors assisting in the improvement in school administration and assisting in building healthy school/community relationship had 8 (80%) responses each. Whereas assisting in the assessing teacher performance, assisting in the provision of in-service training activities and helping in monitoring pupils' performance were given 6 (60%) responses each. Helping in the supervision of instruction gained 5 (50%) responses.

Assistance to supervision of instruction which is an important element to the academic performance of the student was ranked the least activity performed. This portrays that, the Human Relations Approach Supervision's element of "participatory supervision" has really become, "permissive supervision." If the school will achieve its goals then it behoves on the Circuit Supervisors to support their heads of schools in all aspects of their roles as instructional supervisors. The researcher's experience and observation at the education office has revealed to her that, some Circuit Supervisors have not had adequate training that would enable them provide the needed support. They were probably, good teachers, problematic teachers or long-serviced teachers. As a result, they were promoted to be Circuit Supervisors without being equipped with the necessary training, coaching and guidance to develop their supervisory skills.

Schools are visited for the purposes of evaluations, interpretations of orders, circulars and policies; and Parent-Teacher-Association (PTA) meetings. Table 23 gives a picture of the frequency of Circuit Supervisors' visits to schools within their circuits.

Table 23

Frequency of Circuit Supervisors' Visits to Schools within their Circuits

Number of visits	Frequency	Percentage
Twice a month	7	70
Once a month	3	30

Seven (70%) of respondents declared that they visit the school in their circuits twice a month while 3 (30%) also said they visit theirs once a month. From the table, it is clear that majority of respondents visit their schools twice a month while 3 (30%) visit once a month. This, however, is in line with the policy document by the Ministry of Education (2001). This document stipulates that every school should be visited by the Circuit Supervisor three times each term. There is the assumption that by the end of the term, every school should have had at least three visits by the Circuit Supervisors. It is very surprising that majority of the Circuit Supervisors claim they visit their schools twice a month which is contrary to what in practice.

Revelation from the study indicated dominant responses for administrative duties performed by heads. This suggests that headteachers are very competent in their administrative duties at the expense of their supervisory duties. It is not surprising that headteachers could not indicate the challenges they are facing in relation to their roles as supervisors and administrators.

The ultimate goal of the school is to produce graduands with academic and co-curricular excellence so as to fit well into the job market and the society as a whole. It is unfortunate that the major role of the instructional supervisor has not received much attention rather; there is more concentration on the administrative roles. The researcher agrees with Oliva and Pawlas (2001) that many administrators unfortunately are not able to give primary attention to the main purpose for which schools have been established - instruction of the young. Sidhu (1996) also comments that majority of the educational supervisors are heavily involved in performance of official routine

in office and find themselves lacking in stamina, energy and enthusiasm for academic work. He supported his argument by quoting the observation made by the Indian Education Commission that the combination of administrative and supervisory functions by the same officer affects supervision adversely because administrative work which has increased greatly in recent years always has a priority (p.294).

Instructional supervisors should pay the needed attention to the instructional supervisory roles in order not to experience “academic freedom” (situation whereby teachers have the right to teach as they deem appropriate within their particular realm of competence) in their schools as quoted by Oliva and Pawlas (2001, p.40).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

This chapter gives an overview of the study, summaries of methodology, findings, and the conclusions from the findings. The chapter ends with recommendations in the light of the findings and suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Study

Provision of quality education is an essential factor in the development of any nation. Concerns about falling standards of education have raised many concerns from stakeholders of education. The government of Ghana has put in structures to address those concerns. One of the approaches is the empowerment of the headteacher as the internal instructional supervisor as documented in the country's educational policy-MOE (2001, p.30).

The research was undertaken with the view of finding out the perceptions of teachers, headteachers, and Circuit Supervisors on headteachers' supervisory competence and, make recommendations that will help improve upon headteachers' supervisory competence. The study sought answers to the following research questions:

1. What kind of training did the headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District go through after their first appointment as heads?
2. What kind of staff development programmes are in place for headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District?
3. How do headteachers in the Kwaebibirem District perceive their own level of competence as supervisors?
4. What are teachers' perception regarding the competence of their headteachers as supervisors?
5. What sort of support do headteachers receive from Circuit Supervisors?

Descriptive approach was adopted to solicit the views of teachers, headteachers and Circuit Supervisors in the district in the public basic schools. There were 60 schools which were randomly selected for the study. All teachers in the selected 60 schools except the newly trained teachers were randomly selected. In all, 240 teachers were selected. Sixty headteachers and 10 Circuit Supervisors were purposively selected for the study. While 240 teachers and 60 headteachers were given questionnaires to answer, the 10 Circuit Supervisors were interviewed. The questionnaires were self-administered. The retrieval rate was 100%. Pilot testing of instrument was done in the Birim North District to ascertain the validity of instruments. The data collected from respondents were analysed using SPSS to ascertain the perception of the respondents about headteachers' supervisory competence. The analytical tools that were used for the study were frequency tables, percentages, means and standard deviations.

Main Findings

The study came out with a number of findings

1. No special training programme is designed for headteachers when they are first appointed.
2. Headteachers are not developed in the organisation of in-service training activities, therefore, are weak in the organisation of in-service training activities.
3. Headteachers are more competent in administrative duties than instructional supervisory duties.
4. Circuit Supervisors are weak in supporting headteachers in school-public relations to operate effectively.

Conclusions

On the strength of the findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. Headteachers experience administrative handicaps and defects in their supervisory activities.
2. Teachers who do not update their skills are not abreast with societal demands and are not acquainted with instructional strategies.
3. There will be no effective teaching/learning in schools because teachers become incorrigible, absent themselves from school and students become truants.
4. There will be no support in any form from the community to help supplement the effort of the school.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study and the conclusions drawn from them, the following recommendations are made for practice.

1. There should be special pre-service training programme for supervisors to equip them with all the technical know-how before undertaking such a specialised job.
2. Headteachers should be developed in the organisation of in-service training activities.
3. Circuit Supervisors should encourage headteachers to give equal attention to both administrative and instructional supervisory duties of headteachers.
4. Circuit Supervisors should support headteachers on how to relate well with the community.

Other Findings

1. Female headteachers were under represented.
2. There are more untrained teachers in the system.
3. Majority of the headteacher respondents are senior teachers which indicates that Ghana Education Service places more emphasis on the ranking system and that headteachers are appointed based on the ranking system.
4. A few of the total number of headteacher respondents are university graduates.

Conclusions

1. A lot of parents may also not picture their girl-child in any responsible position that will urge them to send their girl-child to school.
2. The continuous recruitment of pupil teachers in the service is likely to result in low out-put of work.
3. Headteachers do not consult other teachers because they see themselves as experienced in the service due to long service.
4. The headteacher may feel handicapped in the content area due to constant upgrading of the content areas in the curriculum.

Recommendations

1. Integrating females in the entire economic process by economically empowering and making them independent will further enhance the development of the country.
2. The UTDBE programme should be sustained, enhanced and be made compulsory for all the untrained teachers on the field to participate.
3. The position of the headteacher must be competed for and the one with the greatest promise of achieving results must be selected.
4. Headteachers who are already in the system should be encouraged to upgrade themselves through distance learning.

Finally, if the school will achieve its objective, then this aspect of the Scientific Management Theory of supervision as noted by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) which comes to play that in order to achieve the optimum output, workers are to do exactly as they were told and only as they were told (p.12). This principle which has become attracted to policy makers and administrators should be changed. Teachers have little or no practitioner

autonomy. Teachers' autonomy is limited by the state, administrators, supervisors and local communities. Teaching is an art and teachers needed to be innovative hence they only need direction that will help them to produce the best result. Headteachers should be encouraged by Circuit Supervisors to give equal attention to both the administrative roles and the instructional supervisory roles in the educational system.

Suggestions for Further Research

The researcher would like to point out to readers that, the research was limited to the Kwaebibirem District of the Eastern Region of Ghana. It will be risky to generalise the outcome of the study to cover the entire country.

The researcher likes to recommend to interested researchers on the subject to replicate the study in other districts in the region or other regions.

Why heads of schools place more emphasis in administrative duties than in supervisory duties?

Why there is no commitment and supervision from the highest level employee to the lowest level employee during the implementation of staff development programmes?

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
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Appendix A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADTEACHERS

This questionnaire aims at collecting information about headteacher competence as an instructional supervisor in the basic schools in the Kwaebibirem District of Ghana.

It would be very much appreciated if you could answer the following questions as frankly as you can. Your responses are confidential and your anonymity is assured.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Please write or tick [] the appropriate response or by completing the spaces provided.

PARTICULARS OF HEADTEACHERS

1. Name of school.....
2. Has the school got a copy of the headteachers' handbook?
Yes [] No []
3. Gender: Male [] Female []
4. Highest professional / academic qualification
 - a) G.C.E. 'O' Level [] b) SSSCE [] c) G.C.E. 'A' Level []
 - d) Cert. A Four Year [] e) Cert A Post-Sec []

- f) Basic Education Diploma [] g) University Degree []
 f) Others (Please specify).....

8. Your present rank in the Ghana Education Service (GES).

- a) Superintendent II [] b) Superintendent I []
 (c) Senior Superintendent [] (d) Principal Superintendent []
 (f) Assistant Director [] g) Others (Please specify).....

9. How long have you served as head in the Ghana Education Service?

- a) (a) Below 5 years [] (b) 6 – 10 years [] (c) 11 – 15 years []
 (d) 16 -20 [] (e) 21 – 25 years [] (f) 26 - 30 years and above []

SECTION B

Q.1 INITIAL TRAINING AFTER APPOINTMENT

Instructions:

1. Did you get the opportunity to be trained when you were first appointed?

- Yes [] No []

If ‘Yes’ what was the nature of the training?

2. Please, indicate your response by ticking [√] those topics treated by the course organisers.

<u>Topics</u>	Response Tick [√]
a. Developing learning resources
b. Staff development
c. Relating to public
d. Instructional supervision
e. Evaluating teacher performance
f. Evaluating students’ progress

Others (Please, specify)

Q2 STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

3. Are staff development programmes organised for you as a headteacher?

Yes [] No []

4. If 'Yes', tick [√] the options below which were some of the topics treated that are applicable in your case.

<u>Topics</u>	<u>Response (√)</u>
a. Vetting of Lesson notes
b. In-service training activities
c. Continuous assessment
d. Instructional materials
e. Monitoring teaching and learning
Others (please, specify)	

Q. 3 HOW HEADTEACHERS PERCEIVE THEIR OWN LEVEL OF COMPETENCE AS HEADTEACHERS

Instructions: Please with a tick (√) indicate each statement the response that best addresses your own level of competence as an instructional supervisor. The scale means 5- Very Competent; 4- Competent; 3-Quite Competent; 2-Somewhat Competent; 1-Not Competent

Response [√]

	Competence	5	4	3	2	1
5	Evaluation of teachers performance					
6	Keeping of accurate and up to date records of teachers					
7	Evaluation of students' performance					
8	Checking the quality and quantity of students' examinations					
9	Making sure that standard test items are set					
10	Go round and monitor teaching and learning					
11	Organise staff meeting for teachers					
12	Provision of instructional materials					
13	Organisation of in-service training					

14. What challenges do you face in the discharge of your administrative and supervisory duties?

Q. 5. SUPPORT BY CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS

Instructions: With a tick (√), indicate the degree of support by your Circuit Supervisor to enhance your supervisory activities. The scale means: 5- Very often; 4- Often; 3- Quite often; 2 – Occasionally; 1 –Never

Response [√]

	Support	5	4	3	2	1
15	My Circuit Supervisor assists me in evaluating the performances of my teachers.					
16	He helps in improving school administration					
17	He assists in monitoring pupils' performance					
18	He organises in-service activities in response to the needs of my school.					
19	He assists in supervision of instruction in my school					
20	He helps in building healthy school / community relationship.					

21. How often does your Circuit Supervisor visit your school?

Once a month [] Twice a month []

Appendix B

Questionnaire for teachers on perceived

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS ON PERCEIVED
HEADTEACHERS SUPERVISORY COMPETENCE

This questionnaire aims at collecting information about headteacher competence as an instructional supervisor in the basic schools in the Kwaebibirem District of Ghana.

It would be very much appreciated if you could answer the following questions as frankly as you can. Your responses are confidential and your anonymity is assured.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Please write or tick [] the appropriate response or by completing the spaces provided.

Particulars of teacher

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Highest professional / academic qualification
 - (a) Pupil teacher [] (b) Certificate 'A' (4-Year) []
 - (c) Certificate 'A' (Post Secondary) [] (d) Specialist []
 - (e) Teachers' Diploma [] (f) University Degree []
 - g) Others (Please, specify)

3. Your present rank in the Ghana Education Service (GES).

- (a) Superintendent II [] (b) Superintendent I []
(c) Senior Superintendent [] (d) Principal Superintendent []
(e) Assistant Director [] (f) Others (Please specify).....

4. How long have you served as head in the Ghana Education Service?

- (a) Below 5 years [] (b) 6 – 10 years [] (c) 11 – 15 years []
(d) 16 -20 [] (e) 21 – 25 years [] (f) 26 - 30 years and
above []

SECTION B

Please, circle the number on the scale following each statement to show your assessment or perception of your headteacher as a competent instructional supervisor in your school.

The scale means: 5- Very often; 4 – Often; 3 – Sometimes; 2 –Seldom

1 – Never

Q4 HEADTEACHERS' COMPETENCIES AS SUPERVISORS

As an Instructional supervisor, he:

Responses [√]

	Competencies	5	4	3	2	1
1	Evaluates teachers' performance					
2	Makes sure teachers keep accurate and up to date records of the school					
3	Evaluates students' performance					
4	Takes sample of pupils' exercise books to check the quality and quantity of pupils' work.					
5	Checks through test items to find out whether they are up to standard.					
6	Goes round to monitor teaching and learning during instructional periods					
7	Organises staff meetings for teachers to interact on academic issues and how to improve on their teaching.					
8	Provides instructional materials for teaching and learning purposes.					
9	Plans and organises in-service training activities with teachers in response to their needs.					

10. Effective teaching and learning: Does your headteacher promote effective teaching and learning in your school?

Appendix C

Interview guide for Circuit Supervisors

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
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ADMINISTRATION**

**INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS ON PERCEIVED
HEADTEACHERS' SUPERVISORY COMPETENCE**

This interview aims at collecting information about headteacher competence as an instructional supervisor in the basic schools in the Kwaebibirem District of Ghana.

It would be very much appreciated if you could answer the following questions as frankly as you can. Your responses are confidential and your anonymity is assured.

SECTION B

Please, let me have your view on the following questions to show your assessment or perception of headteachers' competence as instructional supervisors in your circuit.

INITIAL TRAINING AFTER APPOINTMENT AS HEAD AND THEIR SUPPORT

1. Training after appointment:

How do newly appointed headteachers in your circuit acquire knowledge in instructional supervision? Is it through:

- i. Special training programme on instructional supervision designed for them to enhance their work as supervisors? If so, what are some of the contents?
- ii. Emulation of professional colleagues?
- iii. Mentorship?

Others (Please, specify).....

2. Staff development: In which of the following ways do the headteachers in your

Circuit updates their knowledge in instructional supervision?

- i. Vetting of lesson notes
- ii. Organising in –service training programmes
- iii. Evaluation of teacher performance
- iv. Supervision of instruction

Others (Please, specify)

4. Support by Circuit Supervisors:

a. How often do you visit a school in your circuit?

Once a month [] Twice a month []

b. Which of the following form of support do you offer the headteachers in your circuit to enhance their efficiency and effectiveness?

- i. Assist in assessing teacher performance.

- i. Help in improving school administration.
- iii. Assist in monitoring pupils' performance.
- iv. Assist in organising in-service training activities
- v. Help in supervision of instruction
- vi. Assist in building healthy school/ community relationship
- Others (Please, specify).....

3. Competent supervisor: Use the options below to indicate the extent to which you consider your headteachers to be competent with respect to the following information provided below?

5 -Very Competent; 4 - Competent; 3 - Quite Competent; 2 - Somehow competent; 1- Not Competent

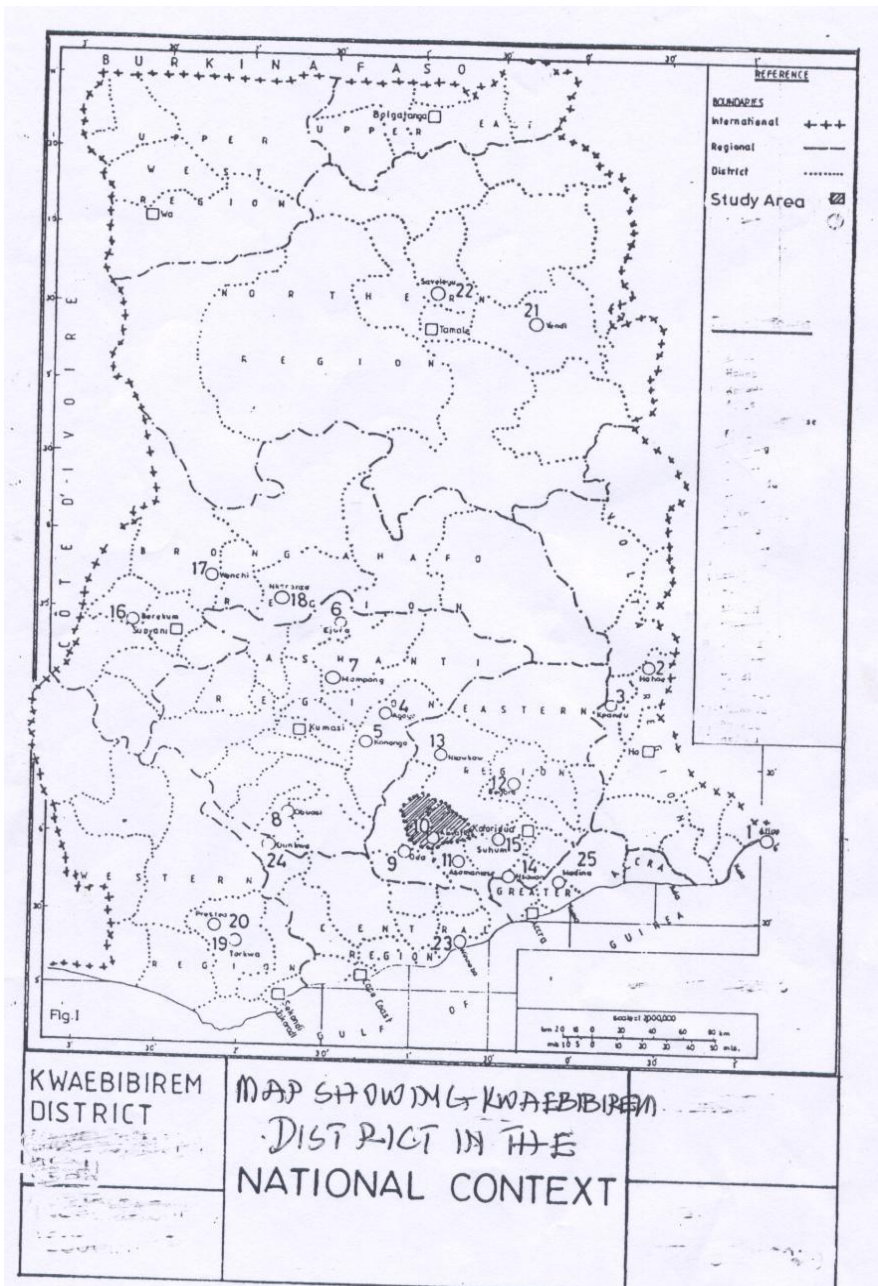
- i. Evaluation of teachers' performances
- ii. Keeping of accurate and up to date records by teachers
- iii. Evaluation of students' performances
- iv. Checking the quality and quantity of students' exercises
- v. Making sure that standard test items are set
- vi. Go round and monitor teaching and learning
- vii. Organise staff meeting for teachers
- viii. Provision of instructional materials
- ix. Organisation of in- service training activities

APPENDIX D

Introductory Letter to the District Director of Education

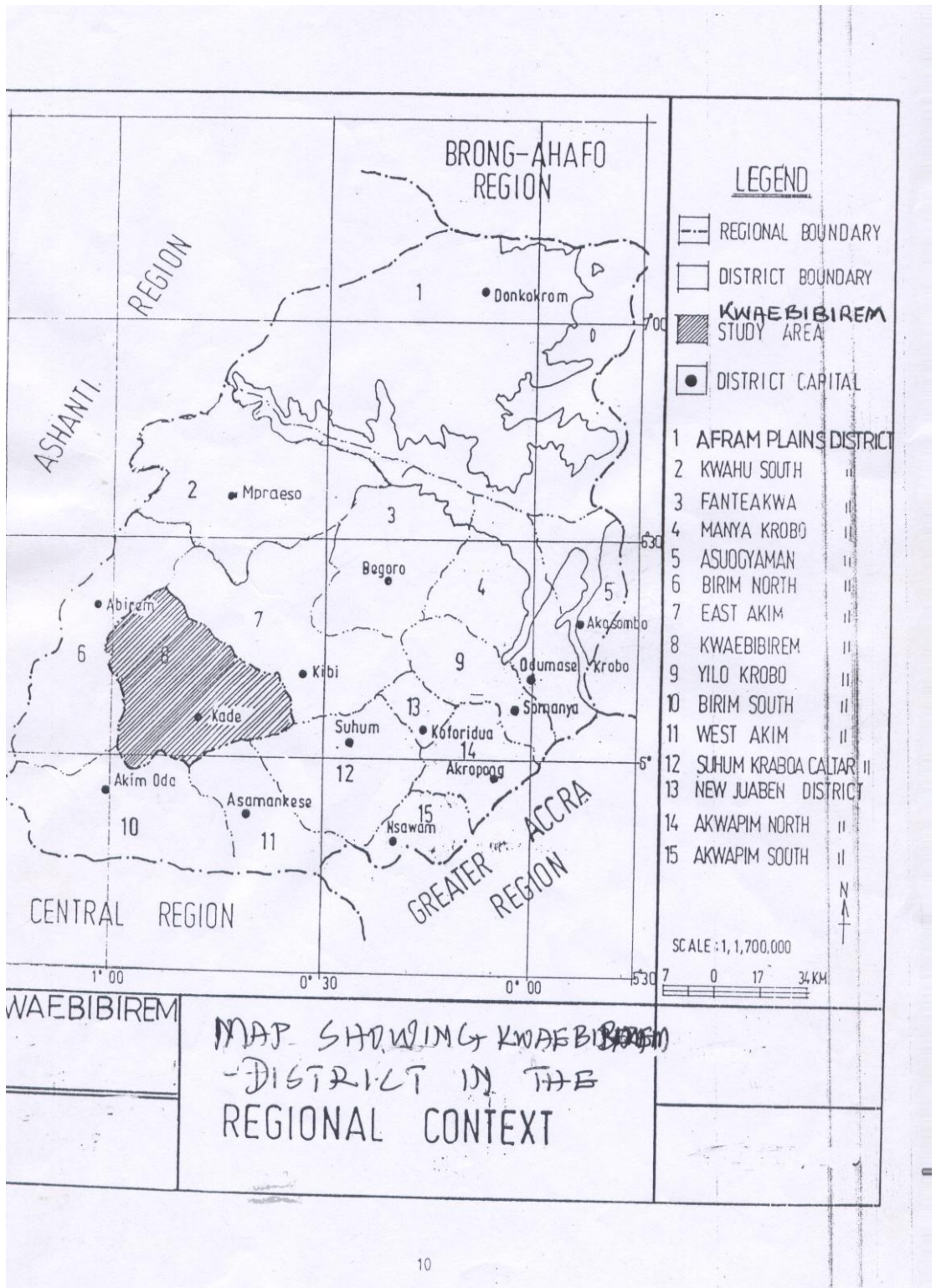
APPENDIX E

Map of Kwaebibirem District in the National Context



APPENDIX F

Map of Kwabibirem in the Regional Context



APPENDIX G

Map of Kwaebibirem District showing Location of Schools

