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Effect of instructional supervision on the performance of teachers in the senior high schools in the WA municipality

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Abstract: *The major purpose of this study was to ascertain the effect of instructional supervision on teacher performance in Senior High Schools located throughout the Wa Municipality. The study employed a descriptive survey design. Using a stratified simple random selection approach, the research sampled 136 instructors from Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The researchers gathered data through the use of questionnaires they developed. Descriptive and statistical methods were used to determine the responses to the study questions, including frequencies and percentages, means of means, and standard deviations. The study discovered that head teachers in Senior High Schools employed the following supervisory practices: improving teaching methodologies, providing guidelines for a diverse curriculum, supervising teachers in class, and improving curriculum and library materials, such as new text books, library books, and magazines. Additionally, the research revealed that principal supervision enables instructors to often manage classroom routines and processes efficiently and without compromising teaching time. The research revealed that head teachers serving as instructional supervisors face a variety of challenges, including duty overburden, a negative attitude toward instructional supervision among teachers, and a lack of funding for in-service training for instructors. Head teachers were encouraged to place a high premium on instructional monitoring in order to develop a sense of control over instructors' behavior in class. Again, head teachers should do regular reviews of class notes, plans of work, and records of work. The purpose, however, should not be to uncover weaknesses. Additionally, a system for discussing lessons with instructors and expressing gratitude for their work should be established.*

Key Words: *Teachers' Supervision; Supervisory Practice; Models of Supervision, Ghana*

1. INTRODUCTION:

1.1. Background to the Study:

One widely accepted goal of education is to provide students with the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities necessary to perform important jobs for themselves and for society as a whole. For instance, Todaro (1992) emphasizes the key institutional vehicle for developing human capacities and knowledge as a nation's formal education system. Thus, education is viewed as a crucial catalyst for a nation's prosperity and economic fortunes, as well as the quality of life for its population.

Governments, corporations, and individuals invest vast sums in the provision and consumption of education in this context. In many developing countries, formal education is the largest industry and the largest consumer of public finances (Todaro, 1992). Ghana, for example, invests substantial human and financial resources in its public education system. Ghana's government invests a significant portion of its budget on the creation and execution of policies, as well as the training of officials responsible for supervising instruction in schools. All nations, particularly developing ones, place a premium on school quality and student achievement (De Grauwe, 2001), recognizing that learning results are heavily dependent on the quality of education delivered (Barro, 2006). Barro continues by arguing that an improved educational quality fosters economic growth and development. However, because teachers are a major component of educational delivery, the quality of education is somewhat dependent on how well they are taught and managed (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). National authorities, according to De Grauwe (2001), place a high priority on school monitoring in order to monitor both the quality of schools and critical indications of their success, such as student achievement. Numerous scholars believe that instructional monitoring can help improve classroom practices and student performance by fostering teachers' professional development and advancement (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Sullivan & Glanz, 1999; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

Supervisory work is viewed as a collaborative effort between supervisors and instructors to improve education, which should result in enhanced student learning and success (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986). Internal supervision can be supplied by school principals, their assistants, and department heads; alternatively external supervision can be offered by resource persons and consultants such as university professors, education researchers, curriculum consultants, and certified PPSMB officials (Chiagha, 2008). Effective instructional supervision increases the probability of achieving the specified objectives; on the other hand, inefficient or defective instructional supervision obstructs the school program's successful execution. Instructional supervision is a crucial aspect in determining the

quality of a school; it can have a positive or negative effect. Effective instructional supervision ensures the proper functioning and interaction of all individuals and materials involved in a child's processing, as well as the coordination of the activities of all authorized school personnel. When all resources (human, physical, and material) are in place, having all interested parties monitor the school system's operations is a successful technique for getting the most out of the system. Teaching and learning are the basic activities in a school; hence, these primary activities must be supervised to ensure their efficiency and effectiveness. The researchers sought to determine the effect of instructional monitoring on instructors' performance at Senior High Schools throughout the Wa Municipality.

1.2. Conceptualization of Problem:

To improve education's quality, a stronger emphasis should be placed on instructors. This school of thought suggests that examining teachers' opinions of the effect of instructional supervision on their performance will help us improve our understanding of how to conduct instructional supervision (Wu & Short, 1996). De Grauwe (2001) defines instructional supervisors as designated personnel assigned with the responsibility of supervising teaching. Supervisors support schools by providing instructional materials that aid instructors in improving classroom instruction. Supervisors are always willing to assist instructors, and the interactions are frequently amicable. Additionally, instructors are assisted in resolving outstanding difficulties through workshops, conferences, and seminars. Additionally, Glickman, Gordon, and Gordon (2004) recommend that institution directors and anybody entrusted with supervising instruction acquire certain knowledge and abilities necessary for planning, observing, assessing, and evaluating teaching and learning processes. With these safeguards in place, it appears reasonable, if not necessary, to investigate the impact of monitoring on instructors' performance (Oduro, 2008). The structure and quality of instructional supervision at a school is thought to have an effect on instructors' expertise, practice, and job satisfaction, and, by extension, on student outcomes such as success. However, there is a dearth of research on instructional monitoring and its effect on teacher performance. This has left researchers with gaps in their thinking, as they are ignorant of the impact instructional monitoring has on teachers' performance at Senior High Schools. This work is motivated by a desire to bridge this divide.

1.3. Research Question:

The following research questions guided the study:

- What are the supervisory practices of Head teachers in the Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?
- What is the effect of instructional supervision on the performance of teachers in the Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?
- What are the challenges that affect instructional supervision in the Senior High Schools in Wa Municipality?

1.4. Conceptual Framework:

The researcher focused on some variables that tend to give the researcher an insight of what needs to be studied. Supervisory practices, instructional supervision and challenges were developed for this study. All these variables per the researcher bring the performance of senior High school teachers in the wa Municipality. These variables have been presented in a visual format.

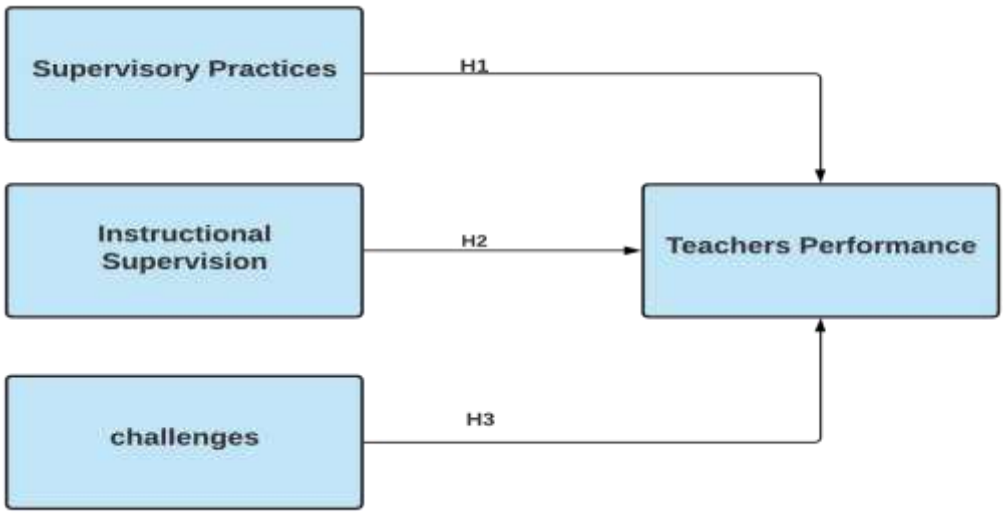

Figure 1: *Conceptual Framework*

2. Significance of the Study:

The study's major purpose was to ascertain the effect of instructional monitoring on teacher performance in Wa Municipality Senior High Schools. The findings of this study may aid teachers, supervisors, and other accountable officials in determining the extent to which instructional monitoring is implemented. Once again, the study's findings may provide crucial information to national and local policymakers and program designers, enabling them to continue refining and implementing pertinent initiatives. Additionally, the study's findings may assist all head teachers and teachers in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of instructional supervision activities in order to implement corrective measures in response to the difficulties experienced by senior high schools in implementing instructional supervision. It could act as a springboard for more scholars interested in conducting study on the title.

3. EMERGING ISSUES IN LITERATURE:

3.1. Models of Supervision:

There are numerous types of supervision. According to Zepeda (2003), the format can be formal or informal, clinical or a combination of the two (action research, differentiated or developmental). Models of supervision, as defined by Bays, are epochs or time periods in which supervision was impacted by social, political, and economic developments in society and education (2001). They followed the evolution of what they call models from the nineteenth to the twenty-first centuries. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), supervisory practice has developed significantly from its colonial roots, and its effectiveness as a method of enhancing teaching is dependent on educational leaders' ability to remain attentive to the demands of teachers and students. Because of this concept, advocates and practitioners commonly expand on and/or adapt existing tactics to improve procedures.

Bays (2001) offers several possibilities on the evolution of supervision, but the majority of them are congruent with the seven stages listed below: It is scrutinized; it is efficient; it is democratic; it is scientific; it is human interaction; it is scientific second wave; and it is human growth (Bays, 2001). Daresh (2006) categorizes human resource development into four models (or "perspectives"). These include inspection, scientific activity, human relations activity, and human resource development. Daresh's models all fit into one of the seven categories listed above. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) also present seven models as well as the historical periods in which they were used. The models are as follows: Inspection before to 1900; Social efficiency (1900-1919); Democracy (1920s); Scientific efficiency (1930-1950s); Leadership (1960s); Clinical efficiency (1970-1980s); and Changing notions (1970-1980s) (1990s). Furthermore, the literature classifies further contemporary models as developmental (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1998; Glatthorn, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000), differentiated (Glatthorn, 1990), and self-directed (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993). Supervision is synonymous with inspection. The fundamental technique of school management in the nineteenth century was supervision as inspection (also known as classical supervision) (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Teachers were deemed ineffective, and inspectors scrutinized their methods for flaws (Glanz, 1998). Supervisors used tactics for leading, managing, and supervising teachers' actions to ensure that instructors fulfilled their responsibilities appropriately. In this type of supervision, supervisors are observed devoting the majority of their time and attention to determining what is wrong with teachers' classroom behavior (Daresh, 2006). Supervisors' behavior during inspections reflects their perception that the majority of teachers are inadequate. Supervisors saw teachers as incompetent in the eighteenth century (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Daresh (2006), supervisors who use this method are more likely to provide recommendations to teachers about what and how they should teach. "Teachers (the majority of whom were female and disenfranchised) were considered as a "beleaguered troop with an inadequate and antiquated mindset," according to the explanation (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992, p. 8). Daresh (2006) also wonders if those hired (teachers) know much more than the students. According to Daresh, this resulted in the appointment of more experienced instructors (inspectors) who offered basic monitoring to guarantee teachers provided high-quality education. The majority of teachers in colonial African countries (including Ghana) lacked formal education. Even now, several Ghanaian educational institutions employ "student educators."

Supervision as a social efficiency At the turn of the twentieth century, the concept of monitoring as social efficiency was advanced. This type of supervision was strongly impacted at the time by technical developments. According to Glanz (1998), during the time, supervision was driven by scientific principles of business management and industry and was targeted at increasing the efficiency of training. Bobbitt (1913) attempted to apply Taylor's observations to educational institution administration and oversight (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Sullivan and colleagues, Bobbitt's "scientific and professional supervisory methods" were actually scientific and bureaucratic methods of supervision aimed at establishing a legitimate and secure niche for control-oriented supervision within the school bureaucracy rather than providing professional assistance and guidance to teachers. Furthermore, Bobbitt believes that monitoring is an essential component of school activity coordination. "Supervisory staff must coordinate all labors... identify the most efficient techniques of work and push employees to

use them," Bobbitt writes (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 13). This sort of supervision, according to Bobbitt, is similar to inspection-based supervision.

Supervision democracy. In response to rising opposition to authoritarian supervising practices, a movement to enhance supervisory theory and practice emerged in the 1920s (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Attempts were made between the 1920s and 1940s to make supervision a more democratic process. Monitoring, according to Bays (2001), was considered as a supportive role throughout the time period, with the purpose of improving education through an emphasis on human connections. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), democratic supervision was motivated by Dewey's (1929) views on democratic and scientific thinking, as well as Hosic's (1920) concepts of democratic supervision. According to Pajak (1993), at the time, supervisors strove to overcome educational difficulties through scientific and cooperative problem solving methods. Supervisors, according to Hosic, should not be despotic (as stated in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Hosic urged the supervisor to abandon his or her "autocratic tendencies."

Scientific oversight is provided. Burton, Barr, and Stevens advocated for scientific supervision processes, which were the dominant paradigm from the 1920s to the 1950s (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). These supporters contended that evaluation cards were insufficient as a scientific method of instructor monitoring. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), Burton (1930) recognized the efficacy of rating scales in some instances but argued that more objectively prepared questions were needed to evaluate educational practices. Adoption of scientific conceptions, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), "is part of a broader push to professionalize supervision" (p. 16). As with previous models, proponents of the scientific model argue that in order to adequately lead instructors, supervisors should have some amount of competence and experience. Supervisors must be able to analyze teaching situations and determine probable causes of substandard work with a certain degree of expertise; they must be able to use a variety of data-gathering devices unique to the field of supervision; they must possess certain constructive skills for the development of new means, methods, and instructional materials; and they must understand In a nutshell, they must be trained in both student and teacher instruction science. Both are covered under supervision science.

Leadership is exercised through supervision. The fifth phase of supervision, supervision as leadership, dates back to the 1960s. Robert R. Leeper (quoted in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) gathered and published essays on this topic from a variety of authors and proponents in Educational Leadership. According to Leeper (1969, cited in Sullivan and Glanz (2000)), supervision as inspection was no longer practicable during the production-oriented, social efficiency-oriented, and bureaucratic supervision eras. The goal of supervision as a leadership paradigm was to set it apart from prior supervisory approaches. They argued for a sort of monitoring based on democracy and human interactions at the time. Supervisors must develop "democracy" in their connections with teachers, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), as well as Leeper (1969) and other proponents of this paradigm. Supervisors, according to proponents, should lead in five ways: by establishing mutually agreed-upon objectives, expanding cooperative and democratic methods of supervision, improving classroom instruction, promoting educational research, and fostering professional leadership.

3.2. Empirical Review:

This chapter's part focuses on related studies that have been undertaken on the subject. This is very crucial in the study because it will serve as the basis for comparison. The empirical review is organized around the research questions that were developed to lead the investigation.

3.3. The Supervisory Practices of Head teachers:

Odour (2011) evaluated the impact of instructional monitoring in Kenyan secondary schools. The study looked at how classroom instruction affected teacher performance. The researcher gathered information regarding administrators and instructors through a survey method. All 164 secondary school administrators and 3281 teachers from Mombasa's four divisions were polled for the study. To determine the number of boys and girls secondary schools, a stratified sample was used, whereas simple random selection was used to pick teachers for the study. Purposive sampling was used to identify schools with dropping Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education scores (KCSE). The data was gathered through questionnaires issued to head teachers, department heads, and teachers. Frequencies, percentages, tables, graphs, and pie charts were used to present the data. Secondary school administrators were found to utilize supervisory strategies such as overseeing the establishment and administration of CATs and exams, as well as preparing significant school activities such as academic clinics and prize-giving days, according to the study. Opoko (2014) conducted a study in Kenya to evaluate how instructional supervision is implemented in public primary schools in Asego Division, as well as the challenges that head teachers have in carrying out their instructional supervisory responsibilities. A descriptive survey was used as the study's methodology. Data was gathered using open-ended and closed-ended questionnaires. Two schools that were not involved in the research were chosen at random for piloting. The research was conducted in 20 randomly chosen schools from a total of 60 public schools in Asego Division. A total of twenty head teachers from the selected schools participated in the study. The data was examined using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (SPSS). The data was presented using

descriptive statistics, frequency, and percentages. The study's findings revealed that instructional supervision processes were insufficient, with the majority of head teachers (16(89%) and 15(83%) saying that they were not routinely overseeing lessons in class or inducting new teachers, respectively).

Olembo (1992) defines supervisory activities as recruiting, motivating, consulting, establishing programs, and reviewing. According to Ingram and McIntosh (1976), staffing consists of the acquisition and distribution of human resources, the recruitment, selection, and deployment of teachers, students, and other personnel, the acquisition of financial, physical, and instructional resources, the assessment of resource needs and the adaptation of resources to meet those needs, as well as the planning, organizing, and decision-making processes. Motivation is often described as assisting and supporting teaching and learning. It entails assisting teachers and students with instructional problems, identifying barriers to teaching and learning, providing guidance and counseling, cultivating positive relationships between staff and students, facilitating effective communication, and persuading staff and students to improve their performance on teaching and learning activities.

Okumbe (1998) defines supervisory practices as assisting in the formulation and implementation of work schemes, evaluating instructional programs and supervising changes, assisting in the conduct and coordination of staff in-service, advising and assisting teachers involved in instructional programs, procuring funds for instructional purposes, and receiving community feedback on study programs. Gold Hammer advocates for lesson observation preparation (1980). Instead than visiting classes unexpectedly and with prepared vetting items, he advises that supervisors collaborate with instructors to build lesson observations. According to Blase and Blase (2004), supervisors should collaborate with their teachers to choose what and how to watch a class. This strategy should be used by QASOs as well, with QASOs informing head teachers ahead of time of scheduled school visits. The practice of visiting schools without prior warning by external education officials induces instructors to consider supervisory jobs as a perilous fault-finding activity. In contrast, several studies advise for informed visits.

Rous (2004) discovered that the majority of teachers feel that regular visits and phone calls from their supervisors are key activities in her research of US public elementary schools. She noted that when supervisors "dropped by" the classroom and interacted with the students, it stimulated the instructors. Igwe (2001) defines supervision as "evaluation, monitoring, and quality control with the goal of developing and updating curricular and infrastructure components." To that end, the instructional supervisor in school has identified and listed the following specific tasks: assisting school heads in better understanding students; assisting teachers and individuals in professional growth; fostering a collaborative spirit of teamwork; making better use of teaching materials; improving teaching methods; enhancing teacher appraisal; and fostering the teacher's acquisition of originality within the community. Head teachers and other instructors in charge of instructional supervision, according to Igwe, should guarantee that the above-mentioned instructional supervision goals are satisfied. They should assist instructors in making effective use of teaching/learning resources and implementing good instructional techniques in order to achieve curricular objectives in their schools. Teachers should be guided and evaluated via appraisals (Igwe, 2001).

3.4. Effect of Instructional Supervision on the Performance of Teachers:

Apenteng (2012) conducted research at the Education Directorate of Ga South Municipality on the impact of supervision on employee performance. The goal of this study was to see how supervision affected the performance of employees at the Ga South Municipal Education Directorate. As the research design, a descriptive survey was used. To determine the impact of supervision on employee performance, we used simple random and purposive random sampling to extract and aggregate relevant data from respondents. Directors, external supervisors, circuit supervisors, and other personnel were among the 50 respondents (training officers, budget officers and administrators). The study discovered that supervision cannot be overlooked because it is a vital tool for enhancing employee performance when the appropriate supervisors, tools, and resources are in place. According to the findings of the study, evaluation findings are crucial for counselling sessions because staff expects to be coached in areas where they fall short. The instructional oversight provided by principals may have an impact on classroom teaching. Through classroom inspections and casual visits, principals can examine and analyze the success of teaching approaches in the classroom. They can then use instructional supervision to talk with teachers about classroom goals and teaching tactics. All attempts made to monitor a teacher's performance are referred to as "supervision" (Duke, 1987). Administrators monitor teachers in the classroom, supervise teaching, and use professional development to improve classroom performance. Principals can keep an eye on teaching through supervision (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Principals make classroom visits to check that teachers are following the school's instructional objectives (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Teachers believe that effective principals use five strategies during instructional supervision, according to Blase and Blase (1998): (a) suggesting instructional improvements, (b) providing feedback on classroom observations, (c) modeling effective instruction, (d) conducting inquiries to ascertain teachers' perspectives, and (e) soliciting advice and opinions from teachers. These strategies aided instructors by increasing their use of reflectively informed

instructional behaviors, such as teachers taking larger risks in the classroom by employing a range of instructional strategies and placing a higher value on instructional preparation (Blase & Blasé, 1998).

Visiting classrooms is a type of monitoring that benefits instructors (Blase & Roberts, 1994). Principals use casual classroom visits to observe what teachers are doing, to determine if suitable instruction is being provided, and to engage with teachers (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). According to Blase and Roberts (1994), visibility was related with experimenting with fresh teaching approaches, reviewing different teaching methods to meet the requirements of students, and increasing instructional time on task. They believed that increased connection, feelings of trust and respect, as well as more opportunities for instructors to express themselves, resulted in these effects on teachers. Blase and Blase (1998) reinforced the findings of Blase and Roberts (1994). They discovered that increasing the use of reflectively informed behaviors and positive teacher behavior was connected with enhanced visibility in the school by wandering around and visiting classes informally. Certain primary acts have been demonstrated to have a negative impact on instructors (Blase & Blase, 2004). Disregarding teachers' needs, isolating teachers, withholding resources from teachers, spying on teachers, overloading teachers, criticizing teachers, threatening teachers, offering biased assessments to teachers, and impeding teacher progress were among these behaviors. Blase and Blase discovered that as a result of these practices, educators felt confined in their inventiveness. Due to their principal's lack of support, teachers stated that they were unable to take instructional risks and relied on traditional teaching practices (Blase & Blasé, 2004).

3.5. Challenges that Affect Instructional Supervision:

The major goal of supervision is to collaborate with instructors and to provide them with the guidance, direction, and support they need to better their education. Certain educational support systems, supervisor qualities and behaviors, as well as the environment in which supervisors operate, can all impede supervisors' ability to do their tasks effectively.

According to research (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Holland, 2004), supervisors should have some practical knowledge and ability to assist, advise, and support teachers in establishing more successful classroom approaches. Holland contends that qualifications such as degrees and certifications reveal that educators (supervisors) have the necessary knowledge and ability to make critical instructional decisions. However, Holland agrees that credentials alone do not inspire trust. It is often assumed that academic degrees plus significant job experience provide individuals with the information and abilities required to thrive in business. Researchers have not established a minimum level of qualification for supervisors, but basic teaching credentials vary by country. A contrast could be made between developed and developing countries. The majority of African countries require a Teachers' Certificate 'A' Post-middle or Postsecondary, whilst wealthier countries require a Bachelor of Education. However, in most emerging countries, such certifications are being phased out in favor of degrees and diplomas (De Grauwe, 2001). Supervisors must have more credentials than their instructors, or be on level with them, in order to provide critical advice and support. Supervisory tasks require a higher degree, such as a Bachelor of Educational Psychology or a Diploma in Education. However, in many affluent countries, supervisors lack such qualifications, putting crucial practice at risk. While qualifications and experience appeared to be important factors in supervisor selection in four African countries, De Grauwe (2001) discovered that the majority of experienced teachers lacked a strong academic background due to their entry into the teaching profession during a period of lax qualification requirements. With the exception of Tanzania, he remarked that, with the exception of Tanzania, the situation in the other countries has improved, with supervisors (including headteachers) now having a higher background and credentials than the teachers they supervise.

In the majority of countries, head teachers are promoted based on seniority and experience (De Grauwe, 2001), and their job as heads automatically elevates them to the level of instructional supervisors at the school. In several developing countries, the majority of school teachers lack advanced degrees and certifications and are thus granted supervisory positions based on seniority and length of service. Supervisors should have more experience and credentials than the teachers they supervise. Such supervisors would have sufficient subject-matter and pedagogical knowledge and expertise to confidently help, lead, and support their teachers.

4. RESEARCH METHODS:

4.1. Research Design

The study employed a descriptive survey approach to collect data from participants in order to investigate the impact of instructional monitoring on teacher performance in Wa Municipality Senior High Schools. The descriptive survey method was utilized for the study because it allows for the analysis of specific characteristics, attitudes, feelings, beliefs, motives, behavior, and perspectives of a population, regardless of its size or composition, without attempting to change any factors. Aborisade (1997).

4.2. Sampling Procedure:

The study's accessible population includes all instructors at Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. However, the available population consisted of professors from Wa Municipality's three accredited Senior High Schools. Out of a total of 209 teachers, 136 were included in the study. The researcher's decision to choose this quantity was influenced by Krejcie and Morgan's Table for Determining Sample Size (1970). According to this data, a sample size of 136 from a population of 209 is appropriate for research. As a result, the researchers chose to use this shot. Schools were contacted to begin collecting data for the project. To determine the sample size to be used in each stratum, the proportional stratified sampling approach was used (school). The unit was sampled once more using a normal random sampling method. The lottery approach was especially used to choose the sample unit for the investigation. This was accomplished by first compiling a list of registered teachers from various school administrations.

4.3. Data Collection Instrument:

I created a questionnaire to collect information from the responders. According to Creswell (2002), a questionnaire is a form used in the design of a survey that participants complete and return to the researcher. The author also said that participants respond to questions and provide basic personal or demographic information. According to Sidhu (2002), a questionnaire is a type of inquiry in which a sequence of questions is purposefully prepared and formatted for distribution to population samples. The five alternatives on the likert scale were "Strongly Agree" (SA), "Agree" (A), "Uncertain" (U), "Disagree" (D), and "Strongly Disagree" (D) (SD). According to Ary et al. (2002), one of the most commonly used tools for evaluating attitudes is the Likert scale. According to Borg and Gall, it is popular, simple to construct, administer, and score (1983). The questionnaire was broken into four sections and was intended to provide answers to the three (3) research questions that guided the study. Respondents were asked to provide demographic information in Section A of the questionnaire. Section B gathered data on the strategies principals employ to manage their students. Section C gathered data on how instructional monitoring affects instructor performance. Section D elicited information on the difficulties associated with instructional monitoring.

4.4. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents:

This section discusses the demographics of the academics in the study. This section evaluated instructors' demographic data, such as gender, age, and program of study. In this study, these demographic factors were deemed significant since they aided in answering the research questions. Again, these demographic data were deemed necessary in order to provide readers with a more complete picture of the respondents involved in the study. Tables 3-5 summarize the findings.

Table 3: ***Gender of the Respondents***

Gender	N	%
Male	76	55.8
Female	60	44.2
Total	136	100

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 3 shows the gender distribution of the students who took part in the study. The study found that 76 (55.8 %) of respondents became male, while 60 (44.2 %) became female. This implies that the study included more men than women.

Table 4: ***Age Distribution of the Respondents***

Age	N	%
Below 25yrs	4	2.9
26-30yrs	29	21.3
31-35yrs	47	34.6
36-40yrs	41	30.1
40+ yrs.	15	11.0
Total	136	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 4 shows the age distribution of the teachers who took part in the study. According to the data, 47 (34.6 %) of instructors were between the ages of 31 and 35, 15 (11.0 %) were over 40, and 4 (2.9 %) were under the age of 25. This signifies that the majority of teachers in the study are young, which implies that if appropriately managed, they may bring more enthusiasm and devotion to the profession.

Table 5: ***Number of years Teachers' have been teaching***

Number of Years	N	%
Below 5	28	20.6
6-10	46	33.8
11-15	42	30.9
Above 15	20	14.7
Total	136	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 5 summarized the instructors' teaching experience, as determined by the number of years they had taught. As shown in the Table, the majority (33.8 percent) of instructors have taught for six to ten years, while a minority (15.7 percent) have taught for more than twenty years. This indicates that the instructors who participated in the research had extensive classroom teaching expertise. As a result, they are more likely to draw on their teaching expertise to produce acceptable replies for the research.

Data Processing and Analysis

The field data was collected, sorted through, and altered in order to address unanswered or partly addressed queries. The open-ended questions were coded after editing (i.e., the assignment of numbers or codes to responses to make them computer readable). The data was input into the computer using the Statistical program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software after editing and coding. Following that, the data were analyzed and displayed in frequencies and percentages, as well as mean and standard deviation.

Main Results and Discussions

This section examines the field data in connection to the study's research themes. In order to address the study's research subjects, the student-teachers were given a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The questionnaire was then analyzed using mean of means and standard deviations. A mean of 3.50 or higher shows that respondents agree with the statement, while a mean of 2.4-3.4 suggests that respondents are unsure. A mean of 2.40 or less, on the other hand, suggests that respondents disagree with the argument. A standard deviation less than 1.0 implies that the responses of the respondents are homogeneous, whereas a standard deviation greater than 1.0 suggests that the responses of the respondents are heterogeneous.

Research Question One: What are the supervisory practices of Head teachers in the Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

The first study question sought to ascertain the supervision procedures of Head teachers in Senior High Schools within the Wa Metropolitan Area. Table 6 summarizes the instructors' responses to the questions designed to address this study issue.

Table 6: ***Supervisory Practices of Head teachers***

Statement	Mean	SD	Rank
Enhancing curriculum and library materials, such as new textbooks, library books, magazines, and so on.	4.5	.97	1st
Material and equipment selection for curriculum implementation	4.3	.81	2nd
Going to visit teachers in the classroom to monitor teaching	4.2	1.0	3rd
Inviting experts from outside the school community to assist with teaching.	4.2	.74	4th
Having in-service events that are connected with clearly defined instructional development objectives	4.2	.74	5th
Providing opportunity for participants to use and practice information or skills through direct experience in workshop or instructional contexts.	4.0	.78	6th
Improving Instructional Methodologies	3.7	1.3	7th
Providing guidelines for a diverse curriculum	3.5	1.4	8th
ensuring that teachers prepare schemes of work, work records, and lesson plans	3.1	1.3	9th
Grading students, giving clear guidance, and planning for classroom transitions	2.3	1.1	10th
Coordination of the departments' management of student performance records	2.2	.85	11th

Creating instructional goals that reflect high student standards and expectations	2.21	1.2	12th
Defining and understanding the subject syllabus for each class	2.0	1.2	13th
Mean of Means/Average Standard Deviations	3.5	1.0	

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 6 summarized teachers' perspectives on head teachers' supervising approaches in Wa Municipality Senior High Schools. The overall mean of 3.5 with a standard deviation of 1.0 indicates that principals employ a variety of supervisory methods. For example, instructors agreed (Mean = 3.7, SD = 1.3) that principals should improve their teaching approaches. Effective classroom instruction in the twenty-first century necessitates the employment of a learner-centered approach by teachers. As a result, principals are responsible for ensuring that appropriate instructional approaches are implemented. Furthermore, the instructors agreed (Mean = 3.5, SD = 1.4) that head teachers should monitor by offering a diversified curriculum. Constant curriculum modification necessitates that schools keep their understanding of new innovations or reforms up to date, and principals, in cooperation with teachers, always ensure that teachers are monitored in this regard. The responsibility of the principal is not only to provide a diversified curriculum, but also to visit classes to ensure that the new innovation is implemented by the teachers. As a result, it's not unexpected that teachers agreed (Mean = 4.2, SD = 1.0) that principals should visit classrooms to supervise instruction. The findings contradict Opoko's (2014) claim that head teachers did not routinely observe lessons in the classroom. The classroom monitoring of teachers would also provide information to the head teachers on the resources available for curriculum implementation. Furthermore, this knowledge would allow teachers to adjust current conditions if they were found to be lacking. As a result (Mean = 4.5, SD =.97), it was determined that the principals would oversee the creation of the curriculum and library materials, such as new textbooks, library books, and magazines. Furthermore, head teachers are in charge of selecting the resources and equipment required to deliver the curriculum (Mean = 4.3, SD =.81). Head teachers also supervise the invitation of resource persons from outside the school community to assist with teaching (Mean = 4.2, SD =.74) and provide opportunities for students to apply and practice information or skills through direct experience during workshops or teaching situations (Mean = 4.0, SD =.78). Teachers, on the other hand, disagreed that head teachers should specify subject syllabuses and interpret them for each class (Mean = 2.0, SD = 1.2), coordinate the maintenance of students' performance records across departments (Mean = 2.2, SD =.85), design instructional goals that reflect high standards and expectations for students (Mean = 2.2, SD =.85), and grade students and provide clear directions and prepare for classroom transitions (Mean = 2.2, SD =.85). These strategies aided instructors by increasing their use of reflectively informed instructional behaviors, such as teachers taking larger risks in the classroom by employing a range of instructional strategies and placing a higher value on instructional preparation (Blase & Blasé, 1998). Okumbe (1998) discovered that head teachers in Kenya engage in supervisory practices such as assisting in the formulation and implementation of schemes of work; evaluating instructional programs and supervising modifications; assisting in the conduct and coordination of staff in-service; advising and assisting teachers involved in instructional programs; and procuring funds required for instructional programs..

Research Question Two: What is the effect of instructional supervision on the performance of teachers in the Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

The study's second research question intended to determine the influence of instructional supervision on the performance of instructors in Senior High Schools across the Wa Metropolitan Area. Table 7 summarizes the instructors' responses to this study topic.

Table 7: ***Effect of Instructional Supervision on the Performance of Teachers***

To what extent has supervision enabled the teacher to	Mean	SD	Rank
Show professionalism	3.65	.41	1st
Maintain accurate records	3.59	.63	2nd
Create a learning culture with clear expectations for student achievement.	3.53	.41	3rd
Prepare work schemes, work records, and lesson plans on time.	3.53	.81	4th
Show flexibility and reactivity in satisfying kids' learning requirements.	2.88	.68	5th
Communicate simply and precisely.	2.86	.34	6th
Discuss exam results with faculty and students.	2.86	.74	7th
Manage routines and procedures in the classroom without wasting teaching time.	2.65	.58	8th
Specify the subject curriculum and how it should be interpreted	2.65	.58	9th

for each class.			
Make a contribution to and actively participate in the school's and the community's activities.	2.59	.79	10th
Improve your teaching methods.	2.44	.67	11th
Professional development and growth	2.39	.82	12th
Formally monitor students' development and provide many opportunity	2.34	.73	13th
Improve testing abilities.	2.34	.73	14th
Mean of Means/Average Standard Deviation	2.87	.64	

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 7 summarized teachers' replies to the extent to which their performance is influenced by their principals' supervision. The total mean of 2.87 and standard deviation of.64 indicate that head teachers' supervision techniques have a significant impact on instructors. Instructors, for example, agreed to a high degree (Mean = 2.65, SD =.58) that they handle classroom routines and procedures well and without losing teaching time. This shows that how instructors supervise classroom instruction has an effect on how well teachers manage instructional time in the classroom. Again, the supervision of head teachers enables teachers to build a learning culture with clear expectations for student achievement (Mean = 3.53, SD =.41) and to communicate clearly and properly (Mean = 2.86, SD =.34). Principals can keep an eye on teaching through supervision (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Principals make classroom visits to check that teachers are following the school's instructional objectives (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). As a result, there appears to be a risk that students' performance will decline in the absence of instructor supervision. Head teachers' supervision, as evidenced to a high degree (Mean = 2.34, SD =.73), enables instructors to assess students' development formatively and provide new opportunities. It also assists instructors in improving their testing abilities (Mean = 2.34, SD =.73). Visiting classrooms is a type of monitoring that benefits instructors (Blase & Roberts, 1994). Principals use casual classroom visits to observe what teachers are doing, to determine if suitable instruction is being provided, and to engage with teachers (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Supervisory processes had an impact on instructors' performance in areas other than teaching and student performance. Furthermore, the teachers revealed (Mean = 2.88, SD =.68) that the head teachers' supervision allows them to demonstrate flexibility and responsiveness in meeting students' learning needs, keeping accurate records (Mean = 3.59, SD =.63), and displaying a high level of professionalism (Mean = 3.65, SD =.41). Furthermore, the supervision of the head teachers allows them to contribute and actively participate in school and community activities (Mean = 2.59, SD =.79), to prepare schemes of work, records of work, and lesson plans on time (Mean = 3.53, SD =.81), and to discuss exam results with staff and students (Mean = 2.86, SD =.74). According to King (1991), supervision promotes an environment in which teachers can discuss and critically reflect on instructional challenges, including higher-order thinking capacities.

Research Question Three: What are the challenges that affect instructional supervision in the Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

The third research topic that motivated the study was to establish the difficulties associated with instructional supervision in Senior High Schools across the Wa Metropolitan Area. Table 8 summarizes the instructors' perspectives.

Table 8: ***Challenges that affect Instructional Supervision***

Statement	Mean	SD	Rank
Understaffing in schools	4.78	.09	1st
Role overload on the head teachers.	4.58	.21	2nd
Lack of funds to organise in-service training at school for teachers	4.48	.20	3rd
Lack of motivation among the head teachers.	4.43	.12	4th
Negative attitude by teachers towards instructional supervision.	4.22	.17	5th
Inadequate teaching and learning materials.	3.59	.19	6th
Mean of Means/Average Standard Deviations	4.3	.16	

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 8 described the challenges to instructional supervision practice among Wa Municipality senior high school principals. The Table depicts the various challenges that instructional supervisory approaches confront. Teachers, for example, agreed (Mean = 4.58, SD =.21) that responsibility overburden on principals, along with a lack of motivation (Mean = 4.43, SD =.12), had an impact on instructional supervision. Head teachers are in charge of both administrative and academic duties. This indicates that pupils must include it into their other educational activities.

This is likely to have an impact on their capacity to manage classroom instructional activities. Administrative tasks take precedence over instructional responsibilities, and the latter suffers as a result (De Grauwe, 2001). De Grauwe contends that because supervisors have extensive administrative responsibility, they may emphasize administration above instruction. Furthermore, teachers have a negative attitude toward instructional oversight. To these teachers, instructional monitoring is solely concerned with discovering flaws in their curriculum. Furthermore, instructors reported a lack of funds to organize in-service training for teachers at their schools (Mean = 4.48, SD =.20), school understaffing (Mean = 4.78, SD =.09), and insufficient teaching and learning resources (Mean = 3.59, SD =.19). The findings of this study back up the findings of Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004), who discovered that a lack of financing, insufficient teaching and learning tools, and an insufficient number of instructors all had an impact on instructional supervision. The findings of this study corroborated Tucker's (1997) claim that other hurdles were a lack of time and support for the building administrator, the instructional leader's personality traits, and a lack of financial support for all phases of the process.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION:

Conclusions are drawn from the study's primary results in order to help in the production of relevant suggestions for policy formation. The following are the study's principal findings:

- Head teachers in Senior High Schools used the following supervisory practices: improving teaching methodologies, providing guidelines for a diverse curriculum, visiting teachers in class to supervise teaching, improving curriculum and library materials (new textbooks, library books, magazines, etc.), selecting materials and equipment for curriculum implementation, and inviting resource persons from outside the school community to assist in teaching.
- The study discovered that instructional supervision by head teachers enables teachers to frequently manage classroom routines and procedures efficiently and without sacrificing instructional time, establish a learning culture with clear expectations for student achievement, communicate clearly and accurately, maintain accurate records, demonstrate professionalism, and prepare schemes of work, records of work, and lesson plans on time.
- The study discovered that head teachers as instructional supervisors face a variety of challenges, including role overload, a negative attitude toward instructional supervision among teachers, a lack of funds to organize in-service training for teachers, understaffing in schools, a lack of motivation among head teachers, and insufficient teaching and learning materials.

5.1 Conclusions:

Based on the key findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

- In terms of the supervisory methods employed by principals in Senior High Schools, it has been discovered that principals use a range of supervisory approaches in their schools, all of which have an impact on curriculum implementation and evaluation.
- The study discovered that instructional supervision procedures used by principals had an impact on instructors' performance. This suggests that instructors' classroom performance can be explained in part by their instructional supervision strategies. This implies that Senior High School instructors will only perform at the required level if instructional monitoring is improved.
- The study found that school-based instructional supervision had an impact on teacher performance in the sense that if principals prioritized instructional supervision methods, teachers' job performance would improve, resulting in an increase in academic performance.

5.2 Recommendations:

The following suggestions are made based on the study's primary findings and conclusions:

- In order to develop a sense of control over what instructors do in class, head teachers should place a high value on instructional monitoring.
- On a regular basis, head instructors should evaluate lecture notes, work plans, and work records. The goal, however, should not be to find weaknesses. It should also provide a system for discussing lessons with instructors and expressing gratitude for their work.
- The instructional supervisors (head teachers) should improve on the following: checking students' assignment books, developing departmental missions that are aligned with the school vision, grading students, delivering clear directions, and planning for classroom transitions.
- Teachers should collaborate with instructional supervisors and be open to learn from their own flaws and skills, as well as those of their colleagues.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies:

The major goal of the study was to investigate the impact of instructional monitoring on teacher performance in Senior High Schools throughout the Wa Municipality. The study was totally quantitative in nature. The following areas for future research are offered to assist expand the body of knowledge in this topic.

- To allow for generalization of the results, a comprehensive study on the same subject should be conducted with a larger sample size across all Senior High Schools in the country.
- Other research methods should be used to replicate the study and check if the results are consistent. The combined technique, in particular, would improve the complementarity of the instruments used in this study.

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