

ISRG Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences (ISRGJAHSS)



ISRG PUBLISHERS

Abbreviated Key Title: ISRG J Arts Humanit Soc Sci

ISSN: 2583-7672 (Online)

Journal homepage: <https://isrgpublishers.com/isrgjahss>

Volume – II Issue-IV (July – August) 2024

Frequency: Bimonthly



Discovering Answers to Ineffective Instructional Supervision: Practical Strategies from Effective Public Primary Schools in Ghana.

Awuradjoa Aidoo

Southwest University, No.2, Tiansheng Road, Beibei District, Chongqing City, China. 400715

| **Received:** 25.06.2024 | **Accepted:** 29.06.2024 | **Published:** 31.08.2024

***Corresponding author:** Awuradjoa Aidoo

Southwest University, No.2, Tiansheng Road, Beibei District, Chongqing City, China. 400715

Abstract

This study sought to provide answers to the problem of ineffective instructional supervision in public primary schools. Hence, the purpose of the study was to improve instructional supervision to contribute to effective teaching by finding out the effective forms of practices and support introduced into instructional supervision deemed as effective, to contribute to effective teaching in public primary schools in the Greater Accra region. The study used Strauss and Corbin's three-stage coding technique and discovered strategies for effective instructional supervision such as: shared instructional supervision preparation between teachers and supervisors (including instructional supervision prior notice provision, structure set-up, goal setting, goal setting structure set-up, goals' evaluation, and support initiatives goal setting); shared responsibility for instructional supervision purpose achievement (including preparation of teachers for instructional supervision receptivity); instructional supervision procedure; duty enhancement measures for instructional supervision (including performance boost using orientation, education supervision models use/ non-use, criteria and resources use, special initiatives, personal strategies considered helpful, needs-based support interventions, supervisors' instructional supervision support received and support goals' evaluation, supervision policies utilization, recruitment role in qualities' identification by education service, supervisors' capacity building, change of teachers' negative perception of supervisors, regular refresher programs for instructional leaders and teachers, and supervisors learning from other supervisors); context-based effectiveness (including criteria for instructional supervision, documentation of practice/criteria, and effective instructional supervision indicators); practice evaluation and progress monitoring (including subordinates/teachers' appraisal; supervisors', subordinates', and superiors' support interventions assessment; performance evaluation and supervisors' self-assessment, and instructional supervisors' unrealized plans/ resolutions for better action.)

The findings indicated existent context-based effective instructional supervision; and the achievement of instructional supervision aims in the face of absence of technical skills and lack of requisite knowledge in instructional supervision by the instructional leaders. The findings also indicated numerous areas that need attention in the instructional supervision practiced by the schools

with effective supervision. Also, the findings showed that regardless of the numerous challenges restricting instructional leaders in instructional supervision and threatening effectiveness of practice, they managed to devise workable situational strategies to ensure achievement of their aims.

Keywords: *instructional supervision, instructional leaders, effective supervision, supervisors, effective teaching.*

Background and Research Context

From literature, the researcher discovered that instructional supervision plays a major role in effective teaching and this raised the need for inquiry into how this occurs in the context of the researcher. The intended goal was to explore effective instructional supervision practiced by instructional leaders and this was important because it offered contribution to the debate on the effectiveness of the instructional supervision process; identified key components of effective instructional supervision for tackling the problem of ineffective instructional supervision in public primary schools; showed some improvement avenues for effective teaching; and contributed to global literature on development of primary education supervision (Dzikum 2015).

Under the Ghana Education Service (GES), supervision is categorized into administrative supervision and educational supervision. The administrative supervision is done externally by the National Inspectorate Authority or GES executives who assess management and operations of the school system and administrative functions by collecting information on domains such as teachers and learners' attendance, logistics, school health and the schools' financial support status (GES, 2002). The educational supervision aims at assessing teachers' teaching and compliance with educational policies. Here, best practices associated with lesson preparation, lesson delivery, classroom management, learners' evaluation and appropriate use of teaching and learning materials during lessons (instructional supervision) are supervised to check for suitability and effectiveness; and this supervision is used by the GES to determine how appropriately duties are implemented by teachers and instructional leaders (as instructional supervisors). Instructional supervision in Ghana is a mandatory practice that requires monitoring of teaching, teachers' lesson preparation and learners' evaluation to ensure they are adequate and yield effective teaching and learning in pre-tertiary institutions. As practiced in several countries around the world (Chen, 2018; Sharma et al., 2011), instructional supervision includes professional interactions between a supervisor and a teacher geared toward provision of support, professional growth, and improvement and effectiveness of teaching in the classroom (Chen, 2018).

External supervisors who undertake instructional supervision include supervisors from the metropolis education office, the National Inspectorate Authority, and the circuit supporters, while internal supervisors are the principals. Subject specialists designated as supervisors also sometimes conducted instructional supervision however, these were irregular in their visits to the schools. The external supervisors supervise the internal supervisors and the teachers while the internal supervisors supervise the teachers and learners. In this study, supervisors refer to both internal and external supervisors.

Problem Statement

Reports of ineffective instructional supervision in schools (Acheampong & Gyasi, 2019; Esia-Donkoh & Baffoe, 2018;

Fatima & Wolf, 2020; Mensah et al., 2020) especially in primary classrooms in Ghana (Acheampong, 2019; Sulemana, 2019) raise much concern due to adverse effects it has on the performance of teachers (Anthony-Krueger, 2010; Kindall et al., 2018; Zepeda, 2007) and students' achievement (Beard, 2013; Ghavifekr, 2019). Additionally, there are reports of teachers' unacceptable performance of duties (Ampofo et al., 2019), and teaching in Ghanaian primary classrooms have been reported as not up to standard even though instructional supervision is supposed to monitor and evaluate teaching for such problems (Abonyi & Sofo, 2019).

Rationale Informing the Research

The research focused on the use of effective instructional supervision strategies due to its significance to teaching. Teachers usually determine the quality of education in schools which affects achievement of educational aims and provision of quality basic education (Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010) because teachers' actions and instructions directly impact learners' welfare and achievement; and instructional leaders are responsible for decision making that directly affect teachers' actions and teaching (Stark et al., 2017). Therefore, a major concern for the productivity of educational institutions and achievement of education goals includes ensuring that teachers are well supervised (Ampofo et al., 2019). Hence, this paper adds meaning to that effect by investigating key components of effective instructional supervision strategies used to reach this goal and providing empirical information on the subject. This approach was to deal with the situation of ineffective instructional supervision in primary schools; ensure that the investments into primary education attained the desired goals; and enlighten key stakeholders with informed insight on practice.

In addition, when there is substantial absence of structured effective practices in learning organizations, leaders usually make errors and have difficulties in strategies resulting from incomplete information available for decision making (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006). Accordingly, leaders should remain current in their field, practice continuous learning and be informed by current research for insightful decision making (Glanz, 2014).

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this research was to make effective instructional supervision practiced in public primary schools transparent. The study sought to provide answers to the problem of ineffective instructional supervision in public primary schools. Hence, the purpose of the study was to expose effective instructional supervision and impact teaching by finding out the effective forms of practices and support introduced into instructional supervision deemed as effective, in order to contribute to effective teaching.

Also, considering the significance of effective instructional supervision to primary education, this research chose to focus on the use of such effective strategies and uncover areas in

instructional supervision that required attention. This is useful for the design of supervision programs for the schools and the organization of effective training programs for supervisors and teachers. Additionally, due to the low availability of effective supervision strategies in literature, this study aimed to discover key components of effective supervision strategies.

The investigation in this study additionally sought to possibly uncover links that strengthen the existing problem of ineffective instructional supervision or prevent resolutions and to seek out the course of action needed for change. These actions were purposed to raise awareness on the relevance of these areas in instructional supervision for effective teaching; and stir up a national debate and policy reform in sync with the findings from the study, to ultimately yield improved supervision and classroom practice.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided the study were:

1. How do instructional leaders prepare to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching?
2. What measures do instructional leaders put in place to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching?

Significance of the Study

This research holds practical significance for several stakeholders. The findings of the study are helpful to promote the execution of effective supervision practice of supervisors in primary schools. In addition, findings of this research are important to make supervisors conscious of their supervision practice and its related actions, to bolster efforts that are inclined to boost teacher performance. This is because supervision is a key process that provides direct assistance to teachers to help them recognize problematic areas in their teaching and contribute to their professional growth and performance (Zepeda, 2007). Also, the study entails components of instructional supervision practiced in the primary school which point to positive areas for reinforcement and also serves as a road map for supervisors in improvement of practice and in guiding toward effectiveness. These show how findings of the study are important for supervisors to use for self-assessment and self-development purposes.

Findings from this research would also encourage teachers to be cooperative during instructional supervision because it highlights instructional supervision practices conducted in the classrooms and makes teachers aware of their relevance and purpose for them and learners, so that the aim of instructional supervision can be fully achieved. Additionally, when instructional leaders vary in their instructional supervision practices, it tends to instigate changes in teachers' performance (Ampofo et al., 2019) and when they collaborate with teachers in instructional supervision, the application of the experiences and lessons learnt allows for structure in the practice and increased education benefits (Aguba, 2009; Archibong, 2013). Similarly, there is the chance for enhanced guidance for teaching obtained from effective

instructional supervision practices which offers improvement for teachers' skills, experiences, and professional knowledge and motivates them to be innovative in teaching activities. This means teachers stand to gain from application of findings from this research because they would be guided to reinforce and develop their actions toward effectiveness in teaching.

Furthermore, because this paper outlines inputs for effective supervision, it creates the avenue for enhancement of the quality of educational organizations which is helpful in putting together fragmented structures of teaching in the action plan of the school (Glickman et al., 2009). Again, the practice of effective instructional supervision strategies supports school effectiveness in the improvement of teachers' professional growth and effective management of teaching and learning processes (Arong & Ogbadu, 2010).

The study additionally has theoretical significance. Instructional supervision practice was developed and expanded to strengthen the contingency leadership theory, using the findings from the study. This way, evidence-based decisions and practices are made available for education leaders (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006) for instructional supervision decision making. The study also contributes to the development of a repository of workable instructional supervision practices pertaining to context-significant strategies that yield positive results (Hiebeler et al., 2012). In addition, insight into the roles, practice and challenges of the supervisors provides relevant data for policy making toward development in practice. Also, findings from the study are useful in informing and directing institutes of teacher education on areas of emphasis and content direction in preparation for instructional supervision.

Findings from this study also put forward approaches for a professional support system for instructional supervision and instructional supervisors (Tittle, 2018) which could aid initiatives of positive social change. The outcomes of the study stand to stimulate further research on advancement of instructional supervision practice and theory-based practice to enhance practice evaluation and solution to critical challenges restricting instructional supervision improvement. In addition, the findings add to discovery of ways to bolster effective teaching and its related benefits in the primary school.

Also, findings from this study further support globally established roles of instructional supervision in the achievement of effective teaching, which informs practitioners and researchers on pathways for attention in the enhancement of both constructs: instructional supervision and effective teaching.

Literature Review

The understanding and use of guiding theoretical principle (contingency leadership theory) was central to the study to enable investigation of how instructional supervision develops strategic planning and execution for effective supervisory practice and strategies to promote effective teaching.

Contingency Leadership Theory: Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory places emphasis on the leader's context. It considers the influence of the situation of a leader in the determination of success or failure. Under this theory, for a leader to be effective the situational context of the leader plays a direct

role. Here, the personality of the leader has little to do with the leader's success rather, the key elements emphasized are the leader's context and situation. This theory also indicates that it is most suitable to position the right type of leader for a particular situation. In agreement, the instructional leaders with effective instructional supervision practice in this study were well suited for the context and situation of their settings based on: their actions which is proof of their ability to use or turn around their context situations to their advantage; and their fitness in optimizing their experiences and personal strategies to create settings-suitable responses to achieve their instructional supervision aims. The contingency theory is advantageous on a number of levels which includes the leaders' ability to be effective regardless of their situation and context- this is especially relevant to the situation of this study, considering that the instructional leaders still managed to achieve their aims for instructional supervision regardless of the many restrictions they faced.

Contingency leadership theory focuses on the importance of a situation and the solution to a situation is contingent on the factors that impinge on the situation- such as leaders' response. In the case of the instructional leaders in this study, their situation involved: no special practice-based knowledge on instructional supervision; no technical training on the practice of instructional supervision; low provision of resources; and all the challenges (detailed in the results section) which formed the situation upon which they act and strive to surmount. The solution to the contextual elements and restraints hence, was identified as being led by recognition of the system of production or work; and localized knowledge around the task (Taylor, 1998). This was confirmed through the instructional leaders' identification of strategies within their context; introduction of 'leaders' response' (commitment, creativity, special initiatives, among others) fueled by their tacit knowledge from experiences of their teaching and supervision; and generation of a workable system that ensured productivity, even if it sometimes used unconventional means such as mild threats to get the teachers to do as they expected.

Fiedler's contingency leadership theory demands that the leader determines their situation. Hence, in this study the leaders with their responses, adjusted elements in their situation to yield the results they desired. A strong point of the contingency leadership theory is the capability to anticipate leadership effectiveness as individual and organizational variables. The instructional leaders in this study affirmed this theory in their practice and individually promoted effective practices in their schools. The position of this theory stresses that the significant element needed for effectiveness is the manner leaders respond to the peculiar issues, problems, or circumstances around them or in their organization. In the leader's context, there are also a wide array of choices for the leader and to be effective, the context of the leader demands varied responses from the leader. This means if leaders were able to identify the right responses needed to get them their desired results, effectiveness would then be enabled and achieved accordingly.

Relationship between Instructional Supervision and Effective Teaching

The academic definition of instructional supervision is reiterated here to further bind its link to effective teaching. Instructional leadership has been defined as representative of procedures that optimize strategies and approaches to improve teaching and introduce positive change (Shulman et al., 2008). It has also been defined as the process of lending assistance to teachers in

improving teaching and promoting the professional and personal growth and skills of teachers (Gentry, 2002), which Blase and Blase (2000) captured as effective instructional leadership. Instructional supervision is further defined as leadership for the promotion and enhancement of teaching and learning, provided not only by formally designated supervisors but also by other instructional leaders such as specialists, principals, heads of departments, among others. Instructional supervision is also defined as the provision of opportunities to teachers to develop their ability towards contributing to learners' academic success (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). The description of instructional supervision is seen here to be a subset of instructional leadership, with its emphasized dimensions of focus on teaching and learning, and contribution to the yield of learner outcomes. Emphasizing the position of instructional supervision reveals instructional supervision as mainly practiced by instructional leaders. Supervising and evaluating teaching are agreed upon to comprise exercises that allow for teaching-based support to teachers, inspection of teaching processes and alignment of teaching with school goals (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Additionally, supervision is mainly considered as leadership that promotes a continual engagement of key personnel in the school setting to cooperatively achieve effective school programs (Franseth 1961). Undoubtedly, supervision is to improve teaching, ultimately for the benefit of learners (Ngole & Mkulu, 2021; Oliva & Pawlas, 2004), and leadership, interpersonal and communications skills appear to be especially important to successful supervision (Oliva & Pawlas, 2004). Instructional supervision is considered as a cooperative alliance that involves supervisors and teachers engaging in professional dialogues in attempts to improve teaching, which then impacts students' enhanced learning (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986). To attain the aims of instructional supervision, instructional supervisors usually offer advice, assistance and support for teachers and also inspect, control and evaluate teachers (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Therefore, the concept and practice of instructional supervision covers services rendered to teachers to develop them, develop teaching and develop the curriculum (Oliva & Pawlas, 2004). Glickman et al. (1998) also defined instructional supervision as the provision of assistance for the development of teaching and added that, successful schools are those that have an effective supervision program. Stone (1984) additionally described instructional supervision as involving direction, observation and facilitation to maintain order. This way, instructional supervision is envisioned as a process directed at making classroom teaching quality. Chamberlain and Kindred (1956) also failed to view supervision as the widely accepted style of general oversight and inspection in ensuring the efficiency of teachers in the application of supervisors' feedback suggestions, and rather viewed it as a service designed by the school to assist teachers become more effective in their guidance of learning activities in accordance with the aim to attain quality student achievement. Rue (2000) added to the definition by describing supervision as the interminable monitoring of the institution's forward movement toward its mission and objectives. Also, per Robbins and Alvy (1995)'s observation, supervision entailed supporting teachers and helping them to optimize their potential to the best of their ability. The authors believed supervisors should be up to task in the provision of resources and propelling engagement that develops teachers to impact the curriculum, teaching, learning and professional development from any angle they could. Again, supervision is affirmed as mainly connected with the instructional leader in his/her guidance of the everyday activities in the school, and the

instructional leader playing their part by encouraging, facilitating and directing teachers toward efficiency in achievement of educational goals.

Additionally, showing the link between effective instructional supervision and effective teaching offers a clear understanding of the relationship between instructional supervision and effective teaching. Effective instructional supervision entails increasing learners achievement and creating educational opportunities of value for learners through the supervisor's clear definition of goals for the teachers and facilitating opportunities for the teachers to learn about requisite requirements (Manley, 2022). It also involves a written statement of purpose which entails the tenets of the process- the supervision process should: be systematic and carefully planned to assist teachers grow professionally; be provided by personnels who are trained and experienced in the skills of planning, observation, and evaluation; be a shared accountability process which shows the role functions and requirements for the supervisor and supervisee; have its tools and processes used for supervision and evaluation supported by research on effective teaching practices; clearly define and communicate organizational and instructional expectations to stakeholders; include a pre-observation conference which contains the setting of teacher goals, reclarification of supervisor/supervisee roles, establishment of observation time, lesson objectives, etc; include a formal, periodic observation where descriptive information regarding the lesson is documented; include a post-observation conference where the supervisor provides descriptive feedback on the observation and teacher performance and plans for teacher renewal are established; include the design and delivery of technical assistance which facilitates teacher renewal; include provisions for a formal summative evaluation in a written form and shared with all staff members; make provisions for self-appraisal; and encourage participation in the design and evaluation by stakeholders affected by the supervision processes (Zadnik, 1992). As a professional evaluative process, instructional supervision involves the interpretation of instructional performance data in assessing teacher and teaching effectiveness (Wieczorek et al., 2018). Rightly so, some authors have mentioned how many teachers may not have mastered or developed sufficient skills for effective teaching (Frazer, 2000), and therefore require real time instructional supervision in the classroom (Panigrahi, 2013). The relation between effective instructional supervision and effective teaching is depicted in Bloom (2011)'s description of how ineffective instructional supervision and monitoring of teachers tend to affect the quality and effectiveness of teaching. This shows how effective instructional supervision has a corresponding link

with effective teaching- the presence of effective instructional supervision is usually a catalyst for effective teaching. This is also supported by Malunda et al. (2016) who asserted that the absence of effective instructional supervision led to ineffective pedagogical practices. Glanz et al. (2007) additionally added to the dialogue on the relation between effective instructional supervision and effective teaching by expressing how effective instructional supervision provides complementary support for instructors and learners beyond existing support programs in order to make learning and teaching as effective as possible. This portrays how effective supervision goes beyond the prescribed duty to pursue an extra mile in ensuring effectiveness is achieved in teaching and classroom practice. This is also related to what Tshabalala (2013) described as the relevance of the extent to which the teacher successfully accomplishes the instructional tasks. Effective instructional supervisor then, guides and ensures that the teacher does not just get the tasks done but gets it done well to ensure learning occurs. This is classified by Glanz et al. (2007) as being crucial for enhancing the growth of the teacher as well.

Another way of establishing the relationship between instructional supervision and effective teaching is by looking at how authors associate instructional supervision with effective teaching. For example, there are reports of a substantial difference in the nature of teacher and teaching effectiveness depending on the nature of instructional supervision, its analysis and strategies, its feedback and post-delivery conference analysis (Iroegbu & Etudor-Eyo, 2016). The authors went on to mention how teaching was more effective in certain schools where instructional supervision was adequate and effective than in schools where it was not. It was then recommended that instructional supervision be checked, if effective teaching was to be achieved. This association introduces movement in the degree of teaching effectiveness in correspondence with the nature of instructional supervision available and further establishes the relationship between the two concepts.

The identification of the link between effective teaching and instructional supervision under instructional leadership is well established in literature. Accordingly, instructional supervisors should be the first to apply effective teaching methods, teaching aids, keep up-to-date records of work done, lesson plans and lesson notes, so that teachers can emulate. This way the instructional leader stands as a guide leading the teacher toward learning (Kieleko et al., 2017). Synthesized literature to show the relationship between instructional supervision by instructional leaders and effective teaching is depicted as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Role of Instructional Supervision in Effective Teaching

Instructional Supervision Role	Authors
Improve instruction, Teacher Effectiveness, Teacher Work & Instructional Performance, Professional Growth; Interaction effects on development of collaborative, problem-solving contexts for dialog about instruction	(Glickman et al., 1998; Acheampong & Gyasi, 2019; Kindred, 1956; Robbins & Alvy, 1995; Turgut & Yimaz., et al., 2012; Baffour-Awuah, 2011; World Bank, 2019; Musa, 2014; Saani, 2013; Ampofo et al., 2019; Glickman et al., 2009; Kalule & Bouchamma, 2014; Asiyai, 2009; Malunda et al., 2016)
Professional development and teaching process improvement	(Kieleko et al.,2017)
Creates Creative Environment, Teacher Reflection, & Problem-Solving Platform	(Glanz et al., 2007; Tyagi, 2010; Panigrahi, 2013; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 2007; Anthony-Krueger, 2010) • Quality Education (Glanz et al., 2007; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Sullivan & Glanz, 2013; Gakuya, 2013; Too et al., 2012; Afolabi

	& Lato, 2008; Osakwe, 2016; Alimi et al., 2012; Zengele & Alemayehu, 2016; Wanzare, 2012)
Direct involvement in monitoring student achievement and working with teachers to overcome achievement deficits and work with curriculum specialists in making tailored adjustments suitable for learners	(Herman & Herman, 1998)
Instructional development, curriculum development, and staff development. Prime source of assistance to teachers to improve generic or specialized teaching skills and demonstrating a repertoire of teaching strategies	(Oliva & Pawlas, 2004)
Planning, organizing, leading, helping, appraising, and communicating and decision making for teaching	(Beach & Reinhartz, 2000)
Motivating staff	(Pajak, 1989)
Guidance, and Support,	(Portin et al., 2009)
Instruction, guide and support for professional development	(Saltzman, 2016)
Assistance, and support for teachers	(Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002)
Assistance for teachers in need	(Alig-Mielcarek, 2003)
Direct impact on instructional improvement as direct assistance, staff development, group development, curriculum development, and action research	(Glickman, 1985)
Staff development, assessing needs and progress, aligning curriculum, planning events, organizing teams of teachers, modeling teaching, Support and encouragement, Facilitator in providing ideas	(Ovando & Huckestein, 2003)
Model teaching as an example of what and how to do things, examining learners' works to enable support and correction	(Southworth, 2002)
Maintaining acceptable standards and practices approved by education authorities	(Carron & Grauwe, 1997; Wanzare, 2012; Wilcox & Angelis, 2012)
Impact on teachers' growth	(Dzikum, 2011; Moswela, 2010; Grauwe, 2009)
Implementation of Pedagogic Development and Innovation	(GES, 2002; Dzikum, 2015)
Diagnostic for identifying pedagogical challenges & provision of needed support	(Glanz & Behar- Horenstein, 2000)

Assessment of pedagogical performance	(Sergiovanni, 2007)
Building a culture of reflection, collaboration, and improvement and supporting differentiated professional development on specific teaching strategies aimed to promote learning	(Glanz et al., 2007)
Serves as collective expertise in self-appraisal of teachers, Facilitator	(Tyagi, 2010)
Improve teachers' commitment in teaching and teaching techniques	(Rotich, 2014; Violet, 2015)
Effective pedagogical practices	(Malunda et al., 2016)
For teacher ability to apply derived knowledge to teaching after training and coaching	(Zagre, 2016)
Learning Experience for Teachers	(Esia-Donkoh & Baffoe, 2018)
Helps teacher through direct assistance, group development, curriculum development, action research toward effective teaching	(Chen, 2018)
Intervention and support through provision of teachers' capacity building for effective curriculum and teaching delivery	(Chabalala & Naidoo, 2021)

Source: Literature Review Matrix

Instructional supervision is a developmental function of instructional leadership (Wieczorek et al., 2018) and the instructional leader's supervision role is seen to be directly linked with checking on teachers' professional records; regular class supervision; and management plan for curriculum goals which in turn directly produces effective teaching and finally, increased learner academic performance- directly birthed from the effective teaching (Kieleko et al., 2017). The link between instructional supervision and effective teaching is also depicted to involve training (which includes: assisting teachers to master activities and strategies; set goals; and plan practice); instigating a positive reaction in teachers toward self-reflection, self-critique and identification of effective teaching activities; modeling teaching, encouraging self-discovery among teachers and determining observable criteria for teacher guidance (Ajayi, 2005; Clark & Olumese, 2013).

Methodology

This study used the qualitative design. Qualitative research strives to bring awareness to social or human issues by analyzing and interpreting the problem, developing possible resolutions and calling society to action (Creswell, 2007). Accordingly, the research found a meaningful link and the qualitative research helped to bring awareness to the problem at hand by being instrumental in analyzing and interpreting the problem, generating possible solutions and calling the stakeholders to action. Interviews, classroom observations and focus group discussions were used to enable the sampling of wide-ranged experiences, perceptions, and ideals and to cross reference and make informed comparisons of respondents' responses in order to extract emerging themes and common features and characteristics.

Another benefit of the qualitative approach is its capacity to assist in addressing problems where the variables and needs to explore are unknown (Creswell, 2012). In such cases, the researcher is supposed to learn from the respondents, and the meanings and interpretations for situations should factor the setting of the situation (Cooper & White, 2012). Connectedly, the researcher allowed the respondents to reveal their own experiences in expression of their roles in practice and the researcher explored the topic and practice in detail from them. The qualitative research also offered insight into how the supervisors think, process knowledge, learn, and the way they make use of their surroundings or allow their surroundings to mold their actions (Austin & Sutton, 2014; Taylor et al., 2015), and these were helpful in assisting the researcher answer the research questions accordingly.

Data Sources

A total of 9 schools and 35 participants who are responsible for the supervision of instructional activities such as lesson notes preparation, lesson plans, instruction methodology and the actual delivery of lessons (GES, 2012) provided data for the research. These supervisors have an influencing effect on effective teaching through support for instruction (Darling-Hammond, 2015). The participants were key informants since they had the specialized knowledge of the practice and they are the practitioners of the supervision in the classroom, which also helped to provide more information for the classroom observation done by the researcher (Paine, 2002). They are also direct providers of instructional

leadership through instructional supervision in the schools and therefore had the capacity to offer the actual practiced experiences in this regard. Most of the schools were needy schools situated in deprived communities. They mostly lacked teaching and learning resources for teaching and supervision. Some of the schools had poorly ventilated and overcrowded classrooms and some learners studied under trees due to insufficient infrastructure. These schools however had dedicated and committed instructional leaders who established initiatives and usually went the extra mile to ensure the needs for effective teaching were provided for teachers and learners. Furthermore, instructional leaders specifically in the primary school were the main focus in this study because research has indicated that the primary schools especially have poor instructional supervision in Ghana (Fatima & Wolf, 2020; Al-Kiyumi & Hammond, 2019). In addition, teachers are recipients of instructional supervision and were also included to help solidify the findings received from the instructional leaders.

The process of schools' identification involved an inquiry at the GES office on municipalities that had been identified to practice effective instructional supervision. The researcher was directed to a metropolis directorate in the Greater Accra Region (the metropolis was assigned a pseudonym by the researcher to maintain the anonymity of the education officials and directorate). Another inquiry was made at the metropolis education office on the schools with effective instructional supervision and the office offered a list of schools. When asked about what informed the classification of these schools as having effective instructional supervision, the following characteristics were mentioned: dedicated principals and circuit supporters; conducive school climate and environment; the school performance- good performance in both internal and external examination; safety; relationship among teachers, between teachers and principal, between teachers and learners, and relationship with the community; and supportive stakeholders- such as having effective Parent Teacher Association. The selected schools with effective supervision status were further confirmed by the metropolis education office as ones that not only followed the prescribed supervision requirements but improvised and introduced inventive processes to enhance supervision as well. Their exceptional actions beyond the usual concerning instructional supervision included: committed personnel who ensured work was done no matter what; and frequency and persistence in monitoring teaching. The researcher did not make mention of the aspect of learner success or achievement in requesting the list of schools. The education office however mentioned that one of the main criteria for the schools' selection was based on learner academic performance and outcomes. Additionally, the selection was justified in literature because identification of the role of supervisors is indispensable in the determination of how instructional supervision is rendered, especially in schools that have achieved high levels of student success (Ovando & Huckestein, 2003).

Data Analysis

The data analysis was largely guided by the research questions and interview notes. At stage one of the analysis, the researcher separated the textual information collected into broad categories- open coding. In the second stage, the researcher revisited the broad categories and placed them into higher defined categories and apportioned meaning to sub-categories and the existing relations between them. Then, themes were identified and clearly articulated. This stage (axial coding) enabled the capture of a clearer view of the data and the relationships existing among the different themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The researcher further searched for connections and patterns across the emerging themes and how the themes fit together (Smith et al., 2009). The researcher then drew meaning and produced a narrative. Stage three (selective coding) involved the ultimate inclusion and refinement of the core themes that dominated the findings. Existing connections and variations among sub-categories were interpreted based on the context of the data, with consideration of the setting of the research sites and field notes taken during the data collection. An analysis was done on the categorized and refined data to find and describe meaning of the varied themes that emerged in the study.

Research Findings and Discussion

A pattern identified was that most of the challenges existent in the schools against instructional supervision have been in existence for a while. Some of the challenges mentioned were met in the system by the participants upon appointment and some of the participants have been in appointment for at least 5 years. The instructional leaders in this study seemed to have embraced the hindrances and found workable ways to still achieve their aims in the face of the obstacles. This seemed to have worked because in these schools, academic performance and other indicators used by the GES office such as conducive climate, good stakeholder collaboration, commitment and hard work of supervisors, and safety was recorded as good. For example, the education office has officially applauded some supervisors for good performance and reassigned them to larger circuits to replicate their new developments in more schools, to show that the aims targeted at by the education authorities are being achieved. Additionally, in the internal and external examinations learners' results continuously got better regardless of the deprived nature of the communities these schools were located in which affected resources provision, and the minimal assistance they received from the government for teaching and learning support.

Themes Identified from the Data

From the data analysis 9 themes emerged as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Themes

Theme 1: Shared Instructional Supervision Preparation
Category 1: Instructional supervision prior notice provision status
Category 2: Instructional supervision structure set-up
Category 3: Instructional supervision goal setting Sub-category 1: Instructional supervision goal setting structure set-up

Sub-category 2: Instructional supervision goal setting procedure

Sub-category 3: Instructional supervision goals' evaluation

Sub-category 4: Scope of set goals for instructional supervision

Category 4: Instructional supervision support initiatives goal setting

Theme 2: Shared Responsibility for Instructional Supervision Purpose Achievement

Category 1: Preparation of teachers for instructional supervision receptivity

Theme 3: Instructional Supervision Implementation

Category 1: Instructional supervision procedure drafting

Category 2: Selection of areas of preparation for instructional supervision

Theme 4: Duty Realization Challenges

Category 1: Duty Preparation flaws

Sub-category 1: Orientation defects

Sub category 2: Induction defects

Category 2: Unserved/underserved supervision areas

Sub-category 1: reasons for service failure in unserved areas

Sub-category 2: supervisors anticipated self-assistance contribution for unserved areas

Sub-category 3: perceived external sources complementary for tackling unserved areas

Sub-category 4: perceived areas requiring emphasized actions

Theme 5: Duty Enhancement Measures

Category 1: duty performance boost by lessons from orientation/induction

Category 2: education supervision models use/ non-use

Category 3: Criteria and resources use

Category 4: special initiatives

Category 5: personal strategies considered helpful

Category 6: needs-based support interventions

Category 7: Supervisors' instructional supervision support received

Sub-category 1: Lessons from support received

Sub-category 2: support goals' evaluation for effectiveness

Sub-category 3: support goals' evaluation for comprehension & implementation

Category 8: supervision policies utilization

Category 9: recruitment role in qualities' identification by education service

Category 10: supervisors' capacity building

Category 11: change of teachers' negative perception of supervisors

Category 12: regular refresher programs for instructional leaders and teachers

Category 13: supervisors learning from other supervisors

Theme 6: Readiness for Duty

Category 1: preparatory training

Theme 7: Context-based Effectiveness

Category 1: criteria for instructional supervision

Sub-category 1: Documentation of practice/criteria

Category 2: Effective instructional supervision indicators

Theme 8: Practice Evaluation

Category 1: subordinates/teachers' appraisal

Category 2: support interventions assessment

Sub-category 1: subordinate support interventions assessment

Sub-category 2: superiors support interventions assessment

Category 3: practice & progress monitoring

Category 4: performance evaluation

Sub-category 1: superior evaluation of subordinate

Sub-category 2: supervisor self-assessment

Category 5: Instructional supervisors' unrealized plans/ resolutions for better action

Theme 9: Relevance of Instructional Supervision

Source: Field data (2022)

Some relationships were identified among the themes. Theme 4: Duty Realization Challenges, served as a barrier against theme 3: Instructional Supervision Implementation. However, theme 5: Duty Enhancement Measures served as a buffer for theme 3: Instructional Supervision Implementation to be realized and enabled effectiveness. That shows that even with the existing challenges against instructional supervision, its aims were still achieved due to assistance of some contributors such as theme 5: Duty Enhancement Measures. A non-existent link was observed between theme 6: Readiness for Duty and theme 3: Instructional Supervision Implementation. This is because without the absence of theme 6: Readiness for Duty, theme 3: Instructional Supervision Implementation still carried out the task at hand, and with assistance from the other supporting themes, could still achieve the set aims. That also shows that effectiveness is attainable without theme 6: Readiness for Duty, whose component is preparatory training.

The strategies the instructional leaders used that worked for them are outlined in themes 1,2,3,5,7, and 8. That does not mean theme 4: Duty Realization Challenges and theme 6: Readiness for Duty are not relevant or they should remain in their current deprived states. Some instructional leaders stated the need for assistance in some of the deprived states in these two themes while some believed they had the power to make the needed contributions to make a difference. More importantly, there is the acknowledgement that theme 9: Relevance of Instructional Supervision necessitates themes 1,2,3,5,6,7 and 8, which confirms a strong position of the instructional leaders: if the results are achieved then the job is done.

Additionally, there is no strict connection between theme 1: Shared Instructional Supervision Preparation and theme 2: Shared Responsibility for Instructional Supervision Purpose Achievement on the one hand, and effectiveness of practice. The schools identified to practice highly effective supervision used different approaches on theme 1 and 2. That is also to say, whether with team work or individual performance of tasks, the set tasks could be accomplished and achieve the desired results. This point is even more proven on the foundation that some of the generally accepted practices (such as sub-category 3: instructional supervision goals' evaluation; and Category 4: instructional supervision support interventions goal-setting of theme 1) were not practiced by some instructional leaders, who instead mainly used trial and error approaches to achieve the aims of instructional supervision.

In sum and in the context of this study, the final argument made by the evidence remains- even with the lacking areas and hindrances, the aims set for instructional supervision: effective teaching and learning; and learners' achievement, were attained. Again, the context is a major factor of consideration. These instructional leaders usually engaged strategies they felt worked for them and gave them the desired results.

Results Presented According to the Research Questions

The response to research question 1 is informative on the form of preparation that may enable supervisors to attain effective supervision; and that of research question 2 is informative on the strategies the supervisors implement to achieve effective supervision.

1. How do instructional supervisors prepare to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching?

According to the data it was identified that they:

- Establish goal-setting structure and goal setting procedure for instructional supervision, while some
- Use an unstructured procedure and/or practice without goals specifically for instructional supervision
- Engage in instructional supervision goals' evaluation/ not
- Establish instructional supervision structure/ not
- Determine the procedure for instructional supervision
- Building teachers' capacity for receptivity to instructional supervision
- Prepare a detailed action plan for instructional supervision and teaching

In this study, it was identified that a lot of emphasis was placed on preparation before implementation of instructional supervision, and preparation was mentioned to be more relevant than qualifications acquired for the position of a supervisor. However, there was no formal preparatory or pre-service training provided for the instructional leaders for instructional supervision in this study. There was also the absence of

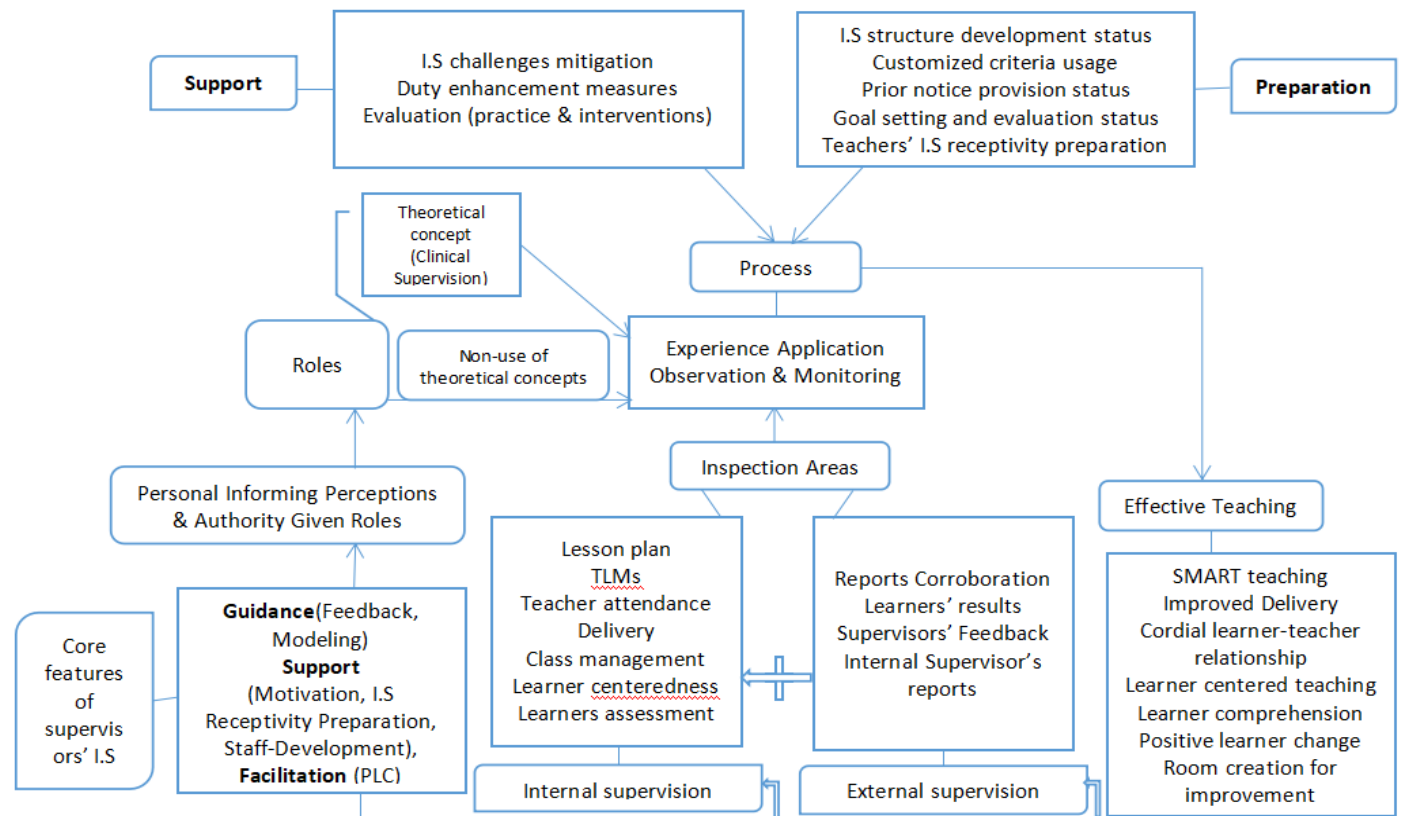
a mentorship program that allowed new instructional leaders to be guided and mentored by experienced mentors in a systematic and structured program. Such training is argued to be needed for these supervisors, but are seldom provided (Carron & De Grauwe, 1997) and this deprives these leaders of needed assistance for duty. Research supports the need for a broad training program in preparation for the work as a supervisor, with the emphasis that supervisors derive expertise from learning about the concept and foundations of supervision (Oliva & Pawlas, 2004). According to the authors, supervisors should also have certain knowledge and skills from: a sound general education program; a thorough pre-service professional education program; a solid graduate program in supervision; at least 3 years teaching experience; and adequate in-service training programs. Of these supervisor needs, the ones supervisors in this study mainly qualified for was the teaching experience, since about half of the participants had their study programs outside the field of education; and in-service training were reported by most as being inadequate. However, in cases that staff are placed into working positions without requisite training, research has shown that learning can take place while in the position and such learning could be highly instrumental in the personnel's professional growth and development (Bouchamma & Michaud, 2014; Nicholson & Reifel, 2011). With this possibility, it would then be left with the willingness of the personnel to learn, and not be satisfied with the limited knowledge on the practice. The instructional leaders in this study proved to have learnt how to achieve effectiveness on the job since they did not receive formal preparation or training for their position and the duties it came along with.

2. What measures do instructional leaders put in place for effective instructional supervision?

- Use/non-use of education supervision models
- Use of criteria and resources
- Institution of special initiatives
- Use of Professional Learning Community
- Teacher classification
- Teacher performance-based pairing
- Monitoring-based learners' pairing with teachers
- Stakeholder collaboration
- Additional online-based supervision
- Provision/not of prior notice for instructional supervision
- Delegation of instructional supervision duties
- Sensitization of learners for instructional supervision
- Peer (teachers) collaboration on teaching assistance
- Partnerships with private schools to increase learners' confidence and motivation for learning
- Supervisors' school exchange programs
- Ensuring teacher and learner readiness for teaching
- Ensuring instructional time maximization
- Record keeping of supervision
- Guidance by action plan
- Follow-up on instructional supervision discussions and recommendations
- Frequency in conducting instructional supervision
- Practicing covert instructional supervision
- Utilization of mild threats on teachers to get them to perform well
- Familiarization of instructional leaders with classroom lessons
- Introduction of technology
- Organization of needs-based training
- Firmness and fairness in instructional supervision practice
- Correction of teachers/subordinates
- Promptness to duty and expectations
- Use of education policies
- Change of teachers' negative perspectives of supervisors and supervisors' purpose
- Attention to recruitment process for quality candidates' selection (by education office)
- Provision of support to teachers/subordinates
- Supervisors' capacity building for supervision
- Investment into preparation for supervision monitoring by metropolis directorate
- Setting effectiveness indicators by the education authorities

A depiction of the instructional supervision practice showing the constituents of the stages in practice is shown (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Components of Stages in Instructional Supervision Practice



Source: Field Data (2022)

The details in the various segments of the instructional supervision practice (see Figure 1) establishes an operational path describing how instructional supervision by the instructional leaders builds up efforts and directs actions to impact effective teaching. It also represents the derivative sources of the roles, process and outcomes of instructional leaders' instructional supervision. It identifies explanatory elements in the promotion of effective supervision. The personal principles of instructional leaders concerning what their roles should entail if they are supposed to achieve the set aims for instructional supervision; as well as the roles explicitly given to them by the authorities emphasize the direction of their actions and define the instructional leaders' roles. Instructional leaders usually used Guidance, Support, and Facilitation to positively affect teaching. From their perceived and given roles in instructional supervision, instructional leaders aimed toward the main purpose-promotion of teaching and learning and utilized their tacit knowledge in the field to supervise teaching, while making strategic use of preparation and support (efforts made by themselves and those given by authorities, and offered to subordinates and teachers in the form of interventions) to achieve improvement and effectiveness in teaching. This framework is therefore a representation of contextual development of knowledge and practice for contextual-based effective teaching.

Concerning some of the areas that instructional leaders are supposed to invest into, elements indicated in literature were identified as norms of practice in this study. These elements included: making suggestions, giving feedback, reflective conversations among educators; providing time and opportunities for peer connections among teachers (this especially occurred mostly during Professional Learning Community sessions); promoting trust in staff and students; and developing professional

dialogue with educators and sometimes among educators. Some elements were also infrequently practiced such as: soliciting teachers' view about classroom instruction; developing cooperative, nonthreatening partnerships with teachers that are characterized by trust, openness, and freedom to make mistakes (some instructional leaders used threats as a strategy to get the teachers to work as they should); emphasizing the study of teaching and learning; supporting development of coaching skills; and promoting group development, teamwork, collaboration, innovation, and continual growth (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). The authors also made reference to other areas such as acknowledging the difficulties of growing and changing, which included teacher resistance and the difficulty of role changes; as well as continuous learning. In response to such elements, this study showed the need for instructional leaders as part of their preparation to embark on instructional supervision, to ensure preparation for reception as well by the recipients of the instructional supervision. When this is not done, there may be repercussions for practice including teachers' resistance, and consequently unsuccessful achievement of instructional supervision goals regardless of how much instructional leaders prepare and put efforts into the practice.

The schools in this study were not free of problems- they were identified to have issues pertaining to teachers' negative attitude to work; and mild disputes between instructional leaders however, the relationships sustained amid the problems was positive and allowed a free and calm climate in the school for work to still be carried out without much hindrances. In addition, the instructional leaders were identified to continually attempt different approaches to resolve their problems at hand. Furthermore, some of such schools integrated reflection and growth into their instructional supervision practices and led the teachers to do same. This assisted to build a school culture of individual and shared critical

examination for improvement. This way, they were empowered to embrace their challenges and made efforts toward evolving and developing.

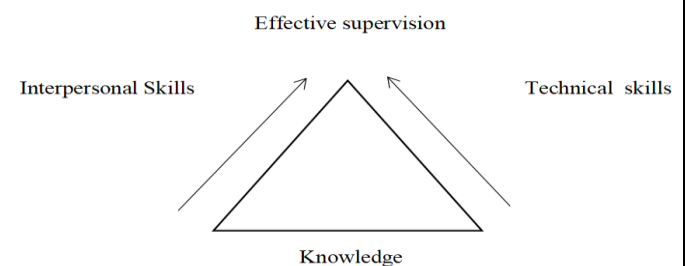
Responses from the research questions meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching through the use of: provision or not of prior notice of instructional supervision sessions; and setting up a structure or not for **Defining and Communicating School Goals** (Alig-Mielcarek, 2003), under which goals-setting and goals evaluation were identified to be done individually by the instructional leaders or collectively with teachers, and sometimes also with other stakeholders such as Parent Teacher Association and School Management Committee executives. Responses from research question 1 also meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching by: planning components of instructional supervision preparation to conduct **Monitoring, and Providing Feedback on the Teaching and Learning Process** (Alig-Mielcarek, 2003) during instructional supervision implementation. Responses from the research questions also meant that instructional supervision implementation was done with a prepared structure, and sometimes without any laid down format. Additionally, the responses meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching by: preparing and putting together helpful criteria for effective teaching which they used as a guide during **Monitoring of the Teaching and Learning Process**, and which also informed the **Feedback they offered to the teacher on the Teaching and Learning Process**. Furthermore, responses from research question 1 meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching by: selecting the instructional supervision approach and model for use. Here, in confirming the **directive informational behavior model** (Glickman et al., 2013) and the **ends-oriented model** (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993), the supervisor was the superior who was believed to have the requisite information for determining helpful approaches for teaching, and processes needed to get teaching as it should be. Therefore, during **Feedback on the Teaching and Learning Process**, the instructional leaders sometimes informed teachers of areas that required attention and advised them on ways to address those. Sometimes they also asked for suggestions on how such areas could be addressed (**Directive Informational Behavior Model**). Also, responses from research question 1 meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching through the use of: sharing the instructional supervision responsibility (by some instructional leaders) with stakeholders in aiming at effective teaching and learning. This was mainly done by insisting that teachers prepared themselves for instructional supervision and its receptivity instead of the instructional leader doing that as part of his/her responsibilities hence this way, the teacher shared in the responsibility required for instructional supervision. More so, responses from the research questions meant that some instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the classroom to contribute to effective teaching through the use of: sensitization of learners for instructional supervision and preparing teachers for instructional supervision receptivity. This was also used as a way of indirectly **Communicating School Goals** to the teacher and the learner, and

guiding them in the direction that was compatible with reception of the related assistance. In addition, responses from research question 1 meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the primary classroom to contribute to effective teaching through: building teachers' capacity for teaching; and ensuring teachers' preparation and readiness for teaching. The instructional leaders usually did this by **Promoting Professional Development** (Alig-Mielcarek, 2003) of the teachers. Furthermore, responses from research question 1 meant that instructional leaders prepared to ensure effective instructional supervision in the classroom to contribute to effective teaching through: efforts they invested, and the evaluation they conducted of their instructional supervision practice development so that effectiveness was enriched and added on to with time. They sometimes did this by including themselves in the **Professional Development** activities so they could benefit from it as teachers also did.

The Notion of Effective Supervision

A discussion of the concept of effective supervision and the effective status of supervision in this study is relevant to support the context from which the findings of this study is based. Glickman et al. (2014) presented a model of prerequisites for effective school supervision that identified three core competencies: knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills. The authors went on to posit that if supervision would be effective, the supervisor's knowledge base must include an understanding of the education system and its policies, and the ability to assess individual school needs regarding staff development and the furtherance of effective teaching and learning. Moreover, these capabilities should be accompanied by (i) interpersonal skills such as relationship management, and communication with teachers, the school community, and other stakeholders; (ii) technical skills- a repertoire of various approaches to supervision and planning, appraisal and assessment methodologies for school improvement; and (iii) knowledge of the intricacies of school supervision. The model of prerequisites developed by Glickman et al. (2014) is illustrated (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Model of Prerequisites for Effective School Supervision



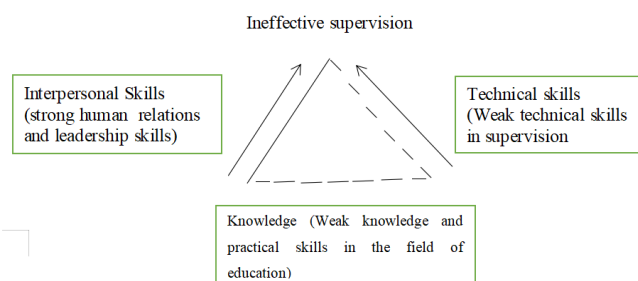
Source: Glickman et al. (2014).

According to Glickman et al. (2017), supervisors should have a sound **knowledge** base of the dynamics of school supervision to understand how knowledge of teacher development as well as alternative supervisory practices can help break the norm of mediocrity found in some schools. Secondly, supervisors must have **interpersonal skills for communicating with teachers**. They need to know how to relate to individuals as well as groups of teachers, and how to influence behaviors for positive change. Thirdly, supervisors must have the prerequisite **technical skills in supervision for planning, assessing, observing, and evaluating**

instructional improvement. Glickman et al. (2017) referred to the three prerequisite capabilities of knowledge, interpersonal skills and technical competence as complementary aspects of supervision that cannot be ignored in effective supervision, or when appointing a school supervisor. There is clear understanding that instructional supervision is a technical and professional occupation that requires knowledge in education, basic skills in human resource management, planning, communication, relationship management, leadership, and emotional intelligence among others. Based on this understanding it is evident that instructional supervisors need some form of training before taking up their duties and while they practice their duties, if they are to build the requisite knowledge base, and technical and interpersonal skills and capacities to function effectively.

The findings in this study indicated that supervisors were not given training on instructional supervision and were hardly given in-service training on instructional supervision. Some supervisors did not know what instructional/educational supervision models were. These do not satisfy the first prerequisite of effective supervision/supervisor's knowledge in the field of the practice as posited by Glickman et al. (2017). The formal explicit technical skill was also lacking as instructional leaders mentioned their use and reliance on past experience of teaching for executing their tasks. Additionally, there were no induction or mentorship programs to keep supervisors up to date on the technical know-how of the practice. The interpersonal skills however, was seen to be possessed by the instructional leaders who stressed that human relations and good communication were key tools that assisted them in their practice. By mapping the findings of the present study on to the Glickman et al. (2017) model, the observations made is shown (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Mapped Model of Prerequisites for Effective School Supervision



Source: Glickman (2017)

Effective supervision- knowledge of what needs to be done for teacher growth and school success is at the base of the mapped model for supervisory action. This knowledge needs to be accompanied by interpersonal skills for communicating with teachers, and technical skills for planning, assessing, observing, and evaluating instructional improvement (Glickman et al., 2017).

Also, it was discovered that in the education setting in Ghana, criteria for effectiveness regarding instructional supervision practice seemed to be elusive. Some supervisors mentioned not being provided with criteria to use in the practice, some however mentioned being provided with some criteria. However, regardless of the status of receipt of criteria, most supervisors were observed to generally use a targeted and customized/personalized approach and criteria in conducting supervision and contributing to effective teaching in the classroom. This indicated the need for a working

guide and a call for setting up standard set of dimensions and components with common taxonomy that could aim for, and assess diverse features and elements for systematic improvement and development (Murphy & Jensen, 2016). This was supported by some respondents who mentioned how useful such guide would be for the practice if it was provided. However, a question raised here is, would this really be needed? Since contextual differences may play their role of required diversity in tackling settings-specific needs. Therefore, there will be the question of whether uniformity or standard is really needed? The researcher believes the answer lies in the achievement of rightly set objectives. That is to say, if appropriate objectives are set to cater for the right outcomes, then achieving these objectives become the mark for these supervisors, and not the action of towing the line to achieve standards.

Per the responses given by some of the schools, and the mapping of the findings on the Glickman (2017)'s model, it could be argued that the schools provided by the education office as having effective supervision, could have their 'effectiveness' in question. The implication of the findings indicated in the model (see Figure 3) is that, even though some of the supervisors in this study had sufficient knowledge in the field of education, there was absence of knowledge in the area of instructional supervision. There was also an absence of a comprehensive pre-service capacity building and training in instructional supervision, as well as in technical skills on the practice (Oliva & Pawlas, 2004), which could be indicative or suggestive of ineffective supervision (Glickman et al., 2017). These could also go to inform some of the underlying reasons why research has found supervision in some schools to be ineffective.

Effectiveness in this study however could be justified for a number of reasons. Schon (1993)'s position on effective professional practices for fields such as education contradicts Glickman (2014)'s pre-requisite skills requirement. Schon (1993) argued that professionalism or effective professional practice does not only rely on technical/prerequisite rationality as posited by Glickman but it is rather formulated on tacit knowledge which is gained through practice- what the supervisors had in the context of this study. According to Schon, a practice-oriented knowledge is acquired by a practitioner during his/her practice in a specific line of work thus 'knowing through action'. Per this exposition, the schools in the study could be argued to indeed practice effective supervision. Additionally, Marzano et al. (2011), on the topic of effective supervision argued that the practice of supervision in its evolvement, is the reinforcement of the purpose of supervision which is the enhancement of teachers' pedagogical skills, with the ultimate goal of enhancing student achievement. And if the findings of this study were judged on such grounds, effective supervision could also be argued to occur in the context of this study. Felicien et al. (2013) also added to the topic in their assertion that in an environment where quality of work is expected from students, success is often measured in terms of the gains made by students in learning, as was the case in this study. This means, per the success achieved from instructional supervision which affecting teaching and learners' outcomes, the schools in this study were successful, which should be the focal point of attention. In the end, what constitutes instructional improvement and successful teaching can be defined only within the context of particular educational beliefs, instructional goals, local learning environments, and individual students. This means that the search for a single instructional model which is effective for all learning content, students, and situations is futile according to Glickman et al. (2017). Furthermore, according to Fiedler (1967), the situational

context of a leader is key in determining the success and effectiveness of the leaders' actions (or instructional supervision). The contingency leadership theory supports how leaders can gain effectiveness using their response, regardless of their situational context. And by the response of the leaders in this study, they could be argued to have attained effectiveness. Identification of key responses got the instructional leaders in this study their desired results, thereby enabling effectiveness. The leaders successfully aligned leadership response to their context with situational favorableness, for effective results (Fiedler, 1967). Also, the instructional leaders in this study managed to identify a system of workable strategies with localized knowledge that yielded productivity (Taylor, 1998). In the end, regardless of the lack of uniformity in instructional supervision practice in this study, and claims of ineffective practice in previous researches, there is the fact that effectiveness may be highly dependent on settings, context, or in some cases, result (Taylor, 1919), which justifies effectiveness identified in this study.

To add to these, the argument put forward by the researcher is further endorsed by literature that affirms some key tenets and expected outcomes of effective instructional supervision. These components are defined within instructional supervision such as: behavior officially designated by the organization that directly affects teacher behavior in such a way that facilitates student learning and achieves the goals of the organization (Alfonso et al., 1981); and the influence of the teaching process employed to promote student learning (Harris, 1989; Lovell & Wiles, 1983). These components indicate that the tenets such as: endorsement of the organization in question (the GES); direct impact on teacher behavior; facilitation of student learning; and achievement of organizational goals, were all achieved in the settings of the study. In line with such positions, the organizationally supported (GES) instructional supervision practice (one that primarily is to lead to gain of learner outcomes), is argued to be contextually effective in the achievement of its aims. Additionally, the aim for instructional supervision by the GES is to promote effective teaching to increase learners' outcome. The study context achieved these aims and hence, regardless of the controversy it could be argued that the GES is the education authority mandated with the policy and regulation power of instructional supervision. If their set aim for instructional supervision is achieved, and their position on it is effectiveness status, then the supervisors' practice is contextually effective.

Conclusion of some of the main research findings are as follows:

- Proof of effective instructional supervision in the setting of this study:

End of lecturing method in the classrooms

Conducive school tone

Conducive idea sharing climate

Parental awareness and assistance in learner support

Appropriate use of instructional time

Appropriate teaching carried out in classroom

Increased/improved utilization of teaching aids

Reflection leading to provision of aid

Gaining interpretation ability for cascade training of teachers by instructional leaders after in-service training

Promptness of instructional leaders in correcting teachers' errors

Improvement in teacher and learner performance

Pro-activeness status of instructional leaders on areas of lessons from workshops after training

Critical approach in handling issues faced

Learning from others toward productivity

Team work and management skills

Professional development

- Instructional leaders personalize directives given, their perceptions-derived roles in their context, and apply these in addition to accumulated experiences on the job and past experiences of teaching and/or principalship during observation and monitoring. The observation and monitoring, and experiences application, are also used in support provision, guidance, and facilitation, which is reinvested into the experiences and monitoring for maximization to develop the instructional supervision practice and help produce assistance for effective teaching. The experiences and observation are used to provide direct teaching and learning assistance, which contributes to effective teaching.
- Leaders' response is a key determinant in achieving effectiveness in instructional supervision
- Teachers' resistance to instructional supervision is restrictive to instructional supervision but in the presence of resistance, other measures such as: use of firmness, encouragement, support provision, or mild threats, could still allow for instructional leaders to achieve instructional supervision goals.
- Instructional leaders are well capable to achieve effective instructional supervision by themselves with minimal support from the education office as a result of the presence of elements such as commitment, pro-activeness, and improvisation from instructional leaders
- With room for discretion on supervision practice, coupled with a level of control on supervisors' actions by education authorities, supervision practice is made more difficult, but its effectiveness is still achievable.
- Requisite elements/ strategies that are key for achieving effective instructional supervision includes: leaders' response to setting, adjustments toward context and situation; teaching and/or principalship experience (especially both); target setting; stakeholder discussions; advance preparation; motivation of good performers (teachers and supervisors); creativity and innovation by supervisors; search for external assistance for assistance on teaching and learning; pairing up of non-performing teachers in certain areas with well-performing teachers for assistance provision; distribution of learners among teachers for intensive monitoring; strong stakeholder collaboration (teachers, principal, parents, learners, with follow-up at learners' homes to communicate with parents to ensure learners learn what they are taught so that teaching is fully effective); use of diverse supervision platforms such as supervision carried out on online platforms as part of monitoring skills; classification of teachers by specialization and ability, and related class allotment for support provision; delegation of instructional supervision duties to deputy principal, learners, or other teachers, to enable

observation of the teacher on varied angles and sometimes without the teacher's knowledge; identification of exceptionally good facilitators in certain areas to teach teachers in areas of challenge; different teachers involved in crafting a common lesson plan for delivery in challenging areas; sensitization of learners to instructional supervision to enhance learner focus during instructional supervision; comprehensive supervision and extended time for it (including spending time with learners and building good relationships with them); supervisors' follow-ups to homes of learners in cases of learner truancy to make efforts toward getting teaching and learning effective; partnership/pairing of private schools with the public schools (for motivation of learners to build their confidence in reception to teaching in the classroom); GES introduction of instructional leaders' school exchange program for them to learn from different environments and discuss findings; relationship building with teachers/subordinates as a form of drawing out intrinsic motivation; covert supervision; utilization of mild threats to get teachers on task; instructional leaders' familiarity with lessons focus to reduce their level of learning done in the classroom, which also enables increased ability to detect teacher's flaws; proper record keeping of instructional supervision details, supervised teachers, observation comments, supervised assessments, and feedback on lesson plan vetting; using classroom management especially in the areas of evaluation and questioning to ensure effective teaching delivery; ensuring teachers' adequate knowledge of the learners; ensuring teacher readiness for teaching (mental preparation of the teacher for the tasks, drawing out attention/needs areas in the practice of the teacher, and ensuring teachers' adequacy of preparation); working with teachers as a team; ensuring results- yearly continuous improvement; ensuring cooperative parents, and getting parental awareness and assistance in learners' support; prioritizing planning; making efforts to ensure learner readiness (learner preparation by teacher for lesson); instructional time maximization and appropriate use; prior notice of instructional supervision usage (prior notice for both learners and teachers); guidance by action plan; follow-up on instructional supervision; frequency in instructional supervision (persistent school visits for awareness of teachers of supervisor's monitoring/supervision to keep them on task; investing more personal time into the instructional supervision practice; introduction of technology for ease of teaching and improved classroom practice; organization of needs-based training; discussion on curriculum; provision of support for teachers sometimes through liaising with teachers; use of pre-delivery conferences; use of firmness and fairness; correction of teachers; use of gestures; promptness to duty and expectations; alternation of leadership styles (change required according to its need); transparency (which expedites the work and gets the job done for the instructional leader. It also makes the work independent of their presence, and the absence of the supervisor does not result in neglect of tasks); and assistance through provision of teaching and learning resources (to help

teachers deliver and achieve teaching goals). All these strategies and efforts are invested into the teaching practice to make teaching effective in the classroom.

Conclusion

This study introduces a traditional, non-technical approach to effective supervision in contributing to effective teaching-developed in a resource deprived and challenges-stricken context. This proves that outside of the requisite skills and knowledge needed for effective teaching and learning, effectiveness can be contextually achieved with settings-based terms (Schon, 1993), and responses (Fiedler, 1967). Mostly, in investigating the issues with supervision, most of the available research in the setting of the researcher (Ghana) emphasized the monetary problems that instructional leaders have that inhibit successful or effective instructional supervision (which then usually become the reasons given why supervision is of poor quality in some cases; and is not carried out as frequently as should be). However, during this research the researcher discovered that commitment on the part of the instructional leaders; leaders' response to their situation and context (contingency leadership theory); and identification of mechanisms that produced a pathway for productivity (Scientific management theory), usually overcomes most excuses that could hinder the aims of instructional supervision from being achieved. Most of the problems identified in the research of ineffective supervision in literature such as: lack of funds, delay in supply of teaching and learning resources et cetera were also identified in the context of this study however, the difference was the attitude of the instructional leaders in the face of all the challenges.

When people are willing, as the researcher mostly found out, they found a way. The researcher found out that creativity, innovation, improvisation, and sheer will, held power toward effectiveness that was greater than the failure of designated authorities to dispense the requisite assistance or funds needed to make instructional supervision functional. This does not justify the non-provision of assistance by respective units in the education authorities for instructional leaders to do their work as is mostly the case however, it merely reiterates that commitment should be key in the prioritization of roles and resources by all stakeholders, as was identified in this study. With that, provision of assistance may have much more results to offer.

The interview process, inquiry probing and findings drew out contextual best practices that are currently in use and suitable for achieving a major goal of instructional supervision. Furthermore, the study proved the possibility of achieving effectiveness regardless of context or situation, as shown by the findings. The findings established how contextual resources are major keys for effectiveness if invested into. Such context resources were proven however, to be workable with the input of commitment from the 'actors' or instructional leaders, in the form of the leaders' response (Fiedler, 1967). Additionally, the study introduced areas that hold substantiality for preventing effective efforts made toward instructional supervision from being realized. Some of such areas include instructional leaders being hindered and restricted from the level of innovation and initiatives they can introduce in the instructional supervision in the schools due to the control of the education authorities and some of its directives. Such exposure of preventive and hindering links to the resolution of a consistent problem of ineffective instructional supervision existing in some classrooms in Ghana, is instrumental for alerting the key stakeholders toward awareness, and possible efforts of action

toward resolution. This study therefore introduced a problem-solving approach aimed at elimination instead of reporting, especially in the setting of the researcher (Ghana) on instructional supervision.

Finally, in cases of ineffective instructional supervision, some useful and needed steps per findings of this study have been identified to include: recruitment of instructional supervisors with high levels of commitment, dedication, extensive experience in teaching and principalship, and industriousness; allowance of reasonable levels of control for operation and instructional leaders' discretion; and regular training and capacity building of supervisors and teachers

Implications

The findings of this study support supervision in a systematic and practical way and are helpful in contributing to the effective implementation of supervisory practices of supervisors in the primary school. It was identified that the inquiry approach used served as an avenue for reflection and deliberation on key areas of practice, especially those areas that have not received due attention. The findings were therefore important in making the supervisors conscious of their supervision practice and related actions, and made them question the need for assistance, the need to research, the sufficiency of their approaches, techniques, learning opportunities, learning avenues, processes and products; and also compare their practice to others. These were also driving forces in motivating the instructional leaders to resolve to invest necessary actions that would boost teachers' performance in diverse ways such as helping them to identify problematic areas in their teaching, to improve teaching practice and contribute to the professional growth of teachers (Zepeda, 2007). Reflective practice additionally tends to impact the performance of prospective practitioners, especially in planning, implementation, performance improvement, and recalculation of strength areas as well as weak points (Zahid, 2019), and accordingly this research served to provide this opportunity for prospective supervisors. This study also has implications for supervision programs, in refining its teaching content and areas of emphasis. The findings of the study indicated how important it is for education on supervision to include emphasis on reflective practice in preparing prospective supervisors and organizing training modules. These would also inform supervisors' decision-making, meta-cognition and logical thinking, and initiate a continuous self-review process. Reflective supervisors would then have the chance to refine and modify their practices for improvement that influences teaching in the classroom.

Also, the quality of educational organizations stands to be enhanced, as inputs for effective supervision are outlined by this research. This is helpful in assisting to put together fragmented structures of teaching and instructional supervision in the action plan of the school (Glickman et al., 2009) for a coordinated and complementary performance of both. Additionally, proper and workable instructional supervision strategies when practiced, opens up avenues for effectiveness of schools in the improvement of effective management of teaching and learning processes (Arong & Ogbadu, 2010). Similarly, there is the chance for enhanced teaching-based guidance obtained from instructional supervision best practices which offers improvement for the teacher's skills, experiences, and professional knowledge, and ignite innovation in their teaching activities. Therefore, this study promotes

optimization of instructional supervision by schools to improve teaching practice and preparation for achievement of school goals.

References

1. Abonyi, U. K., & Sofo, F. (2019). Exploring instructional leadership practices of leaders in Ghanaian basic schools. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 3-17. DOI: 10.1080/13603124.2019.1629628
2. Acheampong, P., & Gyasi, J. F. (2019). Teacher retention: A review of policies for motivating rural basic school teachers in Ghana. *Asian Journal of Education and Training*, 5(1), 86-92. DOI: 10.20448/journal.522.2019.51.86.92
3. Aguba, C. R. (2009). *Educational administration and management: Issues and perspectives*. Tons and Tons PDS Publishers.
4. Ajayi, L. (2005). Teachers' needs and predesigned instructional practices: An analysis of a reading language Arts coursebook for a second grade class. *Reading Improvement*, 42(4), 200.
5. Alfonso, R. J., Firth, G., & Neville, R. (1981). *Instructional Supervision: A behavior system*. Allyn and Bacon.
6. Alig-Mielcarek, J. M. (2003). *A model of school success: Instructional leadership, academic press, and student achievement*. Ohio State University Press.
7. Alimi, O. S., Ehinola, G. B., & Alabi, F. O. (2012). School types, facilities and academic performance of students in senior secondary schools in Ondo state, Nigeria. *International education studies*, 5(3), 44-48.
8. Al-Kiyumi, A., & Hammad, W. (2019). Instructional supervision in the Sultanate of Oman: Shifting roles and practices in a stage of educational reform. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 22(2), 237-249.
9. Ampofo, S. Y., Onyango, G. A., & Ogola, M. (2019). Influence of school heads' direct supervision on teacher role performance in public schools, Ghana. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 7(2), 9-26.
10. Anthony-Krueger, B. B. (2010). *Insights into management practices and teacher performance in Wesley girls' high school in Cape Coast*. [Master's thesis, University of Cape Coast]. Sam Jonah Library Databas
11. Archibong, F. I. (2013). Instructional supervision in the administration of secondary education: A panacea of quality assurance. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(13), 15-27.
12. Arong, F. E., & Ogbadu, M. A. (2010). Major causes of declining quality of education in Nigeria administrative perspective: A case study of Dekina local government area. *Canadian Social Science*, 6(3), 61-76.
13. Asiyai, R. I. (2016). Relational study of in-service training, teaching effectiveness and academic performance of students. *Journal of Teaching and Education*, 5(2), 205-216.
14. Austin, Z., & Sutton, J. (2014). Qualitative research: Getting started. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 67(6), 436-440.
15. Baffour-Awuah, P. (2011). *Supervision of instruction in public primary schools in Ghana: Teachers' and headteachers' perspectives* [Doctoral dissertation, Murdoch University]. Murdoch Research Repository.

18. Beach, D. M., & Reinhartz, J. (2000). *Supervisory leadership: Focus on instruction*. Allyn and Bacon.
19. Beard, K. S. (2013). Character in action: A case of authentic educational leadership that advanced equity and excellence. *Journal of School Leadership*, 23(6), 10-15
20. Blase, J., & Blase, J. (2000). Effective instructional leadership. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), 130–141. doi:10.1108/09578230010320082
21. Bloom, C. M. (2011). Leadership effectiveness and instructional supervision: The case of the failing twin. *Journal of Case Studies in Education*, 1, 1-14
22. Bouchamma, Y., & Michaud, C. (2014). Professional development of supervisors through professional learning communities. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 17(1), 62–82.
23. Carron, G., & De Grauwe, A. (1997). *Current issues in supervision: Literature review*. IIEP-UNESCO.
24. Chabalala, G. & Naidoo, P. (2021). Teachers' and middle managers experiences of principals' instructional leadership towards improving curriculum delivery in schools. *South African Journal of Childhood Education* 11(1), 9-15. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajce.v11i1.910>
25. Chen, C. C. (2018). Facilitation of teachers' professional development through principals' instructional supervision and teachers' knowledge management behaviors. In Y. Weinberger, & Z. Libman (Eds.), *Contemporary pedagogies in teacher education and development*. IntechOpen. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.77978>
26. Clark, A. O., & Olumese, H. A. (2013). Effective supervision as a challenge in technical and vocational education delivery: Ensuring quality teaching/ learning environment and feedback mechanism. *Basic Research Journal of Education Research and Review*, 2(1),6-15.
27. Cooper, K., & White, R. E. (2012). *Qualitative research in the postmodern era: Contexts of qualitative research*. Springer Science and Business Media.
28. Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Pearson Education.
29. Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage
30. Danquah, M. B., Baidoo, U. Y., Dankwah, M., & Acheampong, R. (2018). Supervisors and supervisees' perception of instructional supervision: the case of selected basic schools in the central region of Ghana. *AU EJournal of Interdisciplinary Research*, 3(2), 129-141.
31. Darling-Hammond, L. (2015). *Getting teacher evaluation right: What really matters for effectiveness and improvement*. Teachers College Press.
32. Dzikum, E. A. (2015). *Examining the Professional Skills of Basic School Supervisors in GA South Municipality of Ghana* [Doctoral dissertation]. University of Sussex.
33. Esia-Donkoh, K., & Baffoe, S. (2018). Instructional supervisory practices of headteachers and teacher motivation in public basic schools in Anomabo education circuit. *Journal of Education and e-Learning Research*, 5(1), 43-50.
34. Fatima, S. F., & Wolf, S. (2020). *Cumulative risk and newly qualified teachers' professional well-being: Evidence from rural Ghana* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Pennsylvania.
35. Felicien, A., Andimignon, M., & Jawawi, R. (2013). *Foundations of educational leadership*. Commonwealth of learning.
36. Fiedler, (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill.
37. Franseth, J. (1961). *Supervision as leadership*. Row Peterson.
38. Frazer, K. (2000). Supervisory behaviour and teacher satisfaction. *Journal of educational Administration*, 18(2), 224 – 227.
39. Gauhar, A., & Ali, F. (2023). Impact Of Instructional Supervision Of Academic Heads On Teaching Performance At Secondary Level. *Jahan-e-Tahqeeq*, 6(3), 113-124.
40. Gentry, G. C. (2002). A case study: *The issues high school principals encounter with instructional supervision* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Georgia.
41. Ghana Education Service. (2012). *In-Service training sourcebook: District guideline & operational manual for district level inset*. Paramount printing Works Ltd.
42. Ghana Education Service. (2002). *Principals' handbook*. Paramount printing Works Ltd.
43. Ghavifekr, S., Husain, H., Rosden, N. A., & Hamat, Z, W. (2019). Clinical supervision: Towards effective classroom teaching. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 7 (4), 30-42
44. Glanz, J. (2014). *Action Research: An Educational Leader's Guide to School Improvement*. Rowman and Littlefield.
45. Glanz, J., & Behar-Horenstein, L. S. (2000). *Paradigm debates in curriculum and supervision: Modern and postmodern perspectives*. Bergin & Garvey.
46. Glanz, J., Shulman, V., & Sullivan, S. (2007, April 13). *Impact of instructional supervision on student achievement: Can we make the connection?* [Conference session]. Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association (AERA), Chicago
47. Glickman, C. D. (1985). *Development as the aim of instructional supervision*.
48. Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2009). *The basic guide to supervision and instructional leadership*. (2nd ed.). Pearson.
49. Glickman, C. D, Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2013). *The basic guide to supervision and instructional leadership*. Pearson Education Inc.
50. Glickman, C. D, Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2017). *SuperVision and instructional leadership: A developmental approach*. Pearson Education Inc.
51. Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (1998). *Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach*. Allyn and Bacon.
52. Gwaradzimba, E., & Shumba, A. (2010). The nature, extent and impact of the brain drain in Zimbabwe and South Africa. *Acta Academica*, 24(1), 209-241.
53. Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985) Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals. *The Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 217-247.
54. Harris, B. M. (1989). Paradigms and parameters of supervision in education. In G. R. Firth & E. F. Pajak

- (Eds.) *Handbook of research on school supervision* (pp.1-34). Simon and Schuster MacMillan.
55. Herman, J.J. & Herman, J.L. (1998). *Effective Decision Making. Developing ownership for improved school culture*. Technomic Publishing Company.
 56. Hoy, W. K., & Forsyth, P. D. (1986). *Effective supervision: Theory into practice*. Random House.
 57. Hieberler, R., Kelly, T., & Kettelman, C. (2012). *Best practices: building your business with customer-focused solutions*. Simon & Schuster Publishing
 58. Iroegbu, E. E., & Etudor-Eyo, E. (2016). Principals' instructional supervision and teachers' effectiveness. *British Journal of Education, 4*(7), 99-109.
 59. Kalule, L., & Bouchamma, Y. (2014). Teacher supervision practices and characteristics of in-school supervisors in Uganda. *Educational assessment, evaluation and accountability, 26*, 51-72.
 60. Kieleko, M. D., Kanori, E., & Mugambi, M. M. (2017). Secondary School Principals' Work Load and Instructional Supervision Practices in Kenya: A Case of Lower Yatta SubCounty, Kitui County. *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education, 4*(2), 68-80.
 61. Kindall, H. D., Crowe, T., & Elsass, A. (2018). *The principal's influence on the novice teacher's professional development in literacy instruction. Professional Development in Education, 44*(2), 307-310.
 62. Lovell, J. T., & Wiles, K. (1983). *Supervision for Better Schools*. Prentice Hall.
 63. Malunda, P., Onen, D., Musaaazi, J., & Oonyu, J. (2016). Instructional supervision and the pedagogical practices of secondary school teachers in Uganda.
 64. Manley, S. (2022). Grade K-5 Teachers' Perceptions of Professional Development that Supports Mathematics Instruction [Doctoral dissertation]. Walden University.
 65. Marzano, R. J., Frontier, T., & Livingston, T. (2011). *Effective Supervision. Supporting the art and science of teaching*. ASCD.
 66. Mensah, R. E. A., Esia-Donkoh, K., & Quansah, D. K. (2020). Instructional supervision as perceived by teachers in public basic schools in Pokuase education circuit in the Ga-north municipality, Ghana. *European Journal of Education Studies, 7*(6), 196-219.
 67. Moswela, B. (2010). Instructional supervision in Botswana secondary schools: An investigation. *Educational management administration & leadership, 38*(1), 71-87.
 68. Murphy, C. A. & Jensen, T. D. (2016). Faculty Teaching Development: Using the Multidimensional Matrix of Teaching Development to Guide Teaching Improvement Activities. *The Journal of Effective Teaching, 16* (2), 61-75.
 69. Musa, J. (2014). Role of school leadership in motivating teachers: A case of Ilala Municipality, Dar Es Salaam [Doctoral dissertation]. The Open University of Tanzania.
 70. Ngole, D. M., & Mkulu, D. G. (2021). The Role of School Heads' Supervision in Improving Quality of Teaching and Learning: A case of Public Secondary school in Ilemela District Mwanza Tanzania. *International Journal of English Literature and Social Sciences, 6*(1), 59-73.
 71. Nicholson, S., & Reifel, S. (2011). Sink or swim: Child care teachers' perceptions of entry training experiences. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 32*(1), 5-25
 72. Oliva, P. F., & Pawals, G. (2004). *Supervision for today's schools*. John Wiley.
 73. Osakwe, R. N. (2016). Principals' quality assurance techniques for enhancing secondary school quality education in the 21st century. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies, 7*(2), 176-180.
 74. Ovando, M. N., & Huckestein, M. L. S. (2003, April 21-25). Perceptions of the Role of the Central Office Supervisor in Exemplary Texas School Districts [Paper Presentation]. At the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
 75. Paine, D.M. (2002) *Instructional Leadership regarding Curriculum 2005*. University of the Free State Press
 76. Pajak, E. (1989). *Identification of supervisory proficiencies project*. ASCD.
 77. Panigrahi, M. (2013). Implementation of Instructional Supervision in Secondary School: Approaches, Prospects and Problems. *Science, Technology and Arts Research Journal, 1*(3), 59-67. doi:10.4314/star.v1i3.98799
 78. Pfeffer, J., & Sutton, R. (2006). Evidence-based management. *Harvard Business Review, 84*(1), 62-74.
 79. Portin, B. S., Knapp, M. S., Dareff, S., Feldman, S., Russell, F. A., Samuelson, C., & Yeh, T. L. (2009). *Leadership for learning improvement in urban schools*. Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy at University of Washington.
 80. Robbins, P., & Alvy, H. B. (1995). *The principal's companion. Strategies and hints to make the job easier*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
 81. Rotich, D. K. (2014). *Factors influencing headteachers' instructional supervision practices in public primary Schools in Longisa Division, Bomet District* (Doctoral dissertation).
 82. Rue, L. W. (2000). *Supervision: Key link to productivity*. Irwin/McGraw-Hill
 83. Saani, A. J. (2013). Influence of compensation and supervision on private basic school teachers work performance in Ashaiman Municipality. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 4*(17).
 84. Saltzman, A. (2016). Revising the Role of Principal Supervisor. *Phi Delta Kappan, 98*(2), 52-57
 85. Schön, D.A. (1993). *The reflective turn: Case studies in and on educational practice*. Teachers College Press.
 86. Sergiovanni, T. J. (2007). SCHOOLS ARE CULTURALLY TIGHT BUT STRUCTURALLY LOOSE. *Rethinking Leadership: A Collection of Articles, 72*.
 87. Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. (2002). *Supervision: A redefinition* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.
 88. Sharma, S., Yusoff, M., Kannan, S., & Baba, S. B. (2011). Concerns of teachers and principals on instructional supervision in three Asian countries. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity, 1*(3), 214.

89. Shulman, V., Sullivan, S., & Glanz, J. (2008). The New York City school reform: Consequences for supervision of instruction. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 11(4), 407-425.
90. Smith, J. A., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretative analysis: Theory, method, and research*. Sage.
91. Southworth, G. (2002) Instructional Leadership in Schools: reflections and empirical evidence. *School Leadership and Management*, 22(1),73 -91.
92. Stark, D., McGhee, M. W., & Jimerson, J. B. (2017). Reclaiming instructional supervision: Using solution-focused strategies to promote teacher development. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*. 12(3), 215–238.
93. Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Success*.
94. Stone, E. (1984). *Supervision in teacher education: A counselling and pedagogical approach*. Routledge.
95. Sulemana, M. A. (2019). *The Role of Educational Supervision in Ensuring Quality Basic Education Delivery in the Zabzugu District* [Unpublished master's thesis]. University for Development Studies.
96. Sullivan, S., & Glanz, J. (2013). *Supervision that improves teaching and learning: Strategies and techniques*. SAGE.
97. Taylor, S. J., Bogdan, R., & DeVault, M. L. (2015). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*. John Wiley & Sons.
98. Taylor, F.W. (1919). *The principles of scientific management*. Harper and Brothers Publishers.
99. Taylor, F. W. (1998). *The principles of scientific management*. Dover Publications.
100. Tittle, M. E. (2018). *Discovering School Administrators' Learning Management Best Practices Development* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Walden University.
101. Too, C., Kimutai, C. K., & Kosgei, Z. (2012). The impact of head teachers' supervision of teachers on students' academic performance. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 3(3), 299-306.
102. Tracy, S. J., & MacNaughton, R. H. (1993). Chapter 1: An Overview of The Established Models Of Assisting And Assessing Education Personnel, in *Assisting And Assessing Education Personel, The Impact Of Clinical Supervision*, Sandra J. Tracy And Robert H. MacNaughton.
103. Tshabalala, T. (2013). Teachers' perceptions towards classroom instructional supervision: A case study of Nkayi District in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education*, 4(1), 25-32.
104. Turğut, M., & Yılmaz, S. (2012). Relationships among preservice primary mathematics teachers' gender, academic success and spatial ability. *International Journal of Instruction*, 5(2).
105. Tyagi, R. S. (2010). School-based instructional supervision and the effective professional development of teachers. *Compare*, 40(1), 111-125.
106. Violet, M. N. (2015). *Factors influencing principals' instructional supervision practices in public secondary schools in Makadara sub- county, Nairobi County, Kenya* [Unpublished master's thesis] University of Nairobi
107. Wanzare, Z. (2012). Instructional supervision in public secondary schools in Kenya. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 40(2), 188-216.
108. Wiczorek, D., Brandon, C., & Theoharis, G. (2018). Principals' Instructional Feedback Practices During Race to the Top. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, DOI: 10.1080/15700763.2017.1398336.
109. Wilcox, K. C., & Angelis, J. I. (2012). From “muddle school” to middle school: Building capacity to collaborate for higher-performing middle schools: High-performing middle level schools build capacity to support collaboration and student success. *Middle School Journal*, 43(4), 40-48.
110. Wolaita Zone, Southern Ethiopia. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(31), 1-11.
111. World Bank. (2019). Successful teachers, successful students: Recruiting and supporting society's most crucial profession. World Bank Group. <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/235831548858735497/Successful-Teachers-Successful-Students-Recruiting-and-Supporting-Society-s-Most-Crucial-Profession.pdf>
112. Zadnik, D. (1992). Instructional Supervision in Special Education: Integrating Teacher Effectiveness Research into Model Supervisory Practices. CASE Information Dissemination Packet.
113. Zagre, K. (2016). *Perception of teachers about training in basic schools; a case study of Offinso North district* [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Cape Coast
114. Zengele, A. G., & Alemayehu, B. (2016). The Status of Secondary School Science Laboratory Activities for Quality Education in Case of
115. Zepeda, S. J. (2007). Cognitive dissonance, supervision, and administrative team conflict. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 20(3), 224–232.