UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK IN SELECTED BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

PHILOMINA CHARLOTTE FORSON

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BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation 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: …….

Name: Philomina Charlotte Forson

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Supervisor's Signature: …… Date: ……

Name: Mr. J. M. Dzinyela

ABSTRACT

Students in developing countries are often taught for only a fraction of the intended number of school hours because time is often lost or wasted to informal school activities. The study sought to investigate how teachers utilize their time-on-task in selected schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana using the descriptive survey research design. It examined factors that affect teacher time-on-task, effect of teacher time-on-task on students' academic performance and how teacher time-on-task could be improved in the schools.

The sample for the study was 60 teachers who responded to questionnaires. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, that is, frequencies and percentages. The study revealed that teachers' lateness and non-attendance to school affect the use of instructional time. Also, some teachers were of the view that teachers' time-on-task is not for academic activities only, as such, they could use instructional time for other activities.

The study recommended that the Ghana Education Service should intensify both external and internal supervision of teachers to make sure time-on-task is not wasted. In addition, school authorities should sanction teachers who are always not punctual and regular to school and as such waste instructional hours as this will ensure proper use of instructional time.

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DEDICATION

To my children.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

The study is to determine how teachers utilize their time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana. This chapter is made up of the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. It also includes delimitations, limitations and organisation of the study.

Students in developing countries are often taught for only a fraction of the intended number of school hours. Time is often wasted due to informal school closures, teacher absenteeism, delays, early departure, and poor use of classroom time. Since the 1970s, attempts have been made in several countries to measure the use of instructional time in schools and its impact on students' achievement. Studies have been of variable quality and have used different definitions and methods (Carter & Doyle, 2006). However, they have consistently shown that significant amounts of time are lost and that the amount of time spent engaged in learning tasks is related to students' performance. The large losses in many countries raise issues of governance, monitoring and validity of economic analyses. It is important to take instructional time wastage into account when considering public sector expenditures on education, teacher salary rates, unit

costs, and the rates of return from graduates. Refining time-loss measurement methods and disseminating policy implications may improve the efficiency of educational systems worldwide.

Stakeholders and local school districts usually determine the classroom time available to teachers and students. However, regardless of the quantity of time allocated to classroom instruction, it is the classroom teacher and school administrator who determine the effectiveness of the time allotted.

According to a survey conducted by the American Association of School Administrators (2005), teachers identify student discipline as the single greatest factor that decreases time on task in the classroom. Generally, teachers with well-managed classrooms have fewer disciplinary problems. These classrooms typically have teachers who have established rules and procedures and will be in the classroom when the students arrive, and begin class promptly. They reduce the "wear and tear" on themselves and students by establishing procedures for make-up work, they arrange their rooms to accommodate their teaching philosophy and style, and they develop routines that increase overall efficiency. The benefits of establishing these classroom procedures and routines become apparent as the total time on task approaches the allocated time.

Time is an important resource for all activities. The effective use of time enables any organisation to survive in the ever competitive world, achieve set goals and maximise productivity. Costley and Todd (1987) are of the view that time is very important but often an overlooked element. Time is often viewed by individuals as a commodity that can be spent, saved, earned or wasted. The

importance of time is communicated by the ways individuals deal with it. The employee who is frequently late to work will most likely be communicating disorganization, disinterest and unreliability to management. Much of the communication of the use of time involves arrival and departure time at workplace. Atakpa and Ankomah (1998) buttress this assertion in the Baseline Study on the state of school management in Ghana by observing that lateness and absenteeism were 'normal' phenomena in the schools with low achievement levels. Judicious use of time enables the teacher and pupils to improve on both education deliveries as well as education achievements. Generally, time in the school is often managed through the use of timetable. Asiedu-Akrofi (1981) is of the view that it is common for teachers to follow timetable religiously, though it is meant to guide the teacher to cover the work to be done daily. In schools with appreciable improvement in both teaching and learning time is often managed through the modification of timetables to suit local conditions. Koomson et al. (1999) suggested that the teacher is required to take vital pre-instructional decisions on what to teach, when to teach it, how to teach it, how much to teach and how to assess what is taught at any given instructional session. All these activities are time bound. The national curriculum specifies what teachers are expected to do in a given period of time, days, weeks, term and the whole academic year. For this reason, mismanagement or under utilization of instructional time would result in a limited coverage of designed curricula.

Koomson (1999, p. 58) observed that, the annual number of hours available for children to study a given subject in school is determined by three

factors; The hour in the official school year: the proportion of these hours assigned to the subject; and the amount of time lost because of school closing, teacher absence, student absence and miscellaneous interruptions.

When teachers begin class immediately, students view them as better prepared, more organized and systematic in instruction, and better able to explain the material. Students also see these teachers as better classroom managers, friendlier, less punitive, more consistent and predictable, and as ones who value student learning.

Routines like beginning class immediately, reviewing recently taught material, orally reciting new material, having students take notes, and ending the class by reviewing important definitions, formulas, algorithms, and the daily objective keep students engaged and on task. Quality time on task is not a "silver bullet" that can cure all the problems facing education. However, it can play an important role in increasing student achievement.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the relevance of primary education, many developing countries have been found to have ineffective primary education systems (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1992), and this jeopardizes national efforts to build human capital for development. Most pupils do not master the curriculum for basic education. Many developing countries are unable to meet the objective and targets they set for their educational policies.

There is justifiable concern about the extremely low levels of achievement in the public school system in Ghana. Results of the Criterion Reference Testing

(CRT) by the Ghana Education Service (GES) in primary schools in the country have consistently indicated that private schools' performance is far higher than that of their public school counterparts (Ministry of Education [MOE], 1997, cited in Opare, 1999). For instance, while the percentage of pupils in private schools that reached mastery level in English Language and Mathematics in 1997 was 68.7 and 40.4 respectively, the percentages for public school pupils for the same test in the same year were 6.2% and 2.7% respectively. The mean scores for the public schools were 33.9% and 29.9% in English language and mathematics respectively as against 67.5% and 51.7% for private schools in the same subjects (MOE, 1997).

Research from a variety of countries have shown that the amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects, and how well that time is used by students and teachers, is consistently related to how much children learn while they are in school (Bloom, 1977; Mckinney et al., 1975, and Resenshine & Berliner, 1978). World Bank Report 1987 (cited in Lockeed & Verspoor, 1991) indicated that many developing countries like Ghana use less instructional hours than advanced countries and this may be a factor in the low academic performance of pupils.

Empirical information suggests considerable deviation in lower income countries. For example, in Ghana, a large portion of rural schoolteachers did not follow the prescribed weekly timetable (EARC, 2003). Various possible reasons exist, including the likelihood that students may be too far behind in the official syllabus, or that teachers have a poor sense of the time needed to teach specific

topics. However, little systematic information exists regarding the amount of time schools actually spent presenting new materials and progressing with the specified curriculum. Curriculum measurement methods have been complex and dependent on local standards (for example, studies of students' notebooks, Jaafar, 2006). More research is needed to develop relatively simple means of measuring distance from expected curricular coverage. Some teachers, knowingly or unknowingly, use instructional time for other activities. This goes a long way to affect the time pupils use to learn and consequently affect their academic performance. There is therefore the need to find out how teachers in basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis use their time on task.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to determine how teachers utilize their time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana. Specifically, the study investigated into:

1. The attitude of teachers towards time-on-task in the primary schools.
2. The factors that affect teachers' time -on- task in basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.
3. The effect of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of school children
4. The respondents' views on the steps that can be taken to improve teachers' time-on-task in basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Research Questions

1. What is the attitude of teachers towards time-on-task in the selected schools in Cape Coast Metropolis?
2. What factors affect teacher time-on-task in the selected schools?
3. What is the perceived effect of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of school children?
4. How, in the view of the respondents, can teacher time-on-task be improved in the selected schools?

Significance of the Study

The study will add to knowledge relating to effective use of teacher time-on-task in basic schools. It will also help teachers improve upon their time-on-task in basic schools especially in the Cape Coast Metropolis. It will highlight factors that affect teachers' time-on-task and how their effects can be minimized. It would also awareness among educational authorities to monitor the use of instructional time in the basic schools.

Delimitation of the Study

The study is delimited to teacher time-on-task in basic education in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study was conducted on teachers in five basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Limitations of the Study

Retrieving the questionnaire from the respondents was somehow difficult. Sometimes I had to wait for hours and weeks for questionnaires to be completed. This made some respondents answer the questions in a hurry and this may affect

the objectivity of their responses. These, however, may affect the outcome of the study. Care was taken to reduce the effect.

Organisation of the Study

This study seeks to improve teacher time-on-task in basic education in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Chapter One of the study is the introduction, which is made up of the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. It also includes delimitations, limitations and organisation of the study.

Chapter Two is the literature review. This delves into works of pervious scholars in relation to the study. The review was done under the following sub-topics: time loss due to wastage of classroom time (time on task); factors that affect teachers time-on-task; time and classroom management; teacher attitude; supervision; and school discipline.

Chapter Three of the study is the methodology. It looked at the research design used, the population, sample and the sampling technique, the instrument used for data collection, the data collection procedure and how data was analysed.

Chapter Four analyses and discusses findings of the research, which are done in relation to the research questions. Chapter Five is devoted to summary, conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The main purpose of this study is to find out how teachers utilize their time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana. This chapter therefore looks at works done by pervious scholars in relation to the study. This is done under the following sub-headings:

i. Time Loss Due to Wastage of Classroom Time (Time on Task)
ii. Factors that Affect Teachers Time-on-task
iii. Time and Classroom Management
iv. Teacher Attitude
v. Supervision
vi. School Discipline

Time Loss Due to Wastage of Classroom Time (Time on Task)

Ideally, students should be engaged in learning during the entire time they are in class, particularly with activities that are more conducive to long-term memory consolidation of needed material and formation of useful linkages among pieces of information (Abadzi, 2006). Schools in higher-income countries, that have trained teachers and a multitude of materials, may succeed in keeping most students suitably engaged most of the time. It is probably impossible to have 100 percent student compliance and time use, but some systems can become fairly

efficient. For example, a published longitudinal study of eight elementary schools in Chicago found that 85 percent of the daily allocated time was dedicated to instruction (Smith, 2000). Similarly, class-time use in Tunisia was measured at 86.7 percent.

In many countries, however, time in classrooms is not well used. The loss may be due to inadequate teacher knowledge and material resources. UNESCO (2001) reports suggest that poorly trained teachers may not know which activities result in efficient time use or why this concept matters (Attar, 2001; Njie, 2001). In countries such as the Gambia and Burkina Faso, textbooks are often scarce, and much class time may be lost when writing out lessons and problems on the board (Dia, 2003). The importance of time loss involved in copying was illustrated by a comparison of instructional time in three Latin American countries: few Brazilian schools used prepared activities, so students spent significantly more time copying math problems from the blackboard than did Chileans and Cubans. The test scores tended to reflect these differences (Carnoy, Gove, and Marshall, 2004). However, it is not sufficient for students to have books: they must also know how to read and understand the texts in order to learn. In a Kenyan program where an NGO provided textbooks to all students, instructional time in classrooms improved, but a vetted study showed that test scores remained stagnant (Glewwe, Kremer, and Moulin, 1999).

Students should not just be engaged in any learning activity, but should spend their time in activities that teach the prescribed curriculum. Students who do this are most likely to score well in achievement tests, so time spent on the

curriculum may be a more useful predictor of learning outcomes than engagement in any learning activity (Vocknell, 2006).

Countries have increased their emphasis on quality and on instructional delivery in recent years, and an emerging issue is the neglect of lower scoring students. Teachers may engage the class in the required learning activities but interact with only the few students who can do the work. Many of the neglected students eventually drop out. The situation has been documented in World Bank evaluation reports (OED, 2005; IEG, 2008), and there is published information on Jamaica (Lockheed and Harris, 2005) and Albania (Sultana, 2006). A published Greek study also found that the less-knowledgeable students spent more time "off task" (Matsagouras, 1987).

In Jamaica, the teachers of the higher primary grades concentrated on the few students who could pass the school leaving examinations. Albanian teachers directed questions 4.7 times more often to the better students than the failing ones, while the latter were uninvolved and asked no questions. This phenomenon, called "hidden dropout" in Albania, illustrates the complexities involved in measuring instructional time. It is not sufficient to document that instruction is going on; the percentage of students involved in it must be also measured.

EDUCA (2005) used quick assessments of whether or not a class is engaged in instruction, but the reliability of this method and its relationship to learning outcomes have not been established. To estimate the percentage of students actually involved in instruction, targeted research may be justified using

more sophisticated methods, such as instruments that register students' activities (Yair, 2000).

Factors that Affect Teachers' Time-on-task

In spite of the value of instruction time in successful teaching and learning, many low and lower-middle level income countries have a shorter official school year than upper middle and high income countries (Benavot and Kamens, 1989). However, in some developing countries, the official academic year is substantially shorter than the average, for example, 610 hours in Ghana. Instructional time is still shorter in Ghana. Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) wrote that the worldwide official academic year for primary grades one through six averages 880 instructional hours.

Researching into the use of instruction time, Allington (2001) found out that low achieving schools spend less time in reading than do high-achieving schools. Successful teachers are aware of how important every minute of reading is for their students. Allington recognized that in less-effective classrooms thirty to fifty minutes of every school day was wasted because of ineffective organisation. Allington suggests that the school day should be examined and reorganised in order to make time for reading.

Godlad (1984) shared Allington's view on the misuse of instructional time by some schools. In his comprehensive research, "A Place called School", Godlad established that some devote 65% of their time to instruction, whereas others devote almost 90 percent. "The variation is enormous", he comments.

Moore (1998) was concerned about how time is lost in today's classrooms. He listed some common time wasters as:

i. Changing and beginning classes,

ii. Excessive viewing of films by pupils at home,

iii Not handling routine procedures smoothly and quickly,

iv. Time for testing,

v. Spending too much time on discipline,

vi. Early finishing of lesson,

vii. Too frequent interruptions of a lesson,

viii. Holding of meeting during school hours, and

ix. Numerous co- curricular activities

Although most of the points raised by Moore (1998) are genuine, I beg to differ on few, especially "the time for testing". Although, test takes much time, it as an instrument of assessment, motivate students or pupils to learn, measure the achievement of instructional objectives, grade pupils, select and place students, certify pupils, diagnose students' learning difficulties and also offer guidance and counseling to students.

Writing on factors that influence the quality of instructions, Nanacino, Oke and Brown (1982) mentioned lack of dedication to teaching as one of the main reasons for the failure of some teachers. According to them, lack of dedication results in lesson not being properly planned and teachers being absent from their classes. If inadequate salaries should force some teachers to engage in other businesses to help supplement their income, such private businesses should

not result in the neglect of their duties towards their students. If a teacher finds out he or she is spending so much time on his own private enterprise such that he/she does not have sufficient time to attend properly to his lessons and pupils, it would be better for him or her to leave the teaching profession altogether.

Extra-curricular activities are among the activities that disrupt the efficient use of instructional time in schools. In the light of this, the Governing Board of Lemon Grove School in the United States encourage student to participate in extra-curricular activities that extend learning experiences beyond the walls of the classroom (Lemon Grove School District, 2003). The Board, however, argued that "the principal or designee should ensure that the extra-curricular and non-instructional activities do not erode valuable instructional time.

Several researches have been conducted on ways of utilizing time to achieve the desired goals of an educational system. University of Nebraska-Lincoln (2003) suggested that in order to utilize instructional time effectively, teachers, and para-educators should look for ways to increase the impact of learning activities themselves. They continued that strategies that increase students interest in the learning process increase the impact of learning activities. The University however admitted that, adhering to classroom schedules is not always easy since students, administrators, visitors and other interruptions always seem to compete with instructional time. The teacher should make a particular effort to maintain the schedule and provide allocated time for instructional activities which reflect the planned priorities. Activities such as announcements, break time, attendance, games and cleaning up after activities easily compete with

instructional time. Teachers should develop plan for handling these non-instructional activities.

Teachers can use time management in the classroom to optimize learning opportunities for students. When we think of the concept 'time' with regard to learning we often think of pace, in other words, moving quickly through the planned learning activities. But it's easy to think that pace means having to rush through an activity, which sometimes can be a mistake. Pace needs to be appropriate: the learning needs to proceed briskly, but not be rushed. When considering effective time management in the classroom as a means of making learning most effective for students, progression needs to be planned for as well as pace. Effective time management in the classroom is one of the keys to engaging students in successful learning and teachers need to plan it carefully.

Time should be used to achieve more learning. It should be invested wisely in activities that result in pupils' learning rather than frittering it away on inconsequential matters. One circumstance in which instructional time is wasted is what Hunter (1982) describes as "Waiting". Hunter asserted that waiting for the class to convene, waiting for materials to be passed and waiting while roll is called result in little learning.

Time and Classroom Management

Nickel et al. (1975) argued that the term "Time Management" is a misnomer. This, according to them, is because people in reality, cannot manage time or its production or redistribution. These in fact, are already provided by nature. Rather what people can do is to manage its use. They assert that people

cannot refuse the next hour coming to them or make up the last 15 minutes that has been misused. Hence people can only manage how to use time as it comes to them and passes away.

Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) stated categorically that, "the amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects and how well that time is used by teachers and pupils is consistently related to how pupils learn while they are in school" (p.57). It can be inferred from the statement, that appropriate use of instructional time by both teachers and pupils is very important, that is why heads of basic schools need to supervise and monitor teachers' time-on-task regularly and help reduce misuse of instructional hours.

Utilizing effective transitions in the classroom helps teachers to minimize disruptions and behavior problems, maximize instructional time, and maintain optimal learning conditions (Arlin, 1979; Vartuli & Phelps, 1980). They also serve to provide students with indirect feedback on the pace at which they are each working (Arlin, 1979). The key to successful transitions is for teachers to use a variety of structured approaches (Smith, 1985).

Simply put, transitions are periods of time when teachers direct students to end one task or activity and begin another (Arlin, 1979). Because they are periods when students can be disruptive (Vartuli & Phelps, 1980), carefully managed transitions involve both time management and behavioral management (Stainback & Stainback, 1996). The most successful transitions between lessons or activities are rapid ones that have clear ends and beginnings (Arlin, 1979) and that reduce the amount of "down time" between the activities (Sainato, 1990, Vartuli, &

Phelps, 1980). A number of strategies help to facilitate quick transitions, including preventive measures teachers can take ahead of time, and situational behaviors that will make each transition go more smoothly.

Teachers can plan ahead to organize their management strategies, schedules, lesson plans and classrooms for successful transitions. First, teachers will want to have clear routines for accomplishing every-day tasks and activities, such as entering the classroom, taking attendance, or handing in homework (Smith et al., 2001). The more tasks that can be streamlined and standardized, the less disruption and confusion they cause students (Cangelosi, 2000; Charles, 1996). Similarly, clearly established and enforced class rules/expectations make behavioral expectations clear and help to minimize the likelihood of inappropriate behaviors during periods of transition (Arlin, 1979; Rosenberg, et al., 1997; Stainback & Stainback, 1996). Sometimes chaotic transitions occur because students do not have a sense of what to expect during the school day. Teachers can limit this source of disruption by prominently posting and adhering to a daily or weekly schedule and making certain students know of any changes to it ahead of time (Ayers & Hedeen, 1996; Burden, 2003; Olson & Platt, 2000; Reis, 1988; Vartuli & Phelps, 1980). It is helpful if the schedule incorporates transitional times, as well, particularly those that occur between active and quiet student activity levels or between more and less preferred activities (Sainato, 1990). Both teachers and students should be prepared for each new lesson (or activity) to minimize disruptions between them (Burden, 2003; Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Vartuli & Phelps, 1980). Materials should be accessible so that students can get to

them rapidly and easily (Fromberg & Driscoll, 1985; Olson & Platt, 2000). Finally, when students are required to move around the room (or school) between activities or lessons, transitions can be made smoother if the setting is arranged to facilitate the flow of students with a minimum of disruption (Burden, 2003; Cangelosi, 2000; Rosenberg, Wilson, Maheady, & Sindelar, 1997; Stainback & Stainback, 1996).

During instruction or at the time of transitions, there are a number of strategies teachers can use to encourage rapid and smooth progress from one lesson or activity to another. As with teaching students any new skill or behavior, teachers may want to model the appropriate way for students to make a transition between activities (Olson & Platt, 2000; Rosenkoetter & Fowler, 1986; Smith et al., 2001) and then have students practice it (Olson & Platt, 2000; Reis, 1988; Smith et al., 2001), giving them feedback as they do so. Once students know what to do, it is important to let them know when to do it (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). A highly effective strategy is to give consistent visual or auditory signals and verbal cues to alert students that a period of transition is coming (Arlin, 1979; Burden, 2003; Cangelosi, 2000; Smith et al., 2001). This should be done in advance so that students have enough notice to finish up what they are working on and prepare for the next activity (Ayers & Hedeen, 1996; Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). For example, a teacher might signal students five minutes ahead of time and then again as the end of the activity draws closer, particularly for students that have trouble monitoring themselves and the pace of

their work or who tend to exhibit behavior problems when they feel rushed or "caught off guard" (Ayers & Hedeen, 1996).

Once students have been given the cue or signal that it is time to make a transition, teachers should provide enough "wait time" for students to follow through so that they are ready for the next activity or set of instructions (Arlen, 1979; Smith, 1985). Researchers also recommend that teachers circulate among students during transition times, to attend to individual students' needs and questions, help them prepare for the next task, and quell any minor disruptions before they escalate (Olson & Platt, 2000). Finally, though less effective than the preventive strategies discussed above, teachers may find it useful to provide incentives, or other reinforcers to students for making successful transitions from one activity or setting to another (Olson & Platt, 2000; Sainato, 1990). These might include a snack, the ability to exchange tokens or points for a toy or game, or permission to participate in a desirable activity.

Particularly for students with learning or behavior problems, these measures help support appropriate classroom behaviors by setting clear expectations, limiting opportunities for disruptive behaviors, and limiting the sources of frustration that can sometimes lead to inappropriate/unacceptable behavior. In addition, teaching students how to make effective transitions between activities helps promote independence in coping with changes in their environments (Sainato, 1990). Classroom management has been defined as the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur (Duke, 1979).

The primary goal of effective classroom management is not the reduction of misbehavior or even the creation of an "orderly" environment. Although they are related issues, effective classroom management and the establishment of order are not synonymous. For example, teaching practices that lead to passive non engagement would not threaten an orderly environment, but would reduce opportunities for learning (Doyle, 1986). Student learning is the primary goal of effective classroom management.

Although the presence of order in a classroom does not necessarily indicate high levels of learning, the research clearly suggests that an emphasis on effective strategies to promote learning can facilitate order. Doyle (1984) reported that effective teachers in difficult management situations pushed students through the curriculum as a way of achieving and sustaining order.

In summarizing the findings from the research, Doyle (1986) made the observation that the quality of classroom management depends on "the strength and durability of the primary program, or vector of action" (p. 393). In essence, then, the essential prerequisite for effective classroom management is instructional strength in the implementation of:

i. Time management procedures, such as appropriate pacing and well-planned transitions.
ii. Teaching functions, such as attention to prerequisites, guided practice and systematic reviews.
iii. Effective academic feedback and monitoring skills.

Instructional strength supports a teacher's efforts to bring about both learning and order in a classroom. Although it seems obvious to state that effective classroom management is facilitated if students are actively and successfully engaged in the planned program of instruction, most teachers know that it is easy to be distracted by student misbehavior, and therefore forget to stress the primary instructional tasks. A vicious cycle can be created, in which lack of attention to the primary instructional tasks creates the vacuum in which misbehavior thrives, and this misbehavior further distracts the teacher from the primary instructional tasks. The effective teacher knows well that effective class management is not primarily the process of reducing misbehavior, but rather the process of increasing appropriate behavior.

In summarizing the findings from a study that involved the intense observation of classroom management procedures in 75 elementary school classrooms, Crocker and Brooker (1986) stated that "higher achievement is attained in classrooms that function in a businesslike manner, under high teacher direction, with a minimum of lost time or task disruption" (p. 10). Teachers who operate classrooms in a businesslike manner explicitly communicate not only the goals of the instruction but also the rules students need to follow, so as to ensure a productive interaction between teaching procedures and student behavior. To the casual observer, the process of rule setting appears to inform students of new expectations. The effective classroom manager realizes that the process of rule setting is far more complex and subtle. In reality, most students in most grades already know the rules. What, then, is the primary purpose of rule setting if it is

not the imparting of new information? The issue has been summarized by Doyle (1986) as follows:

> By setting rules, a teacher communicates his or her awareness of what can happen in a classroom and demonstrates a degree of commitment to work. Students are thus able to acquire valuable information early in the year about a teacher's approach and expectations for behavior. The more explicit the rules and the more clearly they are communicated, the more likely the teacher will care about maintaining order and not tolerate inappropriate and disruptive behavior. But simply stating the rules is not enough. A teacher must also demonstrate willingness and an ability to act when rules are broken (p. 413).

Rules should have a strong preventive role. For example, if a teacher constantly reprimands students for playing with objects on their desks and sets no rules related to what should be on the desk for a specific activity, he or she has failed to make use of a simple preventive option–the use of a set of rules to guide the effective use of desk space in school and in future work places. The process of setting and implementing rules has instructional as well as management value. The students are learning procedures for ensuring their effective participation and acceptance in social settings. For this reason, rules should be introduced in the same way as any academic concept is introduced. The rationale for the rules

should be clarified, and the processes used to present the rules should promote both understanding and respect for the rules.

The process of monitoring student behaviour and intervening when necessary is clearly one of the most demanding requirements for effective classroom management. The need for interventions is reduced if credible rules are clarified and instructional activities are appropriately implemented, but there may still be several times in each lesson when some type of intervention is necessary.

The misbehavior being addressed in this discussion is the kind teachers typically encounter. Typical misbehaviors include tardiness, cutting classes, failure to bring supplies and books, inattentiveness, talking, call-outs, and mild forms of verbal and physical aggression (Silverstein, 1979).

The propensity for student misbehavior is clearly related to students' perceptions of the teacher as a manager. One way the teacher establishes credibility is by demonstrating an awareness of who will probably misbehave, and when. Research has consistently documented the fact that most misbehavior is initiated by only a few students (Metz, 1978). We also know that the time and the type of task are factors in predicting the occurrence of misbehavior. Rusnock and Brandler (1979) noted that higher ability students were more prone to misbehavior during transitions and near the end of instructional segments. Lower-ability students were more likely to be off-task in the middle of an instructional segment.

The teacher who demonstrates an awareness of times of high probability for misbehavior, and exercises increased vigilance or takes other preventive

action, is building credibility and preventing the occurrence of misbehavior. The teacher who, for example, initiates a transition and then turns to write on the blackboard is inviting challenges and reducing credibility. The teacher's physical placement in the classroom can create or reduce opportunities for monitoring student behavior and managing interventions. The teacher who spends virtually all class time at the front of the class will not have the opportunity to observe what is really going on at each desk, nor will he or she be able to make the timely and personal contacts that build productive relationships between teacher and students. The effective teacher is very aware that management is far easier from the back than from the front of the classroom. There is little in the research literature to suggest that there is a positive correlation between the frequency of interventions to reduce misbehavior and student achievement. Kounin (1983), in an observational study, noted that the students were "on-task" in the same classroom only 25 percent of the time.

Interventions range from relatively unobtrusive signals to extremely disruptive actions. One form of intervention is task engagement feedback: feedback to the student about whether classroom behavior is acceptable or unacceptable. After intensely observing a large number of teachers, a group of researchers (Fisher et al., 1980, p. 35) reported as follows:

> Most of the task engagement feedback we observed turned out to be negative, such as reminders to students to get back to work when they were off task. We found no evidence that frequent use of such reprimands had any positive

effect. It may be that some well-timed and well-phrased reminders are useful, but when task engagement feedback becomes frequent, it is a sign that some structural changes are needed. There is an important lesson here for teachers who use these findings to increase student engagement: Scolding students more often is not the answer. Instead, one might;

i. check to see that tasks are not too hard for the student (task engagement feedback was positively correlated with low success rate),
ii. increase the clarity and emphasis with which expectations are stated and the consistency with which students are held accountable, or
iii. increase the amount of substantive interactive instruction.

Clearly, one of the most important types of appropriate behavior is success in the curriculum, and such success must be followed by timely reinforcing consequences. However, other competencies are often required of students and these are not always formally stated. Trenholm and Rose (1981) identified the following categories: responding in appropriate form to academic requests or tasks, controlling impulsiveness, dealing with problems and negative feedback in mature ways, interacting courteously and cooperatively with peers, attending to and becoming involved in classroom activities and procedures, and recognizing appropriate contexts for different types of behavior. If the teacher feels that any of these behaviors are important, he or she should say so and possibly post a list of them. It is unfair and instructionally ineffective to expect a student to deduce a

teacher's "silent curriculum" by observing or experiencing the teacher's system of rewards and punishments.

Perhaps the most frequently mentioned consequence for appropriate behavior is teacher praise. Researchers who have observed the use of praise in the classroom suggest that all is not well. Brophy (1981), in a summary of the research, reported that "Classroom-process data indicate teachers' verbal praise cannot be equated with reinforcement. Typically, such praise is used infrequently, without contingency, specificity, or credibility" (p. 5).

Most experienced teachers have encountered a few peers trapped in a vicious cycle in which they are heavily dependent on reprimands and punishment as the primary vehicles for attempting to create order and reduce misbehavior. Such an approach to management strips teachers and students of dignity and threatens the credibility and professionalism of all teachers.

In contrast, teachers who clarify the "hidden curriculum" effectively implement a well planned and validated sequence of instruction, and frequently recognize and praise students, thereby add to the credibility of the profession and have more positive feelings about themselves as persons and as educators. It has been reported that although effective teachers work hard, they rarely have difficulty "coping." Hosford (1984) summed up the issue as follows:

> Effective teachers manage well. Coping is rarely an issue. The students are so busy at task related activities, following sensible routines, and striving toward clearly understood objectives, that situations with which teachers

> must "cope" seldom have an opportunity to arise. Through management skills, superior teachers achieve what has commonly been labeled "preventive discipline" in the professional literature. (p. 32).

Teacher Attitude

Aiken (1972) defined attitude as “a tendency on the part of an individual to respond positively or negatively to some goal, situation and concept of another person” (p. 5). Rokeach (1972) also defined attitude as “the result of several beliefs a person holds that make him or her respond in preferential way towards an object or situation. An attitude may also refer to the belief about people, things and event.

However, not all social psychologists agree on a definition of the term attitude, some view attitude exclusively as sentiments, statement, of feeling or effect. Attitudes are always with us in our day to day encounters with each other and usually carry a positive or negative change, therefore, a basic element in attitude or perceptual set is to like or dislike someone or something (Hollander, 1981). Allport (1935) however defined attitude in the encyclopedia of the social science as a “mental and neutral state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all object and situation with which it is related” (p.15). In Allport’s definition, one can see that the presence of attitude prepares the individual attitudes.

Hayess (1994) pointed out that a study of attitude can help to explain some reasons why some people may drop out from something or in this case not

performing well on a programme. From a broader perspective, Sdorow (1993) regards attitude to be evaluations of ideas, events, objects or people.

Researchers (Frank, 1990; Fulton, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Handler, 1993) asserted the axiom that teachers usually teach in the way they were taught. This compelling statement highlights the importance of reviewing and analyzing students' prior educational experiences for insight into the effective and ineffective attitudes and actions of teachers. The effective attitudes and actions employed by teachers ultimately can make a positive difference on the lives of their students.

Calderhead (1996), Pianta (1999), and Watson (2003) have described teaching as an intensely psychological process and believed a teacher's ability to maintain productive classroom environments, motivate students, and make decisions depends on his/her personal qualities and the ability to create personal relationships with his/her students. These effective attitudes and actions employed by teachers ultimately can make a positive difference on the lives of their students. It is known that attitudes have a profound impact on teacher practices and behaviors. Richardson (1996) argued that "attitudes and beliefs are a subset of a group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions" (p. 102). With effective attitudes, teachers and students can develop relationships of mutual respect and trust. Studies on each of these five attitudes have been completed by researchers, and a brief summary will follow that reinforces the findings from the Introduction to Teaching and Learning course.

Research by Larson and Silverman (2000) and Noddings (1984) have emphasized the importance of developing a caring and respectful relationship between teachers and students. They support students' needs for both communication and care in order to achieve a personal relationship with their teachers. Noddings (1984) believed the entire school curriculum should be built around the ethic of care. She contended that with this construction, caring will become an integral part of a committed, reciprocal relationship between the teacher and student.

Carlson and Hastie (1997) believed teachers' and students' agendas need to overlap and be in support of each other, and the end result would be a positive learning environment. This way of learning is a challenging way of constructing freedom in the classroom. The strength in a constructivist based classroom is in the lessons and activities of the students. Zimmerman (1990) and Claxton (1996) believed that the learning process should be organized in such a way that students take responsibility for their own learning. Students should be independent and able to make decisions about their learning ability and then plan accordingly. Richardson (1999) states student-directed learning and curricula have become focal points for all constructivist-based teaching and learning practices.

Supervision

There are several interpretations of the term 'supervision' but typically Carter (1989) stated that supervision is carried out by supervisors to oversee the productivity and performance level and progress of employees who report directly to them. Musaazi (1985) expressed the view that supervision of

instruction is intended to improve the teaching and learning process in the school. To him, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant stimulating and wholesome environment. He pointed out that, it is the supervisor's 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 making good use of the potentials of teachers. Thus, a supervisor of education is one whose duty is to collaborate with other educational officials to improve the effectiveness of the school's teaching and learning process.

According to Musaazi (1985) there was the need for supervision because it draws together the elements of instructional effectiveness in the whole school action. In other words, all activities of the school are harnessed in such a way as to bring about effective teaching and learning.

Raynolds (1989) although, expressing a view different from that of Musaazi (1985) believed that the purpose of supervision is to monitor teachers to determine if their instruction includes the elements of effective instruction. If these elements are observed, the supervisor should provide positive reinforcement to ensure that they continue to be included in the teacher's lessons.

Becher (1958) believed that the purpose of supervision is to engage teachers in mutual inquiry aimed at the improvement of instruction. The supervisor and teacher should share perception of instructional problems, exchange suggestions for solving these problems and negotiate an improvement plan which becomes a hypothesis to be tested by the teacher with the supervisor's

assistance Thus, Becher believes that supervisors and teachers should share the responsibility for instructional improvement.

As stated in the C*ircuit Supervisor's Handbook (2002)* a circuit supervisor should be able to demonstrate the necessary skills and competencies in the supervision and assessment of instruction and also determine the professional needs of teachers through identifying problems of teaching and learning in schools .This can be done through monitoring, teacher's preparation and lesson observation in the classroom. The supervisor must have the ability to offer curricular and co-curricular support as appropriate and ensure effective supervision of heads through a well managed supervision programme. Besides, the supervisor should identify and deal with factors which militate against the effective use of instructional time on task in schools.

School Discipline

Discipline is originally derived from the Latin word "disco" which means "I learn". According to (Cotton, 2004, p. 30) "the main idea is that of submission to rules that structure what has to be learnt". Cotton further attested that, discipline can be training that is expected to produce a specified character or pattern of behaviour or controlled behaviour resulting from such training; but it can also be punishment intended to correct or to train. The term conveys the idea of submission to rules or some kind of order. To maintain discipline is to maintain some order. Discipline therefore is the means whereby children are trained in orderliness, good conduct and the habit of getting the best out of themselves. Hymes (1990) defined discipline as "the slow, bit-by-bit, time-consuming task of

helping children to see the sense in acting in a certain way" (p. 2). Ingersoll (1996) and Lewis (1997) reported that the most important factor capable of influencing students' sense of responsibility is discipline strategies.

A number of scholars have also defined discipline differently. For example, Mankoe (2002, p.87) defined discipline as "the systematic, mental, and moral or physical training or subjection of students to school authority or to bring students into the habit of obedience to authority". Good (1995) also described discipline as the characteristic degree and kind of orderliness in a given school or the means by which that order is obtained; the maintenance of conditions conducive to the efficient achievement of the school functions. In a similar sense, Furldn (1998) described discipline as all the measures taken to enforce the set of formal or informal rules governing an institution. Koh (2009) similarly perceived the form of discipline used in education as a form of control and so does not yield the desire result of respect for authority. Jones (1993) also saw discipline as the business of enforcing simple classroom rules that facilitate learning and minimized disruption.

Poor student behaviours and lack of smart choices continues to be evident in many Schools in Ghana. There are newspaper publications and radio news commentaries about various incidents of students' misbehaviours in schools and the need to promote effective discipline (Anti, 2002).

Fontana (1986) asserted that, nearness of age between students and teachers sometimes prevents the teacher from maintaining the required discipline. Jones (1993) also reported that a teacher who sexually exploits students or

misconducts him or herself sexually undermines his/her authority in the school. Students of such a teacher are more likely to misbehave in class. He further indicates that teachers who show favouritism to students' misbehaviour in class cause indiscipline.

Blair (1975) also noted that harsh punishment weakens students' morale and causes them to be hostile and resentful towards authority. Earlier, Jones (1993, p. 36) had noted that "excessive control over students elicits feeling of rebellion and hostility which result in counter aggressive behaviour in students". Webster therefore advises that teachers should be more concerned with rewarding good behaviours than repressing bad ones.

Stenhouse (1968) observed that teachers who fail to overcome domestic squabbles and frustrations become verbally aggressive towards students in the classroom. Such emotional outbursts do not help to promote discipline, as students tend to be resentful and rebellious against such teachers.

Anderson and Dyke (1963) also noted that punishment is a negative approach to misbehaviour, because it is based upon fear of reprisal rather than on a positive demand of behaviour from a person. Again, it is directed at symptoms rather than causes of misbehaviour and, therefore, its excessive use can be counter-productive. They advised that punishment should be a supplement to other techniques in developing responsible conduct and a cure for all disciplinary behaviours. Conversely, other experts (e.g. Davidson & Lang, 1960; Kleinfield, 1972; Morrison & Mclntyre, 1969; Traux & Tatum, 1966) report that teachers

who show empathy and appear to like their students and show interest in their welfare have better behaved students.

Many experts (e.g. Asiedu- Akrofi, 1978; Charles, 1981) have stated that the best way to handle misbehaviour is to prevent it from happening. This is because apart from creating the congenial atmosphere needed for teaching and learning, preventive disciplinary measures also help to avoid the many negative effects of punishment. Schools therefore normally institute disciplinary measures to prevent acts considered improper. These acts are supposed to prevent indiscipline behaviours and so are preventive measures.

Charles (1981) opines that when students choose to misbehave, corrective measures should be employed to redirect their behaviour. Hence, the consequences that are linked to the breaking of the rules are supposed to be known by students in advance. Common forms of punishment include caning, asking a student to do a piece of grounds work (such as weeding, digging holes etc), loss of privileges, and suspension. Corrective disciplinary control is therefore, punitive in nature; it imposes external control and attempts to compel students to put up good behaviour. School rules and regulations prescribe the forms of punishment for breaking those rules. These punishments are supposed to be corrective of misbehaviours. It is believed that the consistent administration of punishments of undesirable behaviour induces the behaviour deemed appropriate for a person. If these measures fail, the student with the recalcitrant behaviour is usually expelled.

Desists can be used with students who are not following the rules of transition times. A desist, according to Steere (1998) is: "an action that a teacher takes to immediately suppress misbehavior, thus allowing the lesson to continue. Desists may be in the form of an un-approving facial expression, a verbal directive, or some other sort of punishment" (p. 28). There are verbal and nonverbal desists. Some examples of nonverbal desists include: remaining quiet and waiting for students' attention, moving closer to the student who is not following the rules, making eye contact, frowning, or shaking your head at the student. Some examples of verbal desist include: saying the name of the student, asking the student to refer to the rule he or she has broken, or having a conference with the student. Yet other desists can be: taking away privileges, moving the student to another spot in the classroom, sending the student to speak with the principal or counselor, or speaking with parents. Carter and Doyle wrote that, "studies show that desists are effective in reducing classroom disruptions," (as cited in Marzano, 2003). Steere (1998) argued that effective classroom teachers use desists sparingly, while ineffective teachers tend to over-rely on the use of desists.

Once proper rules and routines have been established for transitions, it is important for them to be maintained. Students should be monitored on a frequent and regular basis shortly after learning the rules and routines (Carta et al., 1998). As the students become more familiar and proficient with the structure of transitions, teacher scaffolding can be decreased.

Summary of Literature Reviewed

In summing up the literature reviewed, the issues discussed showed that students should be engaged in learning during the entire time they are in class. This particularly included activities that are more conducive to long-term memory consolidation of needed material and formation of useful linkages among pieces of information. The loss of classroom time may be due to inadequate teacher knowledge and material resources. Lack of dedication to teaching was said to be one of the main reasons for the failure of some teachers. The amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects and how well that time is used by teachers and pupils was consistently said to be related to how pupils learn while they are in school. Utilizing effective transitions in the classroom also helps teachers to minimize disruptions and behaviour problems, maximize instructional time, and maintain optimal learning conditions. The literature showed that teachers should circulate among students during transition times, to attend to individual students' needs and questions, help them prepare for the next task, and quell any minor disruptions before they escalate. Teachers' and students' agenda need to overlap and be in support of each other, and the end result would be a positive learning environment. The literature indicated that the purpose of supervision is to engage teachers in mutual inquiry aimed at the improvement of instruction. On supervision, which can help improve teacher time-on-task, the supervisor and the teacher should share perception of instructional problems, exchange suggestions for solving these problems and negotiate an improvement plan which becomes a hypothesis to be tested by the teacher with the supervisor's

assistance. Once proper rules and routines have been established for transitions, it is important for them to be maintained. Students should be monitored on a frequent and regular basis shortly after learning the rules and routines.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study. It considers the research design, the study area, the population and sample/sampling procedure. It also covers the research instrument, pilot-testing, data collection procedure and how the data collected was analyzed.

Research Design

Descriptive research design was used to collect data so that inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population. Osuala (2001) noted that: "descriptive surveys are versatile and practical, especially to the researcher in that they identify present needs" (p. 35) which, in this case, is finding out how teachers use their time-on-task in the basic schools. Descriptive research involves collecting data in order to test hypothesis or answer questions concerning the current status of the subjects of the study. It determines and reports the way things are (Gay, 1992).

According to Freanklin and Wallen (2000), descriptive study has become popular because of its versatility across various disciplines. They have further explained that descriptive investigations have a broad appeal to policy analysts for planning, monitoring, and evaluating. O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999) postulated

that descriptive survey addresses issues such as quantity, cost, effectiveness, and adequacy.

Seifert and Hoffnung (1994) and Frankel and Wallen (1993) noted further that there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered are clear and not misleading because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording of questions. It may also produce untrustworthy results because they delve into private matters people may not be completely truthful about. They further maintained that questionnaires require respondents who can articulate their thoughts well and sometimes even put such thoughts in writing. Getting a sufficient number of questionnaires completed and returned so that meaningful analysis is made is another weakness of the descriptive study.

The descriptive design was chosen for the study because judging from the main study, it was the most appropriate design which could lead me to draw meaningful conclusions from the study. Moreover, the descriptive design was used because according to Fraenkel and Wallen (1993), the big advantage of the design is the potential to provide a lot of information obtained from quite a large sample of individuals. Hence, other research designs such as correlation method or evaluation method were not applicable to the study.

Study Area

The study was conducted in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the Central Region of Ghana. Cape Coast has a land mass of 122 square kilometers and a coastland of about 10.5km. It is the only Metropolitan seat of Government in the Central Region and it used to be the capital town of then Gold Coast.

The major economic activities in the metropolis are fishing and agriculture. It is also a potential area of primary agriculture produce. The scenic beach of the town, the forts and castles and other historical monuments and the rich cultural festival called Fetu Afehye are all very potential site of tourist attraction. Another economic site of the metropolis is the crocodile pond at Hans Cottage Hotel near Cape Coast.

The area is chosen because of its educational history. According to GES (2008) education in the country had its roots from the Cape Coast Castle in the 17th century. The aim was to train indigenes to be able to read the bible and also teach catechism to new converts and to give moral training.

Population

The selected schools had a population of 67 teachers. The schools and the breakdown of their population is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Breakdown of the Population of the Study

School	Number of Teachers
1. Pedu M/A School	15
2. Aboom AME Zion	13
3. Catholic Jubilee Boys School	14
4. Wesley Girls Basic School	13
5. Efutu Basic School	12
Total	**67**

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample for the study was made up of 50 teachers, 5 head teachers and 5 supervisors. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the sample of 60 is a representative sample to be used. The sample was selected at random from the selected schools for the study. The head teachers and teachers were selected for the study using purposive method and simple random sampling method respectively.

Table 2 shows the respondents' position.

Table 2: Position of Respondents

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Teacher	50	90.9
Head teacher	5	7.3
Circuit Supervisor	5	1.8
Total	**60**	**100**

From Table 2, the respondents were made of 90.9% of teachers, 7.3% of head teachers and 1.8% being a circuit supervisor. The respondents were made more teachers on who the study was actually conducted on.

Instrument(s)

The instrument used for the study was questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised close-ended items. The respondents were provided with a four-point Likert-type scale made up of the following responses: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (DA) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

The questionnaire was sub-divided into five sections using the research questions as a guide. Section A dealt with the biographic data of the respondents which considered their position, sex, professional qualification as well as the number of years they have served as teachers. Section B looked at attitude of teachers towards time-on-task.

Section C considered factors that affect teacher time-on-task. Section D also looked at the effects of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of the school children. Finally, Section E looked at ways to improve teacher time on task.

The questionnaire was subjected to critical scrutiny to ensure its consistency and appropriateness. It was given to some colleagues, experts in education and research and the supervisor for their perusal and comments with the view to establishing face validity. This enabled me to remove items that were considered irrelevant to the subject under consideration. New ideas and relevant items derived from the exercise were included in the final draft of the instrument.

Pilot-Testing

The instrument was pilot-tested at the St. Monica's School. The school was chosen because it shares the same characteristics with the schools for the actual study. Flaws in the instrument were easily identified and corrected. The pilot-testing provided the opportunity in assessing the appropriateness and practicality of the data collection instrument. Besides, it tested the adequacy of the procedures that were used for the study. Moreover, the pilot-testing was important because it enhanced the content validity and reliability of the instrument, and also

improved items that were ambiguously constructed. On the whole, the pilot-testing helped to fine-tune the instrument. The purpose of this pilot test was to help determine the extent to which the research questionnaire would be effective in collecting data from respondents for the actual study. Cronbach coefficient alpha was used to determine the reliability of the instrument using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software. The reliability coefficient of the instrument was found to be .76 which was considered high to be used to collect data for the actual study. This view was informed by Kline's (1999) view that values of such magnitude were sufficient to regard an instrument as reliable.

Data Collection Procedure

I obtained an introductory letter from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration which was used to seek permission from the Metropolitan Education Office. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents. The respondents were briefed on the procedure for answering the questionnaire. They were made to know that their responses would not jeopardize their role as teachers since their identities were kept anonymous. The answered questionnaires were collected from the teachers a week after they had been delivered. However, the return rate was 91.7%.

Data Analysis

The data collected in this study was checked, edited, coded and statistically analyzed with descriptive statistics based on the research questions and the literature reviewed for the study. All the items were of the close-ended

type with options provided for the respondents to choose from. The result was analyzed using frequencies and percentages.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with the presentation of the results and analysis of the data, on teachers, from the study and its discussion. The content of the chapter is presented based on the research questions of the study.

Basic Information about Respondents

The position of the respondents, sex, professional qualification and teaching experience could greatly affect the responses as the respondents might have a high level of knowledge on the use of teacher time-on-task in the schools. Table 3 shows the sex distribution of the respondents.

Table 3: Sex of Respondents

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Male	37	62.3
Female	18	37.7
Total	**55**	**100**

In Table 3, the respondents were made up 62.3% males and 37.7% of females. The respondents were made up of more males than females. Table 4 indicates the professional qualification of the respondents.

Table 4: Professional Qualification of Respondents

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Degree	18	32.7
Diploma	9	16.4
Cert 'A'	28	50.9
Total	**55**	**100**

Table 4 indicates that 18(32.7%) of the respondents were degree holders, 9(16.4%) were diploma holders and 28(50.9%) were Cert 'A' holders. Generally, this suggests that all the respondents have the requisite qualification to teach at the basic school. Moreover, the table also suggests that more than half of the respondents had cert 'A'. The respondents were asked to indicate their number of years of teaching experience. Table 5 therefore shows their responses.

Table 5: Number of years of teaching experience

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	17	30.9
6-10	15	27.3
11-15	8	14.5
16-20	9	16.4
21 and above	6	10.9
Total	**55**	**100**

In Table 5, the shows that 17(30.9%) of the respondents had served for a period of 1-5 years, 15 (27.3%) had served in the periods of 6-10years while 8(14.5%) had served for 11-15years. The rest, 9(16.4%) respondents had served 16-20years and 21 years and above had 6(10.9%). This suggests that the majority of the respondents had served at their institutions for less than 11years.

Research Question One

What is the attitude of teachers towards time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis?

The study sought the views of the respondents on the attitude of teachers towards time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Their responses are therefore shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Attitude of teachers toward time-on-task

Statement	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
I feel sorry when I leave the classroom before the end of instructional time	23	41.8	21	38.2	0	0	11	20.0	55	100.0
Teachers who are not always punctual and regular during instructional hours should be sanctioned	14	25.5	20	36.4	21	38.2	0	0	55	100.0
It is the obligation of teachers to ensure effective teaching and learning during instructional periods	0	0	43	78.2	12	21.8	0	0	55	100.0
Lateness to and non-attendance of school by teachers do not affect the use of instructional time	0	0	0	0	32	58.2	23	41.8	55	100.0
I feel bad when staff meetings and sporting activities are held during instructional hours	15	27.3	14	25.5	21	38.2	5	9.1	55	100.0

According to Table 6, 44 (80.0%) agreed to the statement that they feel bad when they leave the classroom before the end of instructional time. On the other hand, 11 (20.0%) disagreed.

The table also shows that 34 (61.9%) agreed that teachers who are not always punctual and regular during instructional hours should be sanctioned. But 21 (38.1%) on the other hand disagreed. Anderson and Dyke (1963) also noted that punishment is a negative approach to misbehaviour, because it is based upon fear of reprisal rather than on a positive demand of behaviour from a person.

Researchers (e.g. Stenhouse, 1967; Asiedu- Akrofi, 1978; Charles, 1981) have stated that the best way to handle misbehaviour is to prevent it from happening. This is because apart from creating the congenial atmosphere needed for teaching and learning, preventive disciplinary measures also help to avoid the many negative effects of punishment. Schools therefore normally institute disciplinary measures to prevent acts considered improper. These acts are supposed to prevent indiscipline behaviours and so are preventive measures.

It can also be inferred from Table 6 that 43 (78.2%) agreed that it is the obligation of teachers to ensure effective teaching and learning during instructional periods but 12 (21.8%) disagreed.

All the respondents disagreed to the statement that lateness to and non-attendance of school by teachers do not affect the use of instructional time. Twenty-nine (52.8%) of the respondents felt bad when staff meetings and sporting activities were held during instructional hours. However, 26 (47.3%) disagreed.

Calderhead (1996), Pianta (1999), and Watson (2003) have described teaching as an intensely psychological process and believed a teacher's ability to maintain productive classroom environments and motivate students. These effective attitudes and actions employed by teachers ultimately can make a positive difference on the lives of their students.

Researchers (Frank, 1990; Fulton, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Handler, 1993) asserted the axiom that teachers usually teach in the way they were taught. This compelling statement highlights the importance of reviewing and analyzing students' prior educational experiences for insight into the effective and ineffective attitudes and actions of teachers. The effective attitudes and actions employed by teachers ultimately can make a positive difference on the lives of their students.

Research Question Two

What factors affect teacher time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis?

Writing on factors that influence the quality of instructions, Nacino, Oke and Brown (1982) mentioned lack of dedication to teaching as one of the main reasons for the failure of some teachers. According to them lack of dedication results in lesson not being properly planned and teachers being absent from their classes. Extra-curricular activities are among the activities that disrupt the efficient use of instructional time in schools. In the light of this, the Governing Board of Lemon Grove School in the United States encouraged student to participate in extra-curricular activities that extend learning experiences beyond the walls of the classroom (Lemon Grove School District, 2003).

One circumstance in which instructional time is wasted is what Hunter (1982) term as “Waiting”. Hunter asserted that waiting for the class to convene, waiting for materials to be passed and waiting while roll is called result in little learning.

Table 7 shows the respondents’ views on factors that affect teacher time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Allington (2001) recognized that in less-effective classrooms thirty to fifty minutes of every school day was wasted because of ineffective organisation. Allington suggests that the school day should be examined and reorganised in order to make time for reading. Godlad (1984) shared Allington's view on the misuse of instructional time by some schools. In his comprehensive research, "A Place called School", Godlad established that some devote 65% of their time to instruction, whereas others devote almost 90 percent.

Nanacino, Oke and Brown (1982) mentioned lack of dedication to teaching as one of the main reasons for the failure of some teachers. results in lesson not being properly planned and teachers being absent from their classes. If inadequate salaries should force some teachers to engage in other businesses to help supplement their income, such private businesses should not result in the neglect of their duties towards their students.

Table 7: Factors that Affect Teacher Time-on-Task

Statement	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Time spent on marking attendance register and pupils' exercises reduces instructional time	19	34.5	27	49.1	9	16.4	0	0	55	100.0
Non-availability of materials before lesson begins affects time-on-task	33	60.0	19	34.5	3	5.5	0	0	55	100.0
Inadequate teacher knowledge and material resources.	6	10.9	37	67.3	6	10.9	6	10.9	55	100.0
Low achieving schools spend less time in reading than do high-achieving schools.	39	70.9	0	0	0	0	16	29.1	55	100.0
Spending too much time on discipline affects time-on-task	32	58.2	0	0	23	41.8	0	0	55	100.0
Lack of dedication to teaching affects time-on-task	15	27.3	40	72.7	0	0	0	0	55	100.0
Co-curricular activities also disrupt the efficient use of instructional time in schools.	15	27.3	28	50.9	12	21.8	0	0	55	100.0

On the statement, the time spent on marking attendance register and pupils exercises form part of instructional time, in Table 7, 46 (83.6%) agreed but 9 (16.4%) disagreed. Again, in Table 7, 52 (94.5%) agreed that non-availability of materials before lesson begins affects time-on-task. But 3 (5.5%) disagreed. On the statement that the loss of time may be due to inadequate teacher knowledge and material resources, 43 (78.2%) agreed and 12 (21.8%) disagreed.

It was indicated by 39 (70.9%) that low achieving schools spend less time in reading than do high-achieving schools. But 16 (29.1%) of the respondents disagreed to this statement. Allington (2001) found out that low achieving schools spend less time in reading than do high-achieving schools. Successful teachers are aware of how important every minute of reading is for their students.

It was also indicated that spending too much time on discipline affects time-on-task. This was shown by 32 (58.2%). However, 23 (41.8%) of the respondents on the other hand, disagreed. All the respondents also agreed that lack of dedication to teaching affects time-on-task

Table 7 also showed that co-curricular activities also disrupt the efficient use of instructional time in schools. This was shown by 43 (78.2%) but 12 (21.8%) of the respondents disagreed.

Research Question Three

What is the effect of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of school children?

The views of the respondents were sought on the effect of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of school children. Table 8 shows their responses.

Table 8: The Effect of Teacher Time-on-Task on the Academic Performance of School Children

Statement	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Pupils learn more in classes where teachers maximize the use of instructional time	19	34.5	26	47.3	0	0	10	18.2	55	100
Pupils' academic success greatly depends on how teachers use instructional time	25	45.5	20	36.4	0	0	10	18.2	55	100
The teacher's use of instructional time does not have a relation to the amount of learning pupils' receive	2	3.6	0	0	10	18.2	43	78.2	55	100
The amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects is consistently related to how pupils learn while in school	12	21.8	20	36.4	0	0	23	41.8	55	100
How well that time is used by teachers and pupils is related to how pupils learn while in school	10	18.2	35	63.6	0	0	10	18.2	55	100

It can be inferred from Table 8 that 45 (81.8%) agreed that pupils learn more in classes where teachers maximize the use of instructional time. However, 10 (18.2%) disagreed. The respondents agreed that pupils' academic success greatly depends on how teachers use instructional time. It was shown that 10 (18.2%) disagreed. In Table 8, 53 (96.4%) indicated that the teacher's use of instructional time have a relation to the amount of learning pupils' receive. But, 2 (3.6%) did not agree to this statement.

Again in table 8, 32 (58.2%) agreed that the amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects is consistently related to how pupils learn while in school. But 23 (41.8%) were not in support of this statement. On the statement that how well time is used by teachers and pupils is related to how pupils learn while in school, 45 (81.8%) agreed but 10 (18.2%) disagreed.

Teaching students how to make effective transitions between activities helps promote independence in coping with changes in their environments (Sainato, 1990). Doyle (1984) reported that effective teachers in difficult management situations pushed students through the curriculum as a way of achieving and sustaining order.

Research Question Four

How can teacher time-on-task be improved?

Table 9 shows the views of the respondents on how to improve teacher time-on-task.

Table 9: Improving Teacher Time-on-Task

Statement	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Teachers should develop various techniques to involve their students in learning activities when they travel to collect their salaries during instructional hours	21	38.2	29	52.7	5	9.1	0	0	55	100.0
Teachers should find additional time to teach lessons they miss because of absence from class	23	41.8	27	49.1	5	9.1	0	0	55	100.0
The location of a teacher's school should not be an excuse for lateness to or early departure from school	16	29.1	31	56.4	4	7.3	4	7.3	55	100.0
Effective internal and external supervision improve teachers' time-on-task	28	50.9	19	34.5	8	14.5	0	0	55	100.0
Teachers' strike disrupts class time and should be seldom used as a bargaining tool	2	3.6	35	63.6	18	32.7	0	0	55	100.0

Table 9 continued

Inter-school competitions in sports, and culture should be held after instructional hours	18	32.7	35	63.6	1	1.8	1	1.8	55	100.0
Workshops should be organized after instructional hours or during vacation	18	32.7	27	49.1	9	16.4	1	1.8	55	100.0
Teachers should not involve themselves in national exercises during instructional hours	7	12.7	35	63.6	8	14.5	5	9.1	55	100.0

According to Table 9, 50 (90.1%) agreed that teachers should develop various techniques to involve their students in learning activities when they travel to collect their salaries during instructional hours. However, 5 (9.1%) disagreed.
It was agreed that teachers should fine additional time to teach lessons they miss because of absence from class. This was by 50 (90.1%) of the respondents. On the other hand, 5 (9.1%) disagreed.

Table 9 also shows that 47 (85.5%) agreed that the location of a teacher's school should not be an excuse for lateness to or early departure from school but 8 (14.5%) disagreed. On how to improve teacher time-on-task, the respondents agreed that effective internal and external supervision will help improve teachers' time-on-task. Hymes (1990) defined discipline as "the slow, bit-by-bit, time-consuming task of helping to see the sense in acting in a certain way" (p. 2). Ingersoll (1996) and Lewis (1997) reported that the most important factor capable of influencing sense of responsibility is discipline strategies.

It was also agreed that teachers' strike disrupts instructional time and should be seldom used as a bargaining tool. This was by 37 (67.3%) but 18 (32.7%) disagreed.

In Table 9, 53 (96.4%) agreed that inter-school competitions in sports, and culture should be held after instructional hours but 2 (3.6%) disagreed. It can also be inferred from Table 9 that 45 (81.8%) agreed that workshops should be organized after instructional hours or during vacation. The respondents also agreed that teachers should not involve themselves in national exercises during instructional hours.

Musaazi (1985) expressed the view that supervision of instruction is intended to improve the teaching and learning process in the school. To him, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant stimulating and wholesome environment. He pointed out that, it is the supervisor's 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 making good use of the potentials of teachers.

According to Musaazi (1985) there was the need for supervision because it draws together the elements of instructional effectiveness in the whole school action. In other words, all activities of the school are harnessed in such a way as to bring about effective teaching and learning.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the previous chapter, the data collected for the study were analyzed and presented in tables. In the chapter, results from the analyses were discussed and interpreted. This chapter therefore summarizes the study and the findings of the study. This chapter also has conclusions of the study and recommendations for the study.

Summary of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to find out how teachers utilize their time-on-task in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana. The study was restricted to the amount of time teachers spend attending to school-related tasks and engage pupils in learning activities. Descriptive research design was used to collect data so that inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population. The descriptive design was chosen for the study because judging from the main study, it was the most appropriate design which could lead the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions from the study. The selected schools had a population of 55 teachers. All the teachers in the schools were used for the study. The instrument used for the study was questionnaire which comprised close-ended items.

Key Findings

After carefully analyzing the data collected, below are the key findings:

1. Teachers unwillingly leave the classroom before the end of instructional time.
2. It was also found out that lateness to and non-attendance of school by teachers affect the use of instructional time.
3. Pupils learn more in classes where teachers maximize the use of instructional time and that pupils' academic success greatly depends on how teachers use instructional time.
4. It was also shown that the teacher's use of instructional time has a relation to the amount of learning pupils' receive.
5. On improving teacher time-on-task, the study found out that teachers should develop various techniques to involve their students in learning activities when they travel to collect their salaries during instructional hours.
6. The amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects is consistently related to how pupils learn while in school.

Conclusions

1. The study revealed that teachers are not happy when time-on-task are used for activities other than teaching. This means that teachers are aware of the use of instructional time and its effect on the academic performance of

pupils. Effective internal and external supervision will help improve teachers' time-on-task

2. Some teachers believe that teachers' Time-on-Task is not for academic activities only, they may use instructional time for other activities and not see anything wrong with it. Some teachers may spend more time marking attendance register and pupils' exercises and still think that they are making good use of instructional time.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the study and for the purpose of achieving the stated objectives the following recommendations are made to teacher time-on-time in selected basic schools in Cape Coast Metropolis.

1. Teachers who are not always punctual and regular during instructional hours should be sanctioned by the heads. As this will ensure proper use of classroom time.
2. Circuit supervisors should ensure there is both external and internal supervision of teachers to make sure time-on-task is not wasted.
3. The Ghana Education Service should institute rules and regulations to govern the use of time-on-task to prevent teachers from intentionally using this time to do their personal activities.
4. Adequate teaching and learning materials should be provided by the heads or issued to prevent teachers from attributing not being able to use their instructional time to non-availability of materials.

5. Transportation should be provided by the schools for teachers who stay far from their school in order to prevent regular lateness and leaving school earlier than closing time.
6. Schools should ensure that other activities do not go too much into time allocated for teaching and learning activities.
7. Teachers' strike disrupts instructional time and should be seldom used as a bargaining tool. Workshops should be organized after instructional hours or during vacation and teachers should not involve themselves in national exercises during instructional hours.
8. Even though the teachers are not happy when they use instructional time for some activities other than academic activities, they require both external and internal supervision in order to fully utilize their instructional time.
9. Teachers should also find additional time to teach lessons they miss because of absence from class

Suggestions for Further Studies

The study was on teacher time-on-task in basic education in selected schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Another study could also be organized on the effective use of teacher time-on-task and its effects on the students' academic performance in another part of the country.

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to investigate into teacher time-on-task in basic education in the Cape Coast Metropolis. You are kindly requested to complete the items without seeking assistance from any one. This is an academic exercise and the responses to the questionnaire will be kept **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**

Section A

Bio-Data

Please tick with the mark [√] where possible.

1. Position of respondent

   Teacher [ ]

   Circuit Supervisor [ ]

   Headteacher [ ]

2. Sex of respondents

   Male [ ]

   Female [ ]

3. Professional Qualification

   Cert 'A' 4-year [ ]

   Cert 'A' 3-year [ ]

   Diploma [ ]

   Degree [ ]

4. Number of years of teaching experience

1-5 years	[ ]
6-10 years	[ ]
11-15 years	[ ]
16-20 years	[ ]
21and above	[ ]

Section B

Attitude of teachers toward time-on-task

Statement	SA	A	SD	D
I feel bad when I leave the classroom before the end of instructional time				
Teachers who are not always punctual and regular during instructional hours should be sanctioned				
It is the obligation of teachers to ensure effective teaching and learning during instructional periods				
Lateness to and non-attendance of school by teachers do not affect the use of instructional time				
I feel bad when staff meetings and sporting activities are held during instructional hours				

Section C

Factors that affect teacher time-on-task

Statement	SA	A	SD	D
The Time Spent on Marking Attendence Register and Pupils exercises Form Part of Instructional Time				
Non-availability of Materials before Lesson Begins affects time-on-task				
The loss of time may be due to inadequate teacher knowledge and material resources.				
Low achieving schools spend less time in reading than do high-achieving schools.				
Spending too much time on discipline affects time-on-task				
Lack of dedication to teaching affects time-on-task				
Extra-curricular activities are among the activities that disrupt the efficient use of instructional time in schools.				

Section D

The effect of teacher time-on-task on the academic performance of school children

Statement	SA	A	SD	D
Pupils Learn more in Classes where Teachers do				

not Maximize the use of Instructional Time				
Pupils' Academic Success Greatly Depends on how Teachers use Instructional Time				
The teacher's use of instructional time does not have a relation to the amount of learning pupils' receive				
The amount of time available for teaching and learning academic subjects is consistently related to how pupils learn while in school				
How well that time is used by teachers and pupils is related to how pupils learn while in school				

Section E

Improving teacher time-on-task

Statement	SA	A	SD	D
Teachers should develop various techniques to involve their students in learning activities when they travel to collect their salaries during instructional hours				
Teachers should fine additional time to teach lessons they miss because of absence from class				

The location of a teacher's school should not be an excuse for lateness to or early departure from school				
Effective internal and external supervision improve teachers' time-on-task				
Teachers' strike disrupts instructional time and should be seldom used as a bargaining tool				
Inter-school competitions in sports, and culture should be held after instructional hours				
Workshops should be organized after instructional hours or during vacation				
Teachers should not involve themselves in national exercises during instructional hours				