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The background of the title page features a large, faint watermark of the University of Cape Coast crest. The crest is a shield divided into three horizontal sections. The top section is red and contains a yellow eagle with its wings spread. The middle section is white and contains a yellow circle with a red stylized figure inside. The bottom section is blue and contains a white wavy line. A red ribbon banner wraps around the bottom of the shield, containing the Latin motto 'VERITAS LIBERABIT VOS' in white capital letters.

INFLUENCE OF TEACHERS' INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE AND
SUPERVISION ON STUDENTS' APPROACHES TO LEARNING

BY
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Thesis submitted to the Department of Business and Social Science Education
of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education, College of
Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Economics
Education

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Signature: Date:

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Supervisor's Declaration

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

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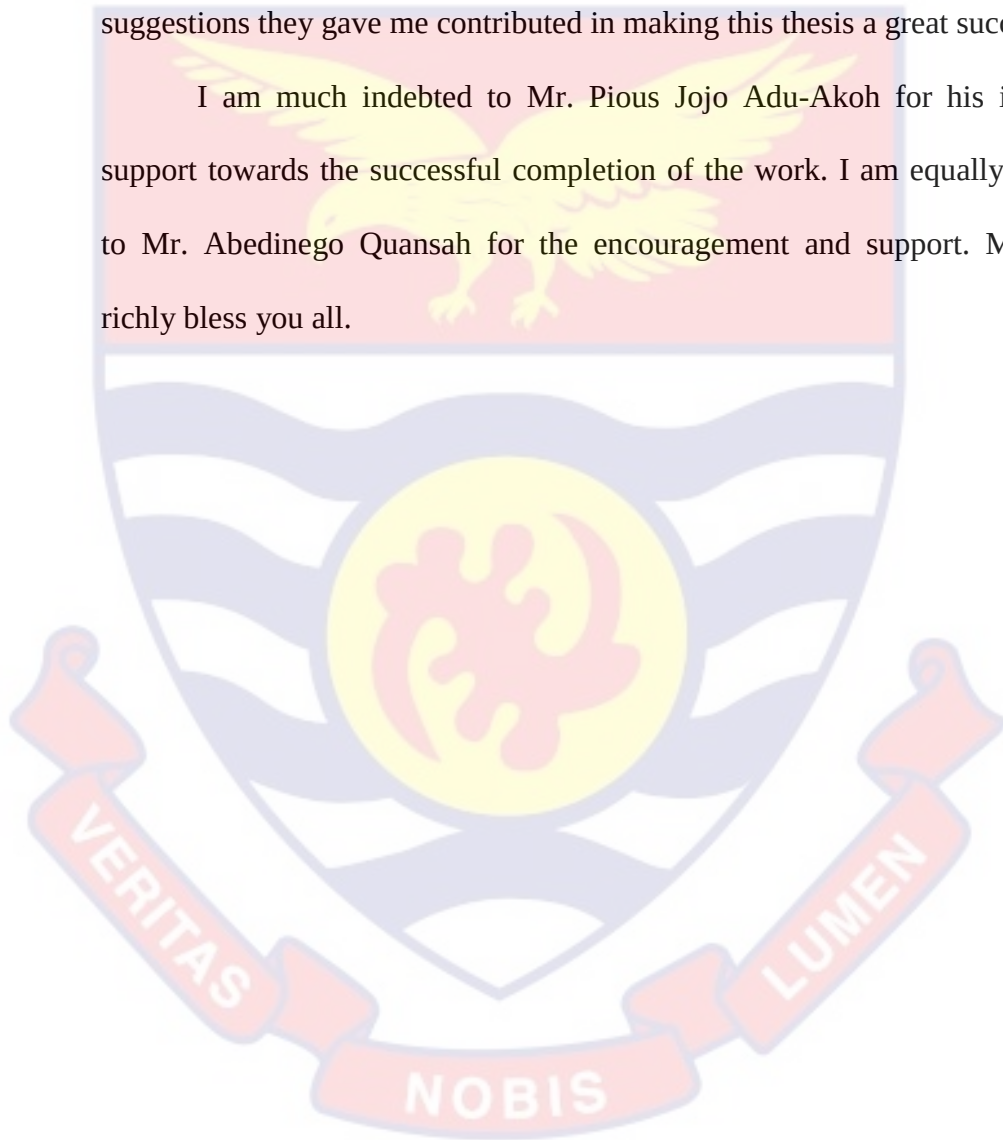
ABSTRACT

Today, an integrated use of teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practice has emerged. But there is no clarity on which of these three instructional practice Economics teachers use for their instructions. Instructional supervision is infrequent and below standard practice. Based on this, the study examines the influence of teacher instructional practice and supervision on students' approaches to learning. Using a mixed-methods approach, data from 346 students and 33 teachers selected through proportionate sampling and criterion sampling respectively revealed that teachers often combined various instructional practices rather than exclusively using teacher-centered or student-centered instructional practices. Strategic Deep and Surface learning were the two learning approaches that students exhibited the most. The infrequent nature of instructional supervision and the problems it faces were both discovered. Digitalization of supervision, supervisor incentive, and institutionalizing external supervision were all suggested. This study's findings recommend corporate professional development workshops and trainings be organized for both teachers and students on integrated instructional practice and approaches to learning respectively.

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DEDICATION

To Very Rev. Kweku Atta Dickson and Mr. Patrick Tieku Baah



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Instructional practice of teachers is important to student learning (Quin, 2017). Researchers have revealed that teachers do not use the teaching activities contained in the Senior High School syllabus (Owusu, 2018; Quainoo, 2020; Bradly, 2013). It is these teaching activities that describe the instructional practice of teachers. This situation of teachers not using the teaching activities in the syllabus is negatively affecting student learning and performance (Owusu & Cobbold, 2020). The unfortunate part of this situation is that it appears there is no instructional supervision of Senior High School teachers by Ghana Education Service to draw attention to the problem and find ways of addressing this problem. Teachers do not get any feedback and opportunity for remediation of their instructional practice (Jaca, 2013; Amuda, Ali, & Durkwa, 2016). This study provides economics teachers with how to ensure that their instructional practice develops in students the right attitude and approaches to learning Economics.

Background to the Study

The history of instructional practice is a vast and complex topic that spans centuries and encompasses various educational philosophies, methods, and approaches. While it is impossible to cover every detail, an overview of the evolution of instructional practice throughout history could be highlighted. The history of instructional practice can be traced back to ancient times when humans first began sharing knowledge and skills with one another. In Ancient and Classical Periods (2000 BCE - 400 CE), education in the civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Greece primarily relied on oral transmission of

knowledge. Teachers would pass down information through storytelling, lectures, and memorization. Craftsmen and artisans trained apprentices through hands-on experience and direct mentorship. This method was prevalent in trades such as blacksmithing, pottery, and carpentry. Instruction was often conducted through oral tradition and apprenticeships, where knowledge and skills were passed down from master to student.

In the Medieval and Renaissance Periods (400 - 1800), monasteries played a vital role in preserving knowledge during the Middle Ages. Monks taught subjects like theology, philosophy, and Latin through a combination of lectures, readings, and written exercises. During the Renaissance, the scholastic approach emphasized logical analysis and debate. Teachers, known as scholastics, focused on texts and commentaries, encouraging critical thinking and dialectical reasoning.

The modern era that saw the rise of industrialization in the 18th and 19th centuries led to the need for a more standardized educational system. Public schools were established, and instruction shifted towards a structured curriculum, textbooks, and teacher-led classrooms. In the early 20th century, behaviourism became a dominant theory of learning. Instruction focused on conditioning responses through repetition, reinforcement, and rewards. During this era of teaching and learning, the instructional practice of teachers was mainly teacher-centred and the emphasis in educational discourse was the role of the teacher.

Educational reformers like John Dewey advocated for student-centred approaches, emphasizing hands-on learning, problem-solving, and experiential education. The mid-20th century saw a shift towards cognitive theories of

learning, emphasizing mental processes, memory, and information processing. Instructional practice incorporated strategies to promote active thinking, comprehension, and problem-solving skills. Constructivist approaches, popularized by theorists like Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, emphasized the importance of learners actively constructing knowledge through interaction with their environment and social collaboration.

With the advent of computers and digital technologies, instructional practice has increasingly incorporated multimedia, simulations, online resources, and adaptive learning systems to enhance instruction and personalize learning experiences. Integrated instructional practice has gained popularity in usage in many educational institutions. Teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices have been used together in many classrooms. Contemporary trends of instructional practices comes in the form of:

1. Blended Learning: Combining online and face-to-face instruction, blended learning models have gained popularity, allowing for flexibility and personalized learning paths (Khalil, Abdel Meguid & Elkhider, 2018; Hrastinski, 2019).
2. Flipped Classroom: In a flipped classroom, students learn content at home through pre-recorded videos or online materials, while class time is devoted to activities, discussions, and application of knowledge (Ozdamli, & Asiksoy, 2016).
3. Personalized Learning: Tailoring instruction to individual students' needs and interests has become a focal point, leveraging technology

and data analytics to provide customized learning experiences (Tawafak, et al., 2019).

4. Project-Based Learning: Project-based learning emphasizes real-world applications and collaborative projects, promoting critical thinking, problem-solving, and teamwork skills (Kokotsaki, Menzies, & Wiggins, 2016).

5. Competency-Based Education: Competency-based approaches focus on students mastering specific skills and knowledge rather than following a traditional grade-based system, allowing for personalized progression at one's own pace (Chappell, Gonczi & Hager, 2020). It is important to note that these trends and approaches coexist and evolve over time, and various instructional practices are employed simultaneously in different educational contexts. The history of instructional practice is a dynamic and ongoing process as educators continue to explore new methods and strategies to enhance teaching and learning. Over the centuries, instructional methods have evolved significantly, reflecting advancements in technology, educational philosophy, and our understanding of how people learn.

According to Koschmann, and the University of Illinois, Chicago (2011), producing accurate descriptions of instructional practice may sound simple, but there are a number of complicating issues. The instructional practice of teachers could be the summary of the deliberate investment being made for human capital development as young students are duly educated in the subject of Economics. Several proponents in the field of education has over the years defined instructional practice in the context of their study. Thus,

Ansell, Morales, Kuras, Requa, and Mulvaney (2021) refers to instructional practice as how information is delivered, received, and experienced by students. Francisco and Celon (2020) defined instructional practice as the techniques that teachers use to help students become independent and strategic learners. To Saleh and Jing (2020), instructional practice generally refers to the action taken by the teachers in developing the lesson in the classroom. It is the teachers' characteristics and behaviours that lead their classes and consistently used over time. Due to its obscuring meaning, instructional practice has been described and explained by numerous researchers as a teaching approach, strategy, method or teaching style.

According to Ansell, et al. (2021), the multitude of instructional practices typically fall under major categories such as “teacher centred” and “student centred.” The work of the teacher is instructional and it is aimed at helping students to become more independent and tactical learners. What the teachers does instructionally (instructional practice) stimulate students and helps them to concentrate and merge information for understanding and remembering (Williams, Hakuta & Haertel, 2013). This instructional practice is about ongoing interaction between teachers and their students through the elements of teaching and learning (Blazar & Kraft, 2017). For the purpose of this study, teacher instructional practice would be described as the teacher centred or student centred practice of planning, instructing and assessment of students as earlier stated by Francisco and Celon (2020). It must be noted that instructional practice differentiates teachers with a higher impact from those with a lower impact on student achievement (CfBT Education Trust, 2013). What becomes of the student in terms of his/her approaches to learning and

his/her overall learning process has a lot to do with the instructional practice of teachers.

Thus, the approach to learning determines how students gather new information and retain their existing knowledge (Khamkhien, 2010). Student approaches to learning can also be defined as how they understand the information or experience obtained. Different individuals use different approaches to interpret and analyse information. In the opinion of Entwistle (2000), students' approach to learning deals with how they think, what they believe to be learning, and how they go about their everyday academic tasks. Researchers like Martin and Säljö (1976), Biggs (1987), Entwistle (1996), and Entwistle, et al. (2006) were among the first to describe students' learning approaches. These learning approaches were the reproductive and transformative strategies recommended for students in higher education (Biggs, 1994; 1987), serialists and holists (Säljö 1981) which are cognitive styles of learning (Biggs 1994). Deep, surface and strategic learning were developed by Martin and Säljö, (1976), and Biggs (1994) for Senior High School students. It is these three approaches to learning that this current study adopted as the approaches to learning Economics for Senior High School students.

Previous studies (Kek, Darmawan & Chen, 2007; Rodriguez, 2009; Rollnick, Davidowitz, Keane, Bapoo, and Magadla, 2008; Hasnor, Ahmad and Nordin, 2013) have revealed that these three approaches to learning accurately reveal student learning. Research on student approaches to learning has focused on understanding what it is for a student to regulate his or her learning. This focus was derived directly from evidence that such regulation

yields benefit in terms of improved student performance and indirectly from the assumption that lifelong learning relies crucially on self-regulation. Students who are able to regulate their learning effectively are more likely to achieve specific learning goals. Studies investigating students' approaches to learning have also found strong associations with teacher instructional practice (OECD, 2003).

Similarly, instructional supervision in schools have been proved to have an association with teachers' instructional practice but it is faced with challenges (Mukoro & Ogheneovo, 2013; Wanzare, 2012; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan 2007, etc.). Supervision in the context of education has proceeded through a number of developmental periods during the past 300 years but unfortunately it seems there has not been an exhaustive treatment on the historical development of supervision (Burnham, 1976). It appears that there is a renewed and revitalized interest in the theory and practice of instructional supervision, hence new attempts are being made to clarify the confusion associated with supervision and the role of the supervisor. The term, supervision, has had many different meanings (Burnham, 1976). For example, in many developed countries, such as United Kingdom (UK), United States, and other European countries and some African countries such as Lesotho, Senegal, Tanzania and Nigeria the terms 'inspector' and 'inspection' are still being used (Grauwe, 2007; Lee, Dig & Song, 2008). In these countries much more attention has been given to inspectional supervision which is carried out by external inspectors.

The role of the supervisor has become increasingly confused. The concepts of instructional supervision is a type of school-based (in-school)

supervision carried out by the school staff (principals, department heads, senior teachers, and assigned supervisors) aimed at providing guidance, support, and continuous assessment to teachers for their professional development and improvement in the teaching-learning process, whereas inspection is a top-down approach which is aimed at controlling and evaluating the improvement of schools based on stated standards set by external agents outside the school system (Arong & Ogbadu, 2010; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Tyagi, 2010; Wilcox & Gray, 1996). Instructional supervision is mainly concerned with improving schools by helping teachers to reflect on their instructional practice, to learn more about what they do and why, and to develop professionally (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

Thus, the elements of instructional supervision, instructional practice and student's learning in the African context is very key in the educational system (Owusu & Cobbold, 2020). According to Owusu and Cobbold (2020), any study that seeks to discover students learning strategy is critical, not only to students learning success but also to teachers' teaching effectiveness. The success of teaching and learning depends on the dominant approach students use to cope with the enormous learning demands (Owusu, 2018). Approaches to learning are critical to academic success, given the independent nature of postsecondary education, which is the rationale behind Senior High School Economics education in Ghana (Ministry of Education, 2003). As these students progress into higher education, emphasis is placed on independent student learning, which depends on their attitudes and approaches to learning.

For a developing country like Ghana, the main concern is the ability to sustain the economic growth rate. The structure of the Ghanaian economy

remains highly informal, with low-value service activities. The low quality of human resources is a reflection of the skills and knowledge acquired. Teachers are the key facilitators of the acquisition of these knowledge and skills in the classroom. The way teaching is done at the Senior High School is a formal process of human capital development. If it is effective, it will automatically improve the human capital of the economy but if it is not effective, the economy pays dearly for it. Senior High Schools (SHS) provide a comprehensive academic education for students with the principal objective of preparing them for further education and training in tertiary institutions. It a foundational investment in the human capital development of Ghanaians.

Economics education is practically the main discipline at the SHS level that ensures citizens are equipped to appreciate the forces that significantly influence the quality of their lives and the economy. The subject was designed with the rationale of providing an effective framework for individuals, firms and governments to identify their basic economic problems, and make necessary decisions and policies for raising the living standards of people and societies (Ministry of Education (2013). A team of experts through several levels of consultation designed the syllabus for teaching Economics. The syllabus provides teaching activities which describes the instructional practice needed to ensure maximum students participation and optimum students learning (Curt et al., 2014; CRDD, 2010). At the end of the 3-year programme, student are required to sit for a paper and pen type of exams. Most teachers only prepare students for this final WASSCE examination without a recourse to instructional practice that will ensure quality human capital.

The fact is that achievement in Economics has dropped (Adu, Ojelabi, & Hammed, 2009; Ugan, 2017). The West African Examinations Council (WAEC) Chief Examiners noted that most Economics candidates could not attain high marks in their examinations (WAEC, 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2018). These Chief examiners showed that some examinees were not able to compute values from graphs in the 2012 and 2013 WASSCE exams. In 2014 and 2015, there was a great deficiency in answering statistical application questions. The Chief Examiners noted that only few of the candidates could interpret demand function answers and that most candidates who attempted the question on balance of trade were unable to calculate it; hence they could not obtain high marks (Ajayi, & Muraina, 2011; Amuda, Ali, & Durkwa, 2016). The Chief Examiners of WAEC suggested that instructional practice must be able stimulate students to develop quantitative skills in Economics (WAEC, 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2018).

Students' low performance in Economics was also attributed to the pattern of constant testing with no feedback, and or feedback without remediation by classroom teachers during the evaluation process. For many schools, students are sometimes not given test feedback by their teachers after final examinations have been written (Ajogdeje & Alonge, 2012; Boyle, 2019). Lack of knowledge of test results can increase nervousness in a student, as the student could not assess his or her capacity and know-how on the test (Boyle, 2019; Silva, 2020; Zhao, 2013). All these hinges on the instructional practice of the Economics teacher as either teacher centred, student centred or an integration of both in planning, instructing and assessment of students.

Statement of the Problem

Literature has broadly categorized teacher instructional practice into three: teacher-centred, student-centred and integrated instructional practice (Ansell, et al. 2021). The effectiveness, advantages and disadvantages of each of them is already known in literature. Yet, one cannot confidently state which particular instructional practice Economics teachers in SHSs in Ghana are using. The Economics syllabus prescribed the use of student-centred instructional practice, yet there is evidence that teachers do not go by it (Owusu, 2018; Arthur, 1999; Quainoo, 2020; Bradly, 2013). Some studies (Ogah, 2018; Owusu, 2018; Arthur, 1999; Quainoo, 2020; Bradly, 2013) have identified the use of teacher-centred instructional practice by Economics teachers. Quansah and Amoako (2019) found that Economics teachers employ teacher-centred strategies which negatively affect student learning. Others (Owusu & Cobbold, 2020) have also found the use of different instructional practices by Economics teachers. There is confusing data on which of these categories of instructional practice is being used by Economics teachers.

Several studies have established the relationship of these categories of instructional practice with students' approaches to learning (Dancy & Henderson 2017; Dupin-Bryant, 2004; Emaliana, 2017). However, it is difficult to tell how instructional practice affects student learning when the exact category being used is not known. West Africa Examination Council (WAEC) Examiners identified instructional practice as the cause of poor student performance (WAEC, 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2018) but were unable to indicate the exact category responsible for that finding. Some studies (Vegas & Petrow, 2008; Rashid, 2018; Khamkhien, 2010; OECD, 2005) have

also identified instructional practice as being responsible for students' approaches to learning. Yet none of their findings were able to indicate the exact category of instructional practice responsible for students' learning approaches and poor academic performance. The evidence that Economics teachers' instructional practice is not improving students learning and academic performance is obvious (Ogah, 2018; Owusu, 2018; Quainoo, 2019; Owusu & Cobbold, 2020) and the attention of stakeholders such as economics educators, scholars, psychologists, school administrators and parents from all WAEC participating countries have been drawn (Ajayi, & Muraina, 2011; Amuda, Ali, & Durkwa, 2016).

What seems to be complicating the influence of teachers instructional practices on student learning is the inadequate of instructional supervision by supervising bodies in Senior High Schools. Effective instructional supervision plays a pivotal role in ensuring quality education (Simpson, Howard, Peligah & Cann, 2016). According to Mankoe (2006), supervision of teaching in schools is supposed to be a daily function of the Head teachers and assistants.

However, due to the increased complexity of the role of the Head teachers of Senior High Schools, the day-to-day instruction oversight is now the burden of Heads of Departments. As a result, supervision has been reduced to discussing topics to teach and other issues about teaching timetables (Fitzgerald, Gunter & Eaton 2006). Heads of Departments have not been effective due to certain mitigating factors (Sekyere, 2006), some of which are lack of professional development to increase their competence in pedagogy and subject matter (Jaca, 2013), and lack of commitment to supervision by many school heads (Ayeni & Akinda, 2008; Zobaida, 2008). Since there is no

supervision of how teachers go about their instruction in the classrooms (Simpson, Howard, Peligah & Cann, 2016), teachers do not get any feedback or opportunities for remediation. They end up teaching the same way for years and getting the same poor student academic performance as seen in WASSCE over the years (WAEC, 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; 2017; 2018).

Teachers have no concrete evidence of the particular learning approaches used by their students (Hill & Chin, 2018). Studies done among Senior High School Economics students in Ghana (Owusu, 2018, Owusu & Cobbold, 2020) have focused on factors influencing students' learning strategy use and not how they learn (whether deep, surface or strategic). These studies failed to reveal the exact learning approaches employed by Economics students. After their work, Owusu and Cobbold (2020) acknowledged that the exact learning approach of students, when known, is critical not only to their learning success but also to the instructional effectiveness of teachers. The work they did concentrated on learning strategies where the specific techniques such as memorizing, summarizing and questioning used by students to cope with learning tasks were considered. Even though learning strategies provided some level of insight for this study, it was still limited in scope because the extent of use of these strategies was dependent on their approaches to learning as either deep, surface or strategic. This study sought to find out how Economics students learn (i.e. their approaches to learning). The studies of Owusu (2018), Owusu and Cobbold (2020) were conducted in the Central Region with some selected schools from the Cape Coast metropolis. Their focus on learning strategies did not provide concrete data and understanding of how Economics students in the Cape Coast metropolis learn.

The metropolis is regarded as the hub of senior high school education in Ghana as it hosts the country's finest and oldest secondary schools. The metropolis prides itself on having the best teachers for all subjects including Economics due to its proximity to the University of Cape Coast and the University of Education, Winneba. However, several studies (Ogah, 2018; Quainoo, 2019; Kwarteng, 2018; Owusu, 2018; Owusu & Cobbold, 2020; Adade, 2022) done on teaching and learning Economics especially the instructional practice of Economics teachers revealed worrying and uncertain situations in the Cape Coast metropolis. Ogah, (2018) and Quainoo (2019) found teacher-centred instructional practice being used by teachers, and Owusu (2018) found some student-centred teaching methods in use.

According to Tamakloe (2005), teachers must use an integration of instructional practices to ensure effective teaching. However, Biney (2018) in his study of Economics teachers in the Cape Coast metropolis reported that most teachers disagreed with the use of different teaching methods for teaching. Adade (2022) also found that in some senior high schools (SHSs) in Cape Coast Metropolis, Economics teachers still use strict traditional (teacher-centred) instructional practice. He explained this traditional instructional practice as a "chalkboard and talk" method without the support of student-centred instructional practice. The result of his study showed that Economics students who were engaged through strict traditional instructional practice were less motivated to learn.

Adjei and Amofa (2014) also worked with teachers in some selected schools within Cape Coast Metropolis to find out how convenient Economics teachers were with using integrated of instructional methods and resources and

only twenty per cent (20.0%) indicated they were convenient. This points to the need to investigate why a small percentage find integrated instructional methods and resources convenient. Instructional supervision could have unravelled and helped in remedying this situation but many studies have reported on its poor state in the metropolis.

Economics is an elective subject in the social sciences department for students studying General Arts, Business and Home Economics. Both teachers and students of Economics interact with teachers of other subject areas such as Geography, Government, Accounting, History in the humanities and social sciences disciplines. Ogah (2018) found that most History teachers who are colleagues of Economics teachers in the Social Sciences department did not follow the teaching framework contained in the syllabus. Kwarteng (2018) also investigated Accounting teachers and students in the same Social Sciences department of some selected schools in the Cape Coast metropolis and Western Region and reported how poor teaching and learning were being done due to poor curriculum implementation. Others; Brako (2022); Owusu-addo, Yeboah Addei Amoah (2023) have also indicated worrying data in other Social Science programmes such as Geography and Government. Certainly, there is a need to look into what is happening with Economics teachers' instructional practice and the way their students are learning as a result of what is happening around them in the same context.

These previous studies (Adjei & Amofa 2014; Ogah, 2018; Owusu, 2018; Quainoo, 2019; Quansah & Amoako, 2018; Mtitu, 2014; Owusu & Cobbold, 2020; Adade, 2022) and many others failed to speak to the identified gaps in literature. This study was prompted by these identified gaps both in

literature and practice, thus the study investigates the influence of the instructional practice of Senior High School Economics teachers on students' learning approaches. Despite, the importance of teacher instructional practice and supervision for student learning outcomes, there is a lack of empirical evidence on how these factors influence students' learning approaches in economics. Moreover, there is a need to explore the contextual and cultural aspects of instructional supervision in different settings, such as Ghana. Therefore, this study aims to fill these literature gaps by investigating the effects of teacher instructional practice and supervision on students, learning approaches in economics in Ghanaian senior high schools.

Purpose of the Study

This study investigates the influence of teacher instructional practice and supervision on students' approaches to learning Economics in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Research Objectives

Specifically, the study sought to:

1. ascertain the instructional practices Economics teachers employ.
2. examine the approaches students employ in learning Economics.
3. ascertain the prevalence of instructional supervision of Economics teachers.
4. determine problems faced with supervising instructional practice among Economics teachers.
5. ascertain how supervision of instructional practice of Economics teachers can be improved.

6. test whether instructional practice influences students' approaches to learning Economics.
7. test whether student-centred instructional practice dominantly influence students' use of strategic-deep learning approach.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What instructional practices are employed by Economics teachers?
2. What learning approaches do students employ in learning Economics?
3. How prevalent is instructional supervision among Economics teachers?
4. What are the problems faced in the instructional supervision of Economics teachers?
5. What can be done to improve how the instructional practice of Economics teachers is supervised?

Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses guided the study

1. H_1 : Teacher-centred and student-centred Instructional Practices do significantly influence student learning approaches.
 H_0 : Teacher-centred and student-centred Instructional Practices do not significantly influence student learning approaches.
2. H_1 : Student-centred instructional practice significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.
 H_0 : Student-centred Instructional Practice does not significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would be useful to teachers' particularly Senior High School Economics teachers on the instructional practices that can help them improve student learning of Economics. Knowledge on instructional practice will no longer be assumed but this will provide a body of knowledge on the types of instructional practice that are available to Senior High School Economics teachers. The study outcomes, when disseminated, will suggest to educational stakeholders the new evidence for Economics education in Ghana concerning the effect of instructional practice on Senior High School Economics students. It provides Economics teachers with the information that will help them become more abreast of how students learn, a key determinant of successful teaching and learning. The findings of this study would serve as a reference point or resource for any researcher who would like to conduct investigations into the prevailing trends in Economics education in Ghana.

Theoretically, this contributes to the instructional practice of teachers, particularly those teaching Senior High School Economics. The gap in literature where little or no information is available on how students cope with the instructional practice of teachers and their supervision will be filled. This study is likely to provide a basis for advocating for the introduction of quality assurance and control units in Senior High Schools to ensure the assessment/supervision of the instructional practice of teachers, particularly those teaching Economics.

Delimitation

The concept of instructional practice is multifaceted, but this current study was limited in scope to either teacher-centred, student-centred or an

integration of both as seen in all activities performed by teachers (planning, instruction and assessment activities) through the scholarly lenses of Danielson (2012). Instructional supervision was solely limited to its incidence among Economics teachers and how to improve the activities of instructional supervision. It must be noted that the effectiveness of instructional supervision and teacher's instructional practice was not the intent of this study. However, the study was delimited to determining the learning approaches that Economics students adopt. In terms of participants for the study, it was delimited to only public Senior High Schools (10 in number) in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The focus was on all Economics teachers who were currently teaching the final-year Economics students for the 2022/2023 academic year.

Limitations

The use of questionnaires can limit participants who have further information to give (Corbetta, 2003). However, the use of mixed-methods design was an attempt to mitigate and reduce that challenge because of the interviews and observations that were done. The use of the interviews and observation data was liable to research participant biases, which was another limitation to the study. Data triangulation from teachers and students helped to reduce the effect of research participants' biases in the collected information, thereby improving the validity and reliability of findings (Creswell, 2011).

Definition of Terms

The key terms occurring in the study are hereby defined as they were operationally used in the study:

Approach to learning: determines how students gather new information and retain their existing knowledge

Deep approach: describes active involvement stemming from interest in the content which leads to an elaboration of the learning material in seeking personal understanding

Instructional practice: generally, refers to the action taken by the teachers in developing the lesson in the classroom.

Instructional supervision: is a type of school-based supervision carried out by the school staff such as head teachers, department heads, senior teachers, and assigned supervisors aimed at providing guidance, support, and continuous assessment to teachers for their professional development and improvement in the teaching-learning process, based on trust and collegial culture

Strategic approach: to learning refers to how students organize their studying or study according to the assessment of the course

Surface approach: focuses on what appears to be the most important items and memorize them.

Organisation of the Study

The study was organised into five chapters. Chapter One deals with the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitation of the study, the delimitation of the study and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two comprises a review of related literature and it covers a theoretical review, a conceptual review, an empirical review as well and conceptual framework. Chapter Three focuses on the research method, with emphasis on the research design and procedures that were adopted for the study. This chapter describes the population of the study, the sample and sampling procedures, the instruments for data collection, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Chapter Four presents the results and discussions of the results.

It also presented and discussed the findings of the study. Chapter Five focuses on the summary, conclusions, and recommendations from the study.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study examined the influence of instructional practice and supervision on student approaches to learning Senior High School (SHS) Economics in the Cape Coast Metropolis. It focused on the interactions between teacher instructional practice, instructional supervision and approaches to learning Economics. This chapter began with the context of the study, and moved on to review theories, conceptual issues and empirical studies related to the study. Conceptually, literature was reviewed on the concept of instructional practice, instructional supervision and approaches to learning. Empirical review was done for the purpose of comparing the objectives of this study with other related studies to either confirm or repudiate conclusions drawn by early researchers. The implications of the literature review for this study was also captured.

Senior High School Education in Ghana

This study was situated within the context of Senior High School education in Ghana and the teaching and learning of Economics. Secondary education is provided at senior high schools, technical/vocational institutes and through apprenticeship schemes. The curriculum at this level is diversified to cater for the different aptitudes, abilities, interests and skills of students, provide some with the opportunity for further education and training and introduce others to a wide variety of relevant occupational skills. Senior High Schools provide a comprehensive academic education for students with the principal objective of preparing them for further education and training in tertiary institutions. There is a main curriculum for senior high schools which

contains the specified syllabus, scheme of work and lessons to be taught for the various subjects involved in the curriculum.

Senior High School is the next stage of the Ghanaian educational system after the Junior High School. This educational stage is a transition period to tertiary education. West African Secondary School Certificate Examination is taken at the end of this transition to usher them into tertiary education. The grading system is very tough because less than 3% of the grades are A1's and 40% of the students fail any given exam. The most competitive grades are C4, C5, C6 and D7. The minimum grade for most tertiary educational institutions such as universities and training colleges is D7. Any student who fails to make these grades is deemed to have performed poorly and must retake the exams in the subjects they performed poorly in. Given this, WAEC organises private exams for such students.

There are eight or seven subjects that students are expected to study for examination purposes at the SHS level. Four of those subjects (English Language, Mathematics, Integrated Science and Social Studies) are Core subjects, and the remaining three or four are Elective Subjects based on the programme of study of the student.

Senior High School Economics Classroom

As a practical subject, Economics was designed with the rationale of providing an effective framework for individuals, firms and governments to identify their basic economic problems, and make necessary decisions and policies for raising the living standards of people and societies. The curriculum further equips students with the basic tools required for further studies in

Economics. According to the Ministry of Education (2013), the Senior High School economics syllabus was designed to help students to:

- a. acquire basic economic concepts, principles and tools for economic analysis.
- b. acquire greater understanding of the roles of consumers, businesses and governments in economic development.
- c. develop the ability to analyse the structure, and functions of commercial, agricultural, industrial and financial institutions.
- d. appreciate the economic development policies and strategies of the government and their inherent problems.
- e. understand the relationship between the Ghanaian economy and external economies in respect of trade and integration.

The subject covers the concepts and general principles of Economics at both the micro and macro levels. It provides adequate knowledge for economic deliberations and analysis of economic issues by students who will terminate their education at the SHS level. It also provides a sound foundation for those who wish to further their studies in Economics. Core Mathematics is a necessary pre-requisite for the study of Economics. For students who will undertake advanced studies, Elective Mathematics will be very useful. Also, subjects such as Geography, Agriculture and Social Studies enhance the study of Economics and they provide useful background and deeper insights (Ministry of Education, 2013).

The syllabus has been designed to cover three years of the Senior High School Programme. Each year's work is divided into several sections and several units for each section. The syllabus is such an integral part of SHS

Economics education and the role of the teacher is critical in helping students comprehend the modern world and make decisions that shape their future. Students will be confronted with economic issues that require decisions, the consequences of which will impact their lives and the lives of others. In the ordinary business of life, they will make decisions about what to buy, how much of their income they should spend, how much to save and what careers to pursue. This study recognizes the importance of the Economics syllabus in implementing the rationale of Senior High School education in Ghana.

Economics as an elective subject is part of the three or four subjects to be read by students studying General Arts, Business, Home Economics and sometimes Visual Arts. According to CRDD (2010) now NaCCA, students reading Economics are required to demonstrate competitive skills in Mathematics. It is rather unfortunate that the SHS system denies students the opportunity to demonstrate their mathematical expertise. This point is what Owusu (2018, p. 15) intended to make when he stated that “programme packages in the various SHSs only provide students with the opportunity to decide on the type of education they need for their career...”

The syllabus for teaching economics contains instructional practice to ensure maximum student participation and optimum student learning (Curt et al., 2014; CRDD, 2010). The instructional practice prescribed by the designers of the syllabus is exclusively student-centred instructional practice. Unfortunately, the Ghanaian education system is examination-oriented which puts teachers in a situation of making sure their teaching is memory-oriented. Therefore, one cannot confidently assert that the prescribed student-centred instructional practice in the syllabus is being used exclusively.

Researchers (Cannella & Reiff, 1994; Novak, 1998, Richardson, 1997, Owusu, 2018) agree that student-centred practice of teaching is the best for SHS students. The nature of Economics as a subject requires the use an effective instructional practice by teachers and appropriate learning approaches by students for a successful teaching and learning process. The SHS Economics Syllabus is silent on learning approaches for students. The appropriate learning approaches to be employed by SHS Economics students are not clear and the instructional practice of their teachers also lacks clarity. It is therefore imperative to critically review the literature on instructional practice, and learning approaches of students.

Theoretical Framework

This is located within the constructivist learning theories of Bruner's (1966) theory of learning, Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivist theory and Danielson's (2011) framework of teaching. The direction and focus of this study was provided by these theories.

Jerome Bruner's (1966) Constructivist Theory of Learning

Bruner's (1966) theory of learning defines learning as an active process in which students construct new ideas and concepts based upon their current or prior knowledge. This occurs by the student selecting and transforming the information, constructing hypotheses, and making the decision based on a cognitive structure. A cognitive structure shows the meaning and organisation of experiences that allows the individual to go beyond the information given. This requires both the teacher and the student to actively participate in the instructional process. This active participation and mutual dialog ensure that

learning is appropriate to the current level of understanding of students. In Bruner's (1966) theory, learning is structured into four major aspect:

- a. Learning predisposition: students have the ultimate responsibility for their own learning process. They must construct or reconstruct knowledge by themselves. This role must not be done for them by the teacher, even the teacher is required to facilitate the process.
- b. Instruction must be structured for easy understanding by student: student engages in a constructive mental activity of content processing. Even though student do not have enough to discover or invent an entire knowledge of the subject, both students and their teachers rely on already developed and defined large part of the content for the subject (Barriga & Rojas, 2010).
- c. Effective sequence in content delivery: the role of the teacher is not limited to creating optimal conditions for students' constructive mental activity but facilitating student active participation deliberately and explicitly.
- d. The nature and pacing of reward and punishment: ensure that the structuring of knowledge for student learning is simplified to generate new proposition and to increase student learning positively.

These major aspects ensure that students' effort to understand knowledge is at the centre of the educational enterprise. Woolfolk (2012) indicates how constructivism is accepted by all stakeholders and scholars to represent a significant effort in emphasizing student activity and not passivity.

Lev Vygotsky's (1978) Social Constructivist Theory

This theory emphasizes that human beings can actively construct knowledge based on current and prior knowledge and also through their interaction with others. This theory originated from the problems associated with how human beings form knowledge. The fact that knowledge is not a true copy of reality demands that human beings construct it in line with the patterns they already own or the result of their interaction with the environment (Pimienta, 2007, Carretero, 2009).

It was Vygotsky (1978) who introduced social interaction into knowledge construction. Bruner (1966) emphasized knowledge construction based on the current/prior knowledge without recourse to the aspect of social interaction of human beings. For Vygotsky, “the development of the mind is the interweaving of the biological development of the human body and the appropriation of the cultural/ideal/material heritage which exists in the present to coordinate people with each other and the physical world” (Cole & Wertsch, 1996, p. 2). Society and culture are considered imparters in cognitive development in constructivism in Vygotsky's constructivist theory. Three major principles underline Vygotsky's social constructivist theory:

1. The nature of learning: what is learned, when learning occurs and how learning occurs. This principle states that without the learning that occurs as a result of social interaction, self-awareness or the use of signs and symbols that allow us to think in more complex ways, we would remain slaves to the situation, responding directly to the environment” (Nicholl, 1998, p. 1).

2. The next principle deals with the idea that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain period” (Kearsley, 2001b, p. 1).
3. The only way to gain knowledge is to learn in an environment where such learning is based on the process rather than the product (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky built into his theory the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Scaffolding and the role of language in learning. The Zone of Proximal Development is “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). This explains what a student can do independently and what that same student can do with the help of a teacher. This concept advocates for cooperative learning and integrated use of instructional practice to help students close the difference between what students know and what they can know with the help of a teacher (Crain, 2005).

Scaffolding is the appropriate support given by teachers to help students construct knowledge and succeed in learning that knowledge (McLeod, 2012). This works to complement the ZPD and specify the nature of the support students need. Scaffolding is what teachers provide as an assistance for students to master a concept. Westberry and Franken (2013) state that the assistance given is most effective when it recognises the learning needs of students, especially when the student is facing a learning difficulty. Some of the things that teachers can do by way of effective scaffolding are gaining and maintaining student’s learning interest, simplifying the learning

task, emphasizing the important aspect of knowledge, controlling student's level of frustration and demonstrating the task (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976; Westberry & Franken, 2013).

The role of language in how human beings construct knowledge also flows from society and culture. Language captures our thoughts so Vygotsky argues that cognitive development comes from an internalisation of language. The theory puts up two critical roles of language in cognitive development (1) serving as the means for teachers to transmit knowledge and (2) being the medium of constructive intellectual adaptation of knowledge transmitted.

Vygotsky (1986) states that thinking is a process learned from one's social interaction and learning to think is no different than language acquisition or other socially-learned behaviour. The constructive mental activity that takes place in the classroom is influenced by the language.

Social Constructivist Theory in Collaborative Learning Environment

Butler and Griffin, (2010) state that Social Constructivist theory identifies the practice used by teachers to implement learning processes in the classroom and how students construct knowledge through the assistance teachers offer through their instructional practice. The social environment in the classroom is influenced predominantly by teacher instructional practice. The theory also emphasizes the social environment in explaining the cognitive development of human beings. The Zone of Proximal Development, Scaffolding and the role of language in learning rely on the collaborative interaction between teachers and students in the classroom. A collaborative learning environment is built through the process of social constructivism for

an interaction of teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning.

Collaborative Learning Environment (CLE) is a system specially developed to support the participation, collaboration, and cooperation of users sharing a common goal. It focuses on the environment of learning and how students work collaboratively with teachers to achieve instructional objectives. In the classroom setting, it deals with the systemic and intentionally forged environment in the classroom that ensures active participation, collaboration and cooperation of both students and teachers. It takes into account social factors to discover and describe existing relationships among students, existing organisational structures and incentives for collaborative action (Zaraté, Belaud, Camilleri & Ravat, 2008).

The application of this theory to teaching and learning in a collaborative learning environment (Cooper & White, 2011) reveals and explains the interaction between teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning. The relationship between Social Constructivist Theory and Collaborative Learning Environment is seen in the role of the teacher in the classroom (instructional practice) and the students' learning activities (approaches to learning).

Teacher Instructional Practice in Social Constructivist Theory

The role of the Economics teacher in the social constructivist classroom is to help students build their knowledge and to guide collaborative teaching and learning. The Association for Constructivist Teaching (ACT, 2007) states that the social constructivist teacher values student reflection and cognitive conflict and encourages peer interaction. Kompf (1996, p. 173)

states that “constructivist teachers allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content”. The idea of the limited control of the teacher is to encourage students to engage in collaborative learning. The teacher as a facilitator provides opportunities for collaborative work and problem-solving. For Ndon (2011, p. 253), “a teacher as a facilitator, should provide rich environments, experiences, and activities for learning by incorporating opportunities for collaborative work, problem-solving, authentic tasks”. Thus, the teacher facilitates the transfer of the information to the students because people learn best by trying to make sense of something on their own, with the teacher as a guide to help them along the way (Sims, 2002; Fry et al., 2003; Gerding, 2007, p .28).

Constructivist teachers are often considered student-centred in their instructional practice. However, constructivism assumes that all knowledge is constructed from the student’s previous knowledge, regardless of how one is taught. And so even listening to a lecture involves active attempts to construct new knowledge (Shah, 2019). In the classroom, the constructivist view of learning can point towards several different teaching practices. The teacher makes sure that he or she understands the students’ pre-existing conceptions and guides the activity to address them and then build on them. In the teachercentred instructional practice of teaching, all students have the same level of background knowledge in the subject matter and can absorb the material at the same pace (Lord, 1999). However, a constructivist teacher using teachercentred methods of teaching assists students in developing new insights and connecting them with previous knowledge and leaves the discovery and discussion to them (VAST, 1998).

Approaches to Learning in Social Constructivist Theory

Wilson (1996) defines constructivist learning environments as “a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in the guided pursuit of learning goals and problem-solving activities” (p. 5). Written activities, readable activities, and thinking activities are part of the practices done by students by way of learning. The approaches students employ in carrying out these activities are conditioned by the learning environment. In a social constructivist classroom, active student participation conditions students for deep and strategic approaches to learning rather than a surface approach (Baines & Stanley, 2000).

Social constructivist theory encourages active student participation in learning activities. This enhances students’ collaborative skills, provides students with opportunities and helps them understand new knowledge and strategies. It helps them to examine their thinking processes and recognise the need to revise their thinking (Turner & Patrick, 2004). According to Zhan (2008), collaborative learning activities can engage students’ participation, and interaction, working together toward a common academic goal, and increasing the level of satisfaction and feelings of connection and community.

Constructivism is a reaction to teaching approaches such as behaviourism and programmed instruction. The students act as knowledge constructors based on their personal experiences and interactions with the environment. They actively create their own subjective or objective knowledge through social interaction, test that knowledge continuously and create new knowledge, correct previous knowledge, or confirm present

knowledge (Sprague, Debra & Dede, 1999). Constructivists argued that students are not blank slates (tabula rasa) but bring past experiences and cultural factors to construct new knowledge in a given situation. Therefore, each student has a different interpretation and construction of the knowledge process based on mental representations (Learning Theories Knowledge Base, 2008).

Student learning is based on the interactions with other students and teachers. The classroom environment provides an avenue for students to seek the support of teachers and colleagues in mastering a learning task. The Zone of Proximal Development allows them to benefit from others in the classroom. Scaffolding allows students to launch on the benefit of “reciprocal teaching”, a contemporary application of Vygotsky’s theory which is a collaboration of students and teachers in learning. Students learn by summarizing, questioning, clarifying and predicting knowledge (Dixon-Krauss, 1996).

Charlotte Danielson’s (2011) Framework of Teaching

Domain 3 (Instruction) of Danielson’s framework constitutes the core of teaching which is the engagement of students in the teaching and learning process. The teacher is assessed on communicating clearly and accurately, using questioning and discussion techniques, engaging students in learning, providing feedback to students, and demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness. Questioning and discussion are the only instructional strategies that are captured by the Danielson framework. The framework employed a learner-centred paradigm, which sees knowledge as the combined efforts of the teacher and the students. Through the teacher, the students

synthesize the gathered information using problem-solving, critical thinking, and inquiry skills.

Learner-centred classroom places greater emphasis on the teacher giving meaningfulness knowledge so that students acquire knowledge to address real-life issues and problems. The teacher's use of questioning and discussion gets students actively involved in instruction. It is important that questioning and discussion are used as techniques to deepen student understanding because teachers use divergent as well as convergent questions to invite students to formulate hypotheses, make connections, or challenge prior knowledge. Students' responses to questions are valued; and effective teachers are especially adept at responding to and building on student responses and making use of their ideas.

High-quality questions encourage students to make connections among concepts or events previously believed to be unrelated and arrive at new understandings of complex material. Effective teachers should also be able to pose questions for which they do not know the answers. Even when a question has a limited number of correct responses, the question, being non-formulaic, is likely to promote thinking by students. Class discussions are animated, engaging all students in important issues and using their language to deepen and extend their understanding. They may be based on questions formulated by the students themselves. Not all questions must be at a high cognitive level for a teacher's performance to be rated at a high level; that is, when exploring a topic. A teacher might begin with a series of questions of low cognitive challenge to provide a review, or to ensure that everyone in the class is "on board." Furthermore, if questions are at a high level, but only a few students

participate in the discussion, the teacher's performance on the competency cannot be judged to be at a high level.

The framework considered involving students in small-group work contributes to teacher effectiveness because small-group work elicits quality student questions and discussion. For students to demonstrate high-level thinking, questions must be able to cause students to think and reflect, deepen their understanding, and test their ideas against those of their classmates. When teachers ask questions of high quality, they ask only a few of them, and they provide students with sufficient time to think about their responses, to reflect on the comments of their classmates, and to deepen their understanding. The purpose of using questions should not be confused with the use of questioning to deepen students' understanding.

Effective teachers promote learning through discussion. The discussion method is not just the teacher's explanation of content to students but deals with the teacher posing a question inviting all students' views to be heard, and enabling students to interact directly with one another. This may not always be mediated by the teacher. Usually with the discussion method some students are likely to dominate leaving other students to hold back their contributions. It becomes the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that all students contribute to the discussion. Enlisting the assistance of all students to ensure participation by all students is key to the teacher's effectiveness. Danielson's framework indicated that for effective instructional practice in learner-centred classroom, the teacher must ensure:

- a. Questions of high cognitive challenge, formulated by both students and teacher

- b. Questions with multiple correct answers, or multiple approaches even when there is a single correct response
- c. Effective use of student responses and ideas
- d. Discussion with the teacher stepping out of the central, mediating role
- e. High levels of student participation in discussion

Other Domains of the Danielson's (2011) Framework for Teaching

Domain 1 (planning and preparation) looks at the teacher's lessons and lesson plans. It essentially grades the teacher on how well he or she can plan the lesson. Due to this, the Ghana Education Service has dictated what needs to be in a lesson plan. The purpose of this is to help achieve success. The lesson plan is not just notes to pass on to students but a step by step plan of instruction delivery and its' accompanying instructional strategies for the teacher. Specifically, Danielson (2011) explained that Domain one of the framework assesses the teacher that he or she:

- a. demonstrates knowledge of content and pedagogy
- b. demonstrate knowledge of students
- c. sets instructional outcomes
- d. demonstrates knowledge of resources
- e. designs coherent instruction and,
- f. designs student assessments

Domain 2 (classroom environment) assesses the teacher on the physical classroom and on the attitude found in the classroom. The room needs to be well set up physically and there must be a culture of learning that is built by how the teacher manages student behaviour in the classroom.

Specifically, Danielson (2011) explained that Domain two of the framework assesses the teacher on how he or she:

- a. creates an environment of respect and rapport
- b. establishes a culture for learning
- c. manages classroom procedures
- d. manages student behaviour and
- e. organizes physical space

Domain four (professional responsibilities) deals with how the teacher keeps records of the student to facilitate student achievement, communicating with families, professionalism and being a part of a professional community. These are extra activities that were always expected of teachers. Specifically, Danielson (2011) explained that Domain four of the framework assesses the teacher on how he or she:

- a. reflects on teaching;
- b. maintains accurate records;
- c. communicates with families;
- d. participates in a professional activity;
- e. grows and developing professionally and
- f. shows professionalism.

Conceptual Review

The concepts that were reviewed for this study include teacher instructional practice, approaches to learning, instructional supervision. All of these concepts were revealed under various sub-headings.

Teacher Instructional Practice

Several terminologies have been used to describe and explain what instructional practice is. Some have described it as the different approaches teachers use in their conversations with students (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Pressley, Rankin, & Youkoi 1996). They stretch the term to cover academic, social and practical help given by teachers to students. Blazar and Kraft (2017) share a similar view that instructional practice is about the ongoing interaction between teachers and their students through the elements of teaching and learning. Frickley (2004) refers to it as teacher practices, orientation, classroom organization and student activities used in achieving teaching and learning objectives. The similarity between this view and the previous (Blazar & Kraft, 2017; Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Pressley, Rankin, & Youkoi 1996) is that instructional practice is about the teacher and how he or she interacts consistently with students.

Francisco and Celon (2020) summarise it as the planning, instructional, and assessment activities of teachers. All views on this subject generally describe instructional practice as the action consistently taken by teachers in developing the lesson in the classroom. It is the characteristics and behaviours of teachers that have guided their classes consistently over time. Scholars (Lau & Lam, 2017; Mostafa, Echazarra & Guillou, 2018) agree that the meaning of the term lies in the consistency of the nature of the teaching activities of the teacher. Other words such as teaching approach or teaching style have been used to describe the consistency of the nature of teaching activities of teachers (Saleh & Jing, 2020). According to Bibon (2022), instructional practice is evident in the consistency of the planning, delivery and assessment of their

lesson. Dancy and Henderson's (2017) conceptual framework of instructional practice shows the nature of instructional practice as either teacher-centred or student-centred.

Teacher-centred practice is called traditional instructional practice. It is a formal and controlled instructional practice where the teachers plan what, when and how students learn (Dupin-Bryant, 2004; Horvat-Samardžija, 2011). Traditional instructional practice is regularly connected with transmission models of teaching which include drill and practice. Typical characteristics of a traditional instructional practice teacher are when teacher talks more, provides information, and rely much on textbooks (Emaliana, 2017). The main focus is getting the students to perform well on state-mandated tests as opposed to taking into account students' needs (Zohrabi, et al., 2012) and there is limited space for student's personal growth.

Student-centred instructional practice is also labelled alternative instructional practice. Alternative instructional practice can be defined as a style of instruction that is responsive, collaborative, problem-centred, and democratic in which both students and the teacher decide how, what, and when learning occurs (Dupin-Bryant, 2004; Dancy & Henderson, 2007; Horvat-Samardžija, 2011). Alternative instructional practice centres on the learners' encounters, points of view, interests, capacities and needs. It creates a conducive learning environment for all learners, gives students responsibility for their learning and helps them make necessary decisions and value judgments about the relevance of the content to their own lives and interests

(Brown, 2008). In alternative instructional practice, the teacher plays the role of a facilitator or guide who helps students accomplish their goals (Wolk, 2010).

Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) divided teachers' instructional practice into three main groups. The first focuses on the role of the teacher in directing students' attention to learning goals and showing them alternatives. The second is a cooperative learning opportunity. The third is a combination of focused instruction, which are instructional activities guided by the teacher and critical approaches. The three groups reveal an instructional practice which is teacher-centred, student and an integration of the two. Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) use any of these to describe the routine activities of planning, enactment, or reflection engaged in by teachers to support student learning.

The topic of teacher instructional practice has long been of interest to educational researchers. In particular, many studies have examined the relationship between teacher instructional practice and student learning, with the consensus being that teacher instructional practice do make a difference in terms of student learning.

Student-centred Instructional Practice

The term student-centred learning is widely used in teaching and learning literature. Many terms have been linked with student-centred learning, such as collaborative learning (Moore & Zyomont, 2003), flexible learning (Taylor, 2000), experiential learning (Burnard, 1999), Learnercentered learning (Jones, 2007) and self-directed learning. The concept of student-centred learning has been credited as early as 1905 to Hayward and in 1956 to Dewey's work (O'Sullivan 2003). Carl Rogers, the father of client-

centred counselling, is associated with expanding this approach into a general theory of education (Burnard, 1999; Rogoff, 1999). The term student-centred learning was also associated with the work of Piaget and more recently with Malcolm Knowles (Burnard, 1999). Rogers (1983a) was driven by a need for a change in the traditional education environment, where students become passive, apathetic, and bored with an environment of choice in the learning process.

The paradigm shift away from teaching emphasizes student learning (Barr & Tagg 1995). The traditional approach to teaching was increasingly criticised as a result, making way for the widespread growth of „studentcentred learning’ as an alternative approach. Lea et al. (2003) maintain that despite its widespread, many institutions or educators still do not use it. Some studies have argued that it has to do broadly with student-teacher challenges and challenges related to resources and infrastructure of institutions (Sahonero-Alvarez & Calderon, 2020).

Student-centred learning puts students' interests first, acknowledging student voice as central to the learning experience. It is collaborative learning where teacher and student are actively engaged in the content and process of learning. (Moore & Zyomont, 2003). Active student learning is strongly encouraged in student-centred classrooms. Learner-centred instruction goes beyond the learning of content to include other processes such as educating students in the process of learning how to learn and developing lifelong learning skills. This makes room for students to think, reflect, share/discuss ideas, question, analyse and solve problems.

The use of student-centred instructional practice helps students deal with multiple perspectives and build a community of dignity for diverse ideas. Democratic principles (Dewey, 1994) underpinned student-centred instruction. The idea of giving responsibility to students, allowing them to act effectively, and stimulating reflective and critical thinking in the classroom enrich democratic classroom practice. Student-centeredness is an effective pedagogy to equip students with the necessary skills to generate a more democratic interaction in the classroom.

Non-usage of Student-centred Instructional Practice

Student-centred instructional practice advocates learning through engaging students actively in the classroom. Dewey (1997) also saw learning as through experience, because every current experience is an action affecting the application of knowledge acquired. Cornelius and Gordon (2008) added that learner-centred instructional practice accommodates flexibility in content delivery and individual student learning needs. Driscoll (2005) established the fact that “knowledge is constructed by learners as they attempt to make sense of their experiences” (p. 387).

It is on this argument that this study was premised on the Economics teacher’s ability to create stimulating situations in the classroom that are able to elicit from learners the willingness to learn. I and many other educators (Driscoll 1994; Bandura 1997) are of the view that learning must be situated in the context of meaningful activity for knowledge to be used in similar situations later in life. Hence, a well-designed syllabus must describe the right context for the teaching of Economics at the SHS level.

Economics as a subject and how it is taught has been rated low consistently by students in Senior High Schools and universities (Colander, 2000; Hansen, 2013). The lecture method was found to be the predominant mode of instruction in Economics, as opposed to the learnercentred methods recommended in various teaching syllabus. Several explanations have emerged from this effort. First, Economics is one of the few social science disciplines that heavily utilizes statistical and mathematical models to analyse real-life problems (Finegan & Siegfried, 1998; Cohn, Cohn, Balch & Bradley, 2001). Others such as the load of the content specified by the curriculum, the limited time available for instructional time, and the complexities of this student-centred instructional practice are all part of the explanations for the struggles of Economics teachers' and the non-usage of learner-centred instructional practice.

However, some Economics teachers' help students learn how to learn, nurture their willingness to solve problems and build their capacity for hard work and persistence. Students all over the world have been known to acquire inert knowledge, such as definitions and formulas that they do not know how to apply meaningfully. For that to occur, learning must involve authentic learner-centred interactions (Driscoll, 1994). With Economics being more inert in knowledge, there is a greater need for the use of more learner-centred instructional practice. This does not seem to be the case because the pressure on teachers to meet the scheme of work makes student-centred practice not preferable. Sadker and Sadker (1991) have argued that allocated time to academic content is not enough. Teachers are therefore compelled by this to

employ more teacher-centred practice that allow them more time to meet their scheme of work.

The views expressed on the non-use of student-centred instructional practice only appear when students' needs are not taken into consideration. As argued by Cornelius and Gordon (2008), the teacher who considers the learning needs of his or her students is flexible in the delivery of instruction. Taking this into consideration, I believe that the SHS Economics syllabus is well designed to ensure effectiveness if adhered to. The SHS Economics syllabus gives room for flexibility in the usage of the recommended learnercentred instructional strategies. Therefore, the non-usage of student-centred instructional practice by teachers should pose little or no challenge to the effectiveness of the Economics teacher.

Conceptual Framework

There is a relationship between teacher instructional practice and students approaches to learning Economics, instructional supervision acting as an environmental factor on the two variables (teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning). Figure 1 is a representation of the conceptual framework of the study which was developed using the constructivist learning theories. The interactions of teacher instructional practice, instructional supervision and students' approaches to learning are unique. The interactions between the three main constructs are founded on theories and empirical studies. It has been presented in Figure 1.

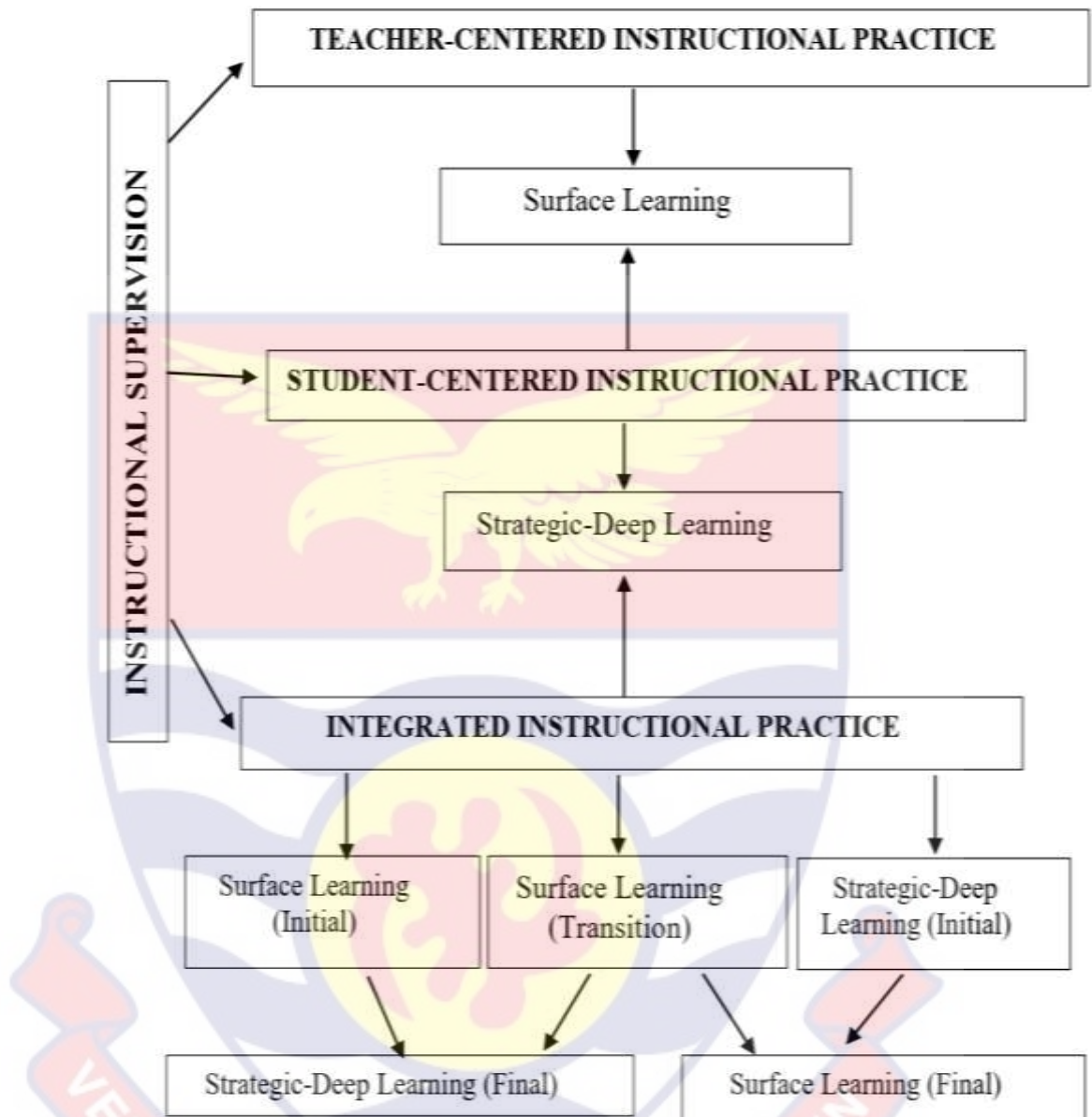


Figure 1: A hypothesized conceptual framework for the study
Source: Constructivist learning theories (Modified)

Teacher instructional practice as discussed in this study as either teacher-centred, student-centred or integrated do have direct interaction with students' approaches to learning. The influence was conceptualized as a direct influence on approaches to learning. The findings of the hypotheses in this study discussed this relationship in detail.

Teacher-centered instructional practice (e.g., lectures, direct instruction) may lead to surface learning where students focus on rote memorization and basic recall. Student-centered instructional practice (e.g., collaborative learning, inquiry-based methods) are more likely to promote strategic and deep learning, encouraging students to understand and apply concepts meaningfully. Integrated instructional practice (e.g., a mix of teacher-centered and student-centered methods) provide flexibility and can facilitate transitions between surface and strategic-deep learning. For instance:

- a) Surface Learning (Initial): Students may start with surface learning but can transition to deeper approaches as instructional methods evolve.
- b) Strategic-Deep Learning (Initial): Integrated practices can support students in engaging deeply from the start.
- c) Surface Learning (Transition): Students might temporarily adopt surface learning strategies during specific phases of learning or due to challenging content.
- d) Strategic-Deep Learning (Final): Over time, integrated practices can help students develop a more strategic and deep understanding of the material.

The instructional supervision construct was conceptualized to have a direct influence on teacher instructional practice. There appears to be a mediating role supervision plays between teaching methods other constructs such students' performance, student learning, curriculum implementation, among many others. The major challenge with this mediating role is when the data on supervision indicate that it is not/poorly done. In such instance, further analysis on its mediating role becomes problematic for making inferences.

This became a limitation to this study making the possibility of analysing the mediating role of instructional supervision slim.

From the framework, it shows that integrated instructional practice used whenever Economics teacher combines both teacher-centred and student-centred practices in teaching a topic. In using the integrated practice, one will be dominant, and the influence of the dominance will not be the same. The framework suggests that when teacher-centred is dominant, students may use either surface or strategic-deep learning approach. However, if the teacher intends to get students to employ a strategic-deep approach to learning, student-centred practice must dominate his/her integrated instructional practice.

Learning Theories in Contemporary Senior High Schools

Traditionally, teaching and learning theories were founded on psychological theories (Wenger, 2009). Skinner (1974), considered behaviourism learning as the production of desired behaviours. The pedagogical focus of behaviourism is on control and adaptive response and it completely ignores issues of meaning. Wilson and Peterson (2006) stress that behavioural theorists made the way for cognitivism which involved putting the mind back into the learning discussion. Learners make sense of the world, actively creating meaning, either while reading texts, interacting with the environment or communicating with other people. The pedagogical focus of cognitivism is on the processing and transmission of information through communication, explanation, recombination, contrast, inference, and problemsolving. Piaget (1929) was the first to state that students create knowledge rather than receive knowledge from the teacher. This position

recognized that students construct knowledge based on their experiences through assimilation and accommodation. The pedagogical focus of constructivism is task-oriented. There are also Social learning theories that take social interactions into account by emphasizing interpersonal relations involving imitation, modelling and observation as sources of learning (Bandura, 1986, 2006).

SHS teachers today use different classroom practices that are based on all of the above-mentioned ideas about teaching and learning. Illeris (2009, p. 1) confirms the fact that:

“Learning is a very complex matter, and there is no generally accepted definition of the concept. On the contrary, a great number of more-or-less special or overlapping theories of learning are constantly being developed, some of them referring back to more traditional understandings, others trying to explore new possibilities and ways of thinking.”

The factors that promote student learning are very diverse. A lot of factors centre on the role of the teacher. Wilson and Peterson (2006) advise teachers to focus on learning as a process of active engagement; learning as individual and social; and learner differences as resources to be used, not obstacles to be confronted.

According to Bluma (2004), various sources of learning can be described differently but the development of learning skills demands new innovative curricula, as well as upgrading of teachers’ competencies with a particular focus on management skills associated with the learning process, understanding how to work with various groups of learners, and creating a

suitable learning environment. Accordingly, it is necessary to develop an awareness of the nature of students' learning, the relevance of a teacher's competences and abilities, and methods for managing the learning process to create opportunities for student learning. Learning is about students' performance with a certain outcome so that such outcomes become the accumulated knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students develop during their studies.

Contemporary education sees both teachers and students in the teaching/learning process are active participants but each in a different direction. The teacher is active in thinking and projecting activities for the students' active learning and students become agents of their learning activities and processes. Wilson and Peterson (2006) have noted that teaching in contemporary times is not only an intellectual work but also a variety of work, a shared work, an inquiry and challenging content. It is a complex, multifaceted activity, often requiring teachers to juggle multiple tasks and goals simultaneously and flexibly and to create the conditions that support student learning.

In Ghana, Economics teachers deal with the complex, multifaceted activity of teaching where several factors induce their instructional practice. Traditionally, there are teacher-induced teaching practice (which results in teacher-centred instructional practice) and student-induced teaching practice (which results in student-centred instructional practice). However, there are other factors such as the content of Economics and the school factors that induce certain teaching practices. Such factors call on teachers to ensure that their teaching is a process that enables students to learn independently, helps

students to develop critical thinking, helps students to use various ways for understanding new material, and do a lot of independent work (Ozola & Purvins, 2012).

Contemporary education still battles with which teaching/learning theory to use, whether teachers practice behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism etc. Some teachers are heavily involved with dispensing information through direct instruction while others are through constructivism and the practice of being facilitators of learning (Brown, 2006, p. 109). Undoubtedly, most stakeholders in education would agree that none of the teaching/learning theories is flawless in its perception of how students learn and how teachers should instruct. There are two significant differences between the theories in defining the role of the classroom teacher. In a teachercentred classroom, the teacher assumes the responsibility for instruction. In a student-centred classroom, the learner accepts the responsibility for his/her learning. The traditional view of education is rooted in the research performed by Piaget (as cited in Moore, 2001) who believed “students develop according to a maturational unfolding of their abilities. Therefore, the set of cognitive structures possessed at each stage of development defines what they (students) can and cannot do” (p. 49).

On the other hand, Fosnot (1996) suggested that constructivism views learning as an interpretive, recursive, and building process by which active learners interrelate with the physical and social world. Kruse (1998) supported Fosnot’s views on constructivism because he also indicated that this approach has been shown to have a positive effect on students’ ability to increase their knowledge. Although theorists and educators will continue to debate the

strengths and weaknesses of both theories, it is important to remember that there are on-going shifts in the promotion of educational theories.

Instructional Supervision

The term instructional supervision is usually used interchangeably with inspection even though these two terms only share some similarity but are totally different. In terms of its usage in education, supervision is the broader term which involves inspection and instructional supervision. Eye, Netzer and Krey (1971) define instructional supervision as the “phase of school administration which focuses primarily upon the achievement of the appropriate expectations of educational system.” Peretomode (2021) opines that instructional supervision is concerned with supporting and assisting teachers to improve instruction through changing their behaviour.

On the other hand inspection has to do with inspectors going to schools to closely scrutinize and examine materials and equipment, facilities, discipline, administration of school and school records. It may be to investigate some pertinent issues of concern based on reports received about the school (Peretomode, 2021). The terms “inspector” and “inspection” (Grauwe, 2007; Lee, Dig & Song, 2008) give attention to inspectional supervision which is carried out by external inspectors aimed at evaluating and controlling the performance of schools. This external supervision is stated by Vashist (2004) as a process of leadership and development of leadership within groups, which evaluates the educational product in light of accepted educational standards, studying the teaching-learning situation to determine the antecedents of satisfactory and unsatisfactory students’ growth and achievement, and school improvement. Inspection is a top-down approach

which is aimed at controlling and evaluating the improvement of schools based on stated standards set by external agents outside the school system

(Arong & Ogbadu, 2010; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Tyagi, 2010; Wilcox & Gray, 1996). For Aderoumu and Ehiamekalor (1985), inspectors are more like watchdogs of teachers who do not directly enhance teacher instructional effectiveness as instructional supervisors may.

Instructional supervision is a type of school-based supervision carried out by the school staff such as head teachers, department heads, senior teachers, and assigned supervisors aimed at providing guidance, support, and continuous assessment to teachers for their professional development and improvement in the teaching-learning process, based on trust and collegial culture (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Tyagi, 2010). Instructional supervision is mainly concerned with improving schools by helping teachers to reflect on their practices, to learn more about what they do and why, and to develop professionally (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Lovely Professional University (2020) as cited in Peretomode (2021) states the following as the features of instructional supervision:

- a) It is a creative and dynamic technical service.
- b) It provides leadership with extra knowledge and superior skills.
- c) It promotes cooperative educational effort in a friendly atmosphere.
- d) It gives coordination, direction and guidance to teacher's activities.
- e) It stimulates the continuous growth of teachers and development of students/students.
- f) It improves instruction and the teaching-learning situation and the process.

- g) It helps in the achievement of appropriate educational aims and objectives.

Principles of Instructional Supervision

Certain principles must govern instructional supervision. The statements of fundamental truth that guides and facilitate the operation of instructional supervision. These principles are were opined by Burton (1955), Burton and Bruecker (1955), Wiles (1967), Harris (1975) and Nwaogu (1984).

- a. It must be directed toward improving the instruction.
- b. Supervisors are primarily to support, assist and share and not to direct teachers.
- c. Supervision must be founded on philosophy and science: such that it must be sensitive to aims, values, policies and permeated with experimental attitude and re-evaluation.
- d. It must be based on a democratic philosophy: respect for individual differences and opportunity of expression,
- e. It must proceed orderly, cooperatively planned and executed.
- f. It must aim at enhancing job satisfaction of teachers and boost their morale.
- g. It must be flexible and adaptive rather than adhering to single authoritative techniques of instructional supervision.
- h. It must involve the efforts of all teachers as it offers opportunities for growth through mutual benefits from responsibilities.
- i. Instructional supervision must be judged by its results

- j. It must be creative and not prescriptive, procedures must be based on the needs of the instructional situation, sensitivity to originality and development. It must intentionally create the right climate for the instructional process.
- k. It must employ scientific methods to specific situations to understand students, learning process and the personality of teachers.

Role of Head Teachers/Assistants and Head of Department in Supervision

The head teachers/assistants or head of department play an important role in instructional supervision. Mofareh (2011) argues that most important supervision and guidance in the school setting is that given by head teachers/assistants or head of department. All the measures by these internal supervisors to facilitate one-on-one feedback with teachers enhance instruction and professional capacity (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2009). There is therefore a growing perception among the populace that teachers are not performing their assigned roles as expected because school heads are not carrying out their direct supervision (Ampofo, Onyango & Ogola, 2019).

In the Ghanaian context, Senior High School head teachers/assistants or head of department carry out supervision as a key component of their administrative responsibilities aimed at ensuring teachers perform for realization of school goals. Instructional supervision roles of the Senior High School heads include the supervision of day to day teaching and learning, ensuring the adherence of teachers to the school time table, facilitating provision of appropriate and adequate instructional delivery by teachers, ensuring punctuality and regularity by both staff and students, and providing

direct assistance on varied issues of concern to teachers (Ghana Education Service [GES] as cited in Sekyere, 2014). Ampofo, Onyango and Ogola (2019) revealed that instructional supervision done by school heads was poor. This was mainly due to inadequate time allocated to this activity by school heads.

Chen (2018) developed a framework of instructional supervision that set out the five supervisory tasks of supervisors as action research, direct assistance, group development, curriculum development, and professional development. In this framework, instructional supervision is viewed as a mechanism to enable teachers to improve instruction provided to students including relationships which is aimed to meet both personal and organizational needs. Asiyai (2009) showed that regular instructional supervision by the school heads leads to improvement in teacher lesson preparation, regular and punctual class attendance and participation in school community relations. It is a form of instructional supervision that must be undertaken to achieve the following objectives (Ghana Education Service [GES] as cited in Sekyere, 2014; Jared, 2011; Gravois & Gickling, 2002):

1. to provide objective feedback to teachers;
2. to diagnose and solve teaching problems;
3. to help teachers develop their strategies and skills;
4. to evaluate teachers for promotions or appointments; and
5. to help teachers maintain a positive attitude.

Leithwood et al. (2004) referred to school principals as „change agents’ and that their role in the management of school culture and learning impacts on the school through transformation of the school culture. Rosalind et

al. (2003) posit the school principal directly influences the culture and climate of the school. According to Kor and Opare (2017) studies have shown that schools that promote appropriate leadership and collegiality provide a climate more conducive to student success and instructional interaction. For the head teachers/assistants and heads of department who play supervisory roles in Senior High Schools, they directly influence the classroom climate either positively or negatively. Students and teachers may either feel intimidated or comfortable when head teachers visit their classroom.

Approaches of Instructional Supervision

Clinical Supervision

Developed by Goldhammer and Cogan in the late 1960s (Goldhammer, Anderson & Karjewski, 1980), According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), clinical supervision is a “face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth” (Sergiovanni and Starratt 2007, p. 23). It is a sequential, cyclic and systematic supervisory process which involves face-to-face interaction between teachers and supervisors designed to improve the teacher’s classroom instructions (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The purpose of clinical supervision according to SnowGerono (2008) is “to provide support to teachers to assist and gradually to increase teachers’ abilities to be self-supervising” (p. 1511). Goldhammer, Anderson and Karjewski (1980) describe the structure of clinical supervision to include pre-observation conference, class room observation, analysis and strategy, supervision conference, and post-conference analysis. Clinical supervision is officially applicable with: inexperienced beginning teachers, teachers experiencing difficulties, and experienced teachers who are in need of

improving their instructional performance or who are in need of learning to work with new methods and approaches in their classroom.

Clinical supervision is the approach expected to be employed for the instructional supervision of SHS Economics teachers. Head teachers/assistants or Head of department are the supervisors who are expected to sit in Economics classroom for face-to-face contact with teachers and students. This is an intentional and robust cycle of activities beginning with pre-observation conference to post observation analysis. It is time consuming and needs a lot of commitment from the supervisor. The initiation of instructional supervision comes from the supervisor unlike the collaborative supervision which is initiated by the teacher who needs help. This means that clinical instructional supervision can be effective if the supervisors are highly proactive. Salifu (2018) found that instructional supervisors have not been discharging their supervisory roles and responsibilities in schools.

Collaborative Supervision

According to Burke and Fessler (1983), teachers are the central focus of collaborative approach to supervision. Collaborative approaches to supervision are mainly designed to help beginning teachers and those who are new to a school or teaching environment with the appropriate support from more experienced colleagues. Thus, these colleagues have an ethical and professional responsibility of providing the required type of support upon request (Kutsyuruba, 2003). This means that it is usually the teacher who needs collegial and collaborative support who should ask for feedback from colleagues and other sources (Burke & Fessler, 1983). The major components of collaborative approaches to supervision are: peer coaching, cognitive

coaching, and mentoring. These components overlap each other but are quite different in their purpose and function (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Showers & Joyce, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2002; Uzat, 1998). Details of each are discussed here under.

a) *Peer coaching*: Peer coaching, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000),

is defined as “teachers helping each other to reflect on and improve teaching practice and/or carry out new teaching skills needed to carry out knowledge gained through faculty or curriculum development” (p. 215). Peer coaching differs from other coaching approaches in that it involves teachers of equal status (beginners with beginners or experienced with experienced) and focuses on innovations in curriculum and development. It is “a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new (innovative) skills; share ideas; teach one another or solve problems in the work place” (as cited in Latz, Neumeister, Adams, & Pierce, 2009, p. 28). Thus, peer coaching provides possible opportunities to teachers to refine teaching skills through collaborative relationships, participatory decisionmaking, and immediate feedback (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

b) *Cognitive coaching*: Cognitive coaching is an effective means of establishing sound relationships between two or more teachers of different status. For example, newly trained teachers with experienced teachers, newly trained teachers with assigned supervisors, or experienced teachers with assigned supervisors). According to Neubert

and Bratton (cited in Batt, 2010), “the cognitive coach should be more knowledgeable and experienced in the practices being learned than the teacher being coached” (p. 999). Cognitive coaching also refers to “a non-judgmental process in which a supervisor (senior teacher) attempts to facilitate teacher learning through a problem solving approach by using questions to stimulate the teacher’s thinking” (Costa and Garmston, 1994, p. 2). Cognitive coaching differs from peer coaching in that peer coaching focuses on innovations in curriculum and instructions, whereas cognitive coaching is aimed at improving existing practices (Showers & Joyce, 1996).

c) *Mentoring*: Mentoring is a one-to-one hierarchical relationship between a senior teacher and newly trained teachers (Murray & Mazur, 2009) focused on helping new teachers or beginning teachers successfully learn their roles, establish their self-images as teachers, figure out the school and its culture, and understand how teaching unfolds in real classrooms (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), “mentors are not judges or critics, but facilitators of instructional improvement, and all their interactions and recommendations with staff members are confidential” (p. 213).

Collaborative supervision in Senior High Schools requires maximum enthusiasm and interaction between teachers. The departmental structure helps in building this level of enthusiasm and interaction among teachers in the same subject area. It appears peer coaching is more prevalent than cognitive coaching. For mentoring, the presence of off-campus teaching practice students (trainee-teachers) makes it very common in Senior High Schools. The

issue of concern is the collegial supervision techniques needed for collaborative supervision approach. Collaborative supervision will be more effective when teachers have collegial supervision techniques (Wiyono, Rasyad, Maisyaroh, 2021). Collegial supervision techniques is measured based on teacher performance-based learning. Teachers who lack these techniques will not be able to participate effectively in collaborative supervision. For most heads of department, instructional supervision is approached as collaborative supervision. Since collaborative supervision demands that the teacher who needs help should be the one to make the request (Tesfaw & Hofman, 2012), most heads of department hardly get the opportunity to conduct instructional supervision.

Self-Reflection (Reflective coaching)

Self-assessment reflective practices are professional and ethical responsibility to reflect on changing classroom circumstances (Kutsyuruba, 2003). According to Sergiovanni (1991), self-directed approaches are “mostly ideal for teachers who prefer to work alone or who, because of scheduling or other difficulties, are unable to work cooperatively with other teachers”(p. 305). This approach is “particularly suited to competent and experienced teachers who are able to manage their time well” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 276). Sergiovanni and Starratt further considered this option to be “efficient in use of time, less costly, and less demanding in its reliance on others.” Thus, the writers indicated that in self-directed supervision “teachers work alone by assuming responsibility for their own professional development” (p. 276).

Senior High School teachers generally subscribe to this particular approach to instructional supervision. They participate in instructional supervision through the self-reflective practices they employ to evaluate how they go about their teaching task. The difficulty with it is how to confirm whether it is being done effectively and regularly by the teachers or not.

However, it is worth noting that the aim self-reflection is not for formal assessment but an informal teacher based assessment. The Ministry of Education (2017) hinted on the importance of a reflective teacher to successful teaching and learning outcomes. Other policy documents have explicitly emphasized the need for teachers to leverage reflective practices to drive the educational goals of the nation (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2014; MoE, 2015).

However, local studies (Asare 2011; Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2014, Fagbemi, 2015; Yidana, 2017) creates the impression that the teacher selfreflective practices is rarely done. There is evidence of self-reflection among trainee-teachers (off-campus teaching practice students) but none on permanent teachers (Transforming Teacher Education and Learning, 2018). According to Yidana and Lawal (2015), reflective practice is a professional requirement for teachers, an important competency-based rubric that foster effective implementation of any education proposal. Therefore, a teacher's use of reflective teaching practice can enable him or her to build upon prior knowledge, seek appropriate resources, and develop new strategies to improve on his or her work. The constructivist process of reflection influences what a teacher perceives, feels, sees, and learns (Costa, 2006).

Techniques for Instruction Supervision

Supervisors have in their possession an array of techniques that can be used in carrying out instructional supervision. Some of them are:

- a. Classroom observation: is the most commonly used and it involves systematic live observation of a teacher, analysing his or her practices and discussing findings.
- b. Visitation: is involves teachers visiting and observing another teachers instructional practice. This is another technique that can be used in collaborative supervision, specifically the peer coaching. It allows for reciprocal visitations and can also be helpful in cognitive coaching and mentoring.
- c. Demonstration: is presenting pre-arranged series of events. It most effective during collaborative supervision where a colleague teacher demonstrate to his or her colleague who needs help. The effectiveness of demonstration depends on how realistic, practical and natural it is. So the teacher who needs help can sit in the class of his colleague to observe the demonstration.
- d. Recording: Harris (1975) pointed out how audio-visual gadgets can be used to stimulate instructional supervision discussion and help teachers enhance their teaching and learning process. Cameras are installed in the classroom to record the teaching practice of teachers and viewed by both the teacher and supervisor for discussion.
- e. Workshop: is organised to facilitate discussion of a particular issue in teaching and learning so that a critical analysis will be done to find better way of improving instructional practice (Harris, 1975; Ogunsaju, 1988).

f. Micro teaching: is a scaled down (in terms of time, class size, content) teaching situation that allows the teacher to focus on a particular teaching method or strategy (Ike, 1989). The teacher and supervisor meet after the lesson for a discussion and evaluation of the instructional practice of the teacher.

g. Guided practice: involves individualized or small group manipulative activities. These activities are visitation and observation of skill development. There are follow-up activities to ensure teacher develops that skill (Harris, 1975; Peretomode, 2021).

h. Research: involves a systematic and objective collection of data to identify problematic areas of teaching and finding how to improve those areas. It can be done by a clinical supervision or through selfreflection.

Approaches to Learning

The term approaches to learning was introduced to clarify the intentions to learn, either to develop personal understanding or to cope with the immediate learning task (Marton & Säljö, 1976, 1996). Marton and his colleagues in Gothenburg categorized deep approach as the intention for personal understanding and surface approach as the intention to cope with immediate learning task. Later, several studies developed the meaning of these two categories (Biggs, 1987, 1993; Tait & Entwistle, 1996; Marton, Hounsell & Entwistle, 1996). The developments were in the form of sub-scales that measures in more detail the intentions to learning. So the deep approach was labelled as transforming knowledge into personal ideas. This was measured by how the student relates ideas to previous knowledge and experience, seek for

patterns and underlying principles, checks evidence before relating it to conclusions, examining the logic or argument cautiously and critically. The sign of this intention is finally seen in the student becoming actively interested in the course content. On the other hand, surface learning, builds up from the student's intention to study without reflecting on either purpose or strategy, treat the course as unrelated bits of knowledge, memorizing facts and procedures routinely, and finding difficulty in making sense of new ideas presented. The sign of this intention is finally seen in the student's feeling of undue pressure and worry about studies.

Biggs (1979) and Ramsden (1979) added to these two with another category they termed an "achieving" or "strategic" approach to learning. The major difference between this additional approach and the previous two is on an intention to obtain the highest possible grades through organized studying and alertness to assessment demands. It was Biggs and Ramsden who emphasized that all these three categories are related to students' motivation: intrinsic (deep), extrinsic and fear of failure (surface) and need for achievement (strategic). However, Entwistle (1979) argues that motivation does not suggest a strict influence on the approaches because other factors such as prior educational and personal histories, content and context of the learning, etc. produce a habitual patterns of learning.

Researchers agree that a deep approach likely results from high perceived relevance to students' interests, support and enthusiasm shown by the teacher and an opportunity for students to self-regulate their own learning (Duff & McKinstry, 2007). The role of the instructional practice of the teacher is fuelled by interest, support and enthusiasm shown by the teacher. In

contrast, students are likely to adopt a surface approach where the focus of learning concerns the accumulation of a myriad of facts (Eizenberg 1988), when assessment methods reward reproducing information (Dart and Clarke 1991), when students become anxious (Fransson 1977) or are burdened by a heavy workload (Cope and Staehr 2005).

Deep Learning Approach

A deep learning approach is part of an intrinsic motivation arising from individual' need to undertake a task meaningfully and properly (Biggs, 2001; Curzon, 2004; Biggs & Tang, 2007). Students try to use the most appropriate cognitive process in their learning process by focusing on underlying meanings, main ideas, issues, principles, and successful practices (Biggs, 2001). Students who adopt this approach develop various study strategies to find principles underlying reasons and importance while studying the detail of a subject area. They see connections in the context of understanding the logical reason of a subject area (Curzon, 2004). In this process, students use meta-cognitive abilities such as self-assessment, self-questioning, error detection, correction of errors, dealing with extreme data, and take into account different ideas and the limitations of those ideas (Chin & Brown, 2000). Therefore, the basis of a deep approach to learning is to sustain students' satisfaction in the learning process. (Biggs, 2001).

A deep approach depends on an intention to establish personal meaning. The deep approach describes active involvement stemming from interest in the content which leads to an elaboration of the learning material in seeking personal understanding. It is associated with students' intentions a learning deeper motive based on internal motivation or curiosity. In the deep

approach, there is a personal commitment to learning, which means that the student relates the content to personally meaningful contexts or to existing prior knowledge. Deep processing involves processes of a higher cognitive level than rote learning; searching for analogies, relating to previous knowledge, and theorizing about what learned to is understand and to engage appropriately in meaningful learning, focusing on the main themes and principles and using strategies that are appropriate for creating such meaning. Biggs (2003) lists a number of factors that encourage students to adopt deep approach to learning.

- i. Meaningful engagement in academic tasks relies on several factors from both the student's and teacher's perspectives. Students must have intrinsic motivation and appropriate background knowledge, enabling them to work conceptually and focus on high-level thinking.
- ii. On the teacher's side, strategies include making the subject's structure explicit, eliciting active student responses, connecting new information to prior knowledge, and correcting misconceptions. Assessment should evaluate understanding of subject structure, not just facts, while fostering a positive learning environment where mistakes are valued. Emphasizing depth over breadth of learning and aligning teaching and assessment with course objectives ensures effective learning. Ultimately, meaningful learning occurs when students are motivated, possess relevant knowledge and skills, and teachers employ effective strategies to facilitate comprehension and engagement. Biggs (2003) argues again that student factors are not independent of teaching. They are things teachers can ensure through their instructional practice to

encourage deep learning. Both deep and surface approaches to learning describe the way students relate to the instructional practice of their Economics teachers and are not to be taken as fixed characteristics of students (Biggs, 2003).

Surface approach to learning

This approach emerges from the intention to cope with a learning task with minimum trouble and yet meet the requirements of the subject. It is seen mostly when low cognitive activities are used to complete a learning task when high cognitive activities would have produced a better outcome. Its direct application to Economics is when rote learning is used in learning content instead of a student trying to understand it. So memorization is not surface learning until understanding is the most required. Surface-motivated students focus on what appears to be the most important items and memorize them. They do not see interconnections between the meanings and implications of what is learned.

So the concept of surface learning can best be understood when a deep approach to understanding content has been neglected for a low cognitive way of learning the same content (Vanthournout et al., 2014). Another instance is when students take notes in class and quote them back for the teacher without engaging their understanding. It is a surface approach to learning especially when the teacher does require students to engage the notes given to them. This means that if the teachers give students the impression that they are required to produce what has been given to them as notes, the problem then is with the instructional practice of the teacher (inappropriate assessment task) and not the students.

The instructional practice of teachers influences the learning approach of students. Students under the current instructional practice will choose an approach to learning that is reflective of the practice of their teacher and not that students are hooked on to a particular learning approach all the time. The planning, teaching and assessment methods of teachers often encourage students to adopt a surface approach to learning since they are based on the objectives of the lesson. Therefore, the surface approach to learning is adopted by students due to the instructional practice of the teacher and not necessarily because students are hopelessly addicted to it. Marton (1976) notes that the signs of learning are what students focus on in the surface approach and these signs are the words used by teachers, the facts isolated are more important and the items treated independently from others by the teacher. Students consider these as what is required to cope with the learning task so they devote their effort to memorizing just that. In the end, the learning is filled with negative emotions of anxiety, boredom and cynicism. The student's motive to learn is to only carry out the task because of external positive or negative consequences; if he fails, life will be unpleasant but if he does well in the subject, he will win his instructor's favour. Biggs highlights some factors that encourage students to adopt a surface approach to learning:

- i. From the student's perspective, factors such as a focus on achieving pass-mark, non-academic commitments, time management challenges, misunderstanding academic requirements, a cynical view of education, high anxiety levels, and difficulty grasping specific content can all impact their performance.

- ii. From the teacher's standpoint, instructional and assessment practices can also contribute to these challenges. These include teaching methods that rely on bullet-point lists and fail to explore the subject's underlying structure, assessments that prioritize memorization over critical thinking, instructional practice that inadvertently foster cynicism, insufficient time allocated for in-depth learning, and the creation of undue anxiety through excessive focus on exams and grades.

Addressing these challenges requires a collaborative effort between students, teachers, and educational institutions to foster a more supportive and effective learning environment that prioritizes deep understanding, critical thinking, and student well-being. Biggs argues that the two sides should not be seen as entirely separate because the students' factors are affected by teaching. Students who are cynical towards education is due to teaching and assessment. Trigger and Prosser (2003) posit that it is easier to create a surface approach than it is to support a deep approach. However, it is also possible even though less likely for students to maintain a surface approach despite the best instructional practice. Biggs (2003) argues therefore that, the first step in improving teaching is to avoid those factors that encourage a surface approach to learning.

Strategic approach to learning

A strategic or achieving approach to learning refers to how students organize their studying or study according to the assessment of the course (Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Biggs, 1987). Conceptually, the achieving/

strategic approach differs from the deep and surface approach. The deep and surface approach to learning describe ways in which students engage in learning. The achieving/strategic approach to learning deals with how students organize their learning (Vanthournout et al., 2014). Some studies on approaches to learning refer to a strategic approach to learning as organized studying (Entwistle & Peterson, 2004; Entwistle, 2009) which emphasizes the organized effort in studying more and the effect of the assessment (Entwistle & Peterson 2004; Entwistle, 2009).

In this approach, students organise their learning to achieve a high or positive outcome. A strategic approach to learning can involve a combination of both deep and surface learning strategies depending on the tasks at hand. Strategic learning when closely allied with deep approaches to learning can deliver both success and a good understanding of a subject. A strategic approach takes into account contextual pressures such as assessments, where students choose to change their approaches depending on their environment (Entwistle, Hanley, & Hounsell, 1979). Students who adopt a strategic approach to learning are guided by the following.

- i They intend to obtain high grades.
- ii They organise their time and distribute their effort for greatest effect.
- iii They ensure that the conditions and materials for studying are appropriate.
- iv They use previous exam papers to predict questions.
- v They are alert to cues about marking schemes.

Instruments to Measure Approaches to Learning

Several tools have been developed to assess students' study methods (Tait & Entwistle, 1996; Kolb, 1981). The Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST – Tait, Entwistle, & McCune 1997), the Visual, Aural, Read/Write, Kinaesthetic learning-styles inventory (VARK – Fleming & Mills 1992; Alkhasawneh, Mrayyan, Docherty, Alashram & Yousef 2008; Leite, Svinicki, & Shi, 2010), the Motivated Strategies. Each of these inventories is based on a graphical representation of learning. These learning style models are multidimensional in the sense that they identify a dimension along which some measure specific to the individual learner can be located. Personality, information processing, learning and/or studying strategies, and/or instructional preferences are all examples of dimensions. The VARK inventory, for example, is focused on the sensory modalities (visual, aural, read-write, and kinaesthetic) that a student prefers to use when internalizing information. When it comes to internalizing information, some students prefer to use only one sensory modality (uni-modal); however, most people prefer to use two, three, or all four modalities (multi-modal).

The Learning Styles Questionnaire claims to assess a person's relative capabilities in four dimensions of information processing: activist, reflector, theorist, and pragmatist (Sadler-Smith 1997). The Inventory of Learning Styles in Higher Education (ILS) was created to inductively study university students' learning techniques and gather descriptions of cognitive, emotional, and metacognitive learning processes (Vermunt, 1998). The Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST) categorizes a student's typical study orientation as "deep," "surface," "strategic," "lack of direction," or

"academic self-confidence," all of which logically correspond to "deep," "surface," "strategic," "lack of direction," or "academic self-confidence," respectively.

The ASSIST was created by merging knowledge about learning styles with descriptions of a strategic approach to studying, as described by Marton & Säljö (1976a, 1976b) and others (Biggs 1987). A student's drive to understand, learn with meaning, and recognize underlying concepts and connections among related topics characterizes a deep approach to study. The deep approach is associated with a view of learning as "transforming," as well as a preference for instruction that stimulates and pushes comprehension; both processes are linked to both the need to find meaning and an interest in ideas.

Students' motivation to learn is supported by a strategic approach to studying. Students who use a strategic approach to learning can identify and use characteristics of the learning environment that will help them study more effectively. Within the strategic method, there are significant connections between strategy and motive, with accomplishment motivation being strongly linked to both organized studying and time management. Students who use a superficial approach to studying generally memorize material and complete only what is required to pass an impending exam. Students who take a superficial approach to learning prefer education that focuses on assessment needs, even if this results in a lack of knowledge and purpose. I believe this is the least effective technique for Economics students.

The ASSIST can be used to identify students who are at risk due to poor study habits (Tait & Entwistle, 1996; Webster, 2002). This version of the

instrument generates a detailed profile of each student's learning styles, which is determined through the use of a self-report questionnaire. Reflection and discussion of a student's profile and responses to specific questions might help them become more aware of their learning patterns. While students are frequently only vaguely aware of their own learning approach in comparison to others, illuminating specific differences may allow them to improve their study methods and hence improve their learning. Rather than students' preferred mode(s) of content presentation, the ASSIST instrument examines students' distinct study styles, which therefore have implications for the accomplishment of learning outcomes (as does, for example, the VARK inventory). As a result, the ASSIST was chosen as the instrument in this study to identify students' preferred learning styles.

Empirical Review

This part of the chapter focuses on the empirical studies that are related to this current study. In particular, this review is organised under several themes couched out of the research questions and hypotheses. They are studies on teacher instructional practice, instructional supervision, student approaches to learning, problems and ways of improving instructional supervision, instructional practice and students' approaches to learning. The summary and implications for the current study concludes this chapter.

Studies on Teacher Instructional Practice

In the Philippines, Francisco and Celon (2020), investigated teachers' instructional practices and their impact on students' academic performance. A sample of 55 teachers and 295 students were used. Data was gathered through the Instructional Practices Survey adopted from Valentine (2000) and a

documentary analysis from DepEd Order no.8, 2013 also known as the Classroom E-Record to determine the point average of the respondents' status of academic performance. The instrument (Instructional Practices Survey) was developed on a five-point Likert Scale ranging from always to never. In determining the instructional practice score, the mean and standard deviation were run. The mean values showed that teacher's instructional practice in terms of planning, teaching and assessment practices were frequent. However, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed a value greater than the significance level set at 0.05. Therefore, the study concluded that the planning, teaching, and assessment practices of the teachers did not produce significant combined effects on the academic performance of students.

In Uganda, Muganga and Ssenkusu (2019) used Wright's (2011) framework which distinguishes between teacher-centred and student-centred learning approaches along a spectrum of five dimensions: power balance, course content function, teacher and student roles, responsibility for learning, and assessment purposes and processes, to explore students' perceptions of their experience with teacher instructional practice. The investigation used a mixed-methods research approach that combines survey data with focus group discussions. Data was collected from a total of 54 students of which eight (8) were chosen for focus group discussions. A five-point Likert scale (ranging from never to always) measured the extent to which students perceive the instructional practice of their teachers as either teacher-centred or student-centred.

Percentages were used to provide a clear overall picture of students' perceptions of teachers' instructional practice. The results demonstrated that

the majority of students believed that learning occurred through teacher-centred rather than student-centred methods. The findings for instructional practice indicated that while teacher-centred tasks still predominated, several students had been exposed to some student-centred activities. The study found that although students viewed teaching and learning activities as beginning to shift towards student-centred methods, the majority of students believed that teachers still held the balance of power, thus making their instructional practice teacher-centred.

In Norway, Svanes and Klette (2018) examined teachers' instructional practices during seatwork in primary Norwegian Language arts classrooms. In this qualitative study, six teachers in a third-grade primary school were videotaped while pupils worked individually. An analytical framework was developed based on existing research and used for coding the video data. The analyses revealed that the participating teachers utilised their time during seatwork very differently. Two of the six teachers spent the majority of the time on instructional support (for instance challenging pupils' thinking), while the other four spent the majority of the time on organizational support (for instance practical help) or monitoring (for instance listening to pupils read). Emotional support was almost non-existent in these classrooms. Teachers' use of challenging versus telling as a way of supporting pupils is a key difference among the observed teachers.

In the Philippines, Bibon (2021) investigated teachers' instructional practice and learners' academic achievement in science. A total of 96 teachers and 240 students were randomly selected from across all six (6) big secondary schools within the Province of Albay in 2017 for a quantitative collection. A

5-likert scale questionnaire (ranging from never to always) adapted from Benosa (2017), Sergio (2018), and Abundo (2019) was used for data collection. Means and standard deviations were used in the analysis. Instructional practices of teachers were categorized into three (3): planning, delivery, and assessment. The mean values revealed that “sometimes” teachers spend a considerable amount of time anchoring planned instruction using the background of students. In terms of content delivery (teaching) and assessment, they were sometimes and “often” practised respectively. The study revealed teachers’ occasional use of instructional practice affects students’ academic achievement and does not meet the standards of the educational policy.

In Japan, Olayar (2021) assessed the relationship between the instructional practices of teachers on students’ academic performance in English. Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) and public secondary school students were the respondents for the study. Data was collected through a standardized Instructional Practices Survey questionnaire adopted from Valentine (2000) and a documentary analysis to determine the point average of the respondents’ level of academic performance in English. The data was analysed using means and standard deviation and Pearson correlation. The study showed that teacher instructional practice in terms of planning was occasionally done whereas that of their teaching and assessment were frequently done. Results revealed that there is a positive strong correlation between instructional practices and the student’s academic performance in English as evidenced by a .853 correlation coefficient. Findings indicate that a

high level of instructional practices among teachers contributes to the increase of academic performance of students in English.

In the USA, Osborne (2021) examined the relationship between teacher instructional practice and student mathematics achievement. The data for the study was based on the nationally representative sample from the United States in the 2012 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (N = 7,429 students from 240 schools). A two-level hierarchical linear model in the data analysis was used to account for the multilevel structure of the data with students nested within schools. Teacher instructional practices were categorized into teacher-centred and student-centred. PISA composite standardised 4-point Likert scale instrument ranging from never to every lesson was used for collecting data on teacher instructional practices. Through the use of means and standard deviation, the scores for teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices were generated. Teacher-centred instructional practice had a mean of 0.27 with a standard deviation (SD) of 1.07. Student-centred instruction had a mean of 0.28 with an SD of 0.93. The study found that the average U.S. student received slightly more teachercentred instruction than the average OECD student (OECD, 2014b). The study also found that the average U.S. student received slightly more student-centred instruction than the average OECD student.

The finding showed that teacher instructional practices are associated with student achievement. The finding also revealed that the relationship between teacher instructional practices and student achievement varies across schools due to the nature of school-level variables, particularly those related to the school context (e.g., location, available resources, socioeconomic and

racial-ethnic compositions of the student body, and education and experience levels of the teacher body) or climate (e.g., administrative policies, instructional organization, and attitudes and expectations of students, parents, and teachers).

Serin (2018) argues that although the use of a student-centred approach has been favoured in the classroom recently, the role of teachers in effective learning is essential. Providing a classroom environment for active student participation is stimulated by teachers. Student-centeredness enhances cooperative learning, develops problem-solving and decision making stimulates reflective and critical thinking skills; however, the role of the teacher cannot be eliminated in the classroom.

Parallelism of instructional practice weighs down the importance of variety and diversity in teaching and learning. Bondie et al. (2019) maintain that students who go through the instruction of multiple techniques of strategies and teaching approaches are more likely to achieve higher test scores and academic achievement. Pham (2011) and Smale-Jacobse et al. (2019) had similar results indicating the importance of incorporating varied instructional tools and strategies to make instruction inflexible for students. Owusu-Acheaw (2014) indicates that the instructional practice of teachers were the bridge to students learning and understanding of concepts. As noted by McKinney and Frazier (2008), striking the right balance is key, and, thus, school administrators should caution their teachers not to emphasize studentcentred instructional practice so much that they neglect to provide their students with the crucial benefits of teacher-directed practices (NMAP, 2008). With this in mind, the issue of teacher instructional practices, particularly in

the mathematics classroom, should be an integral component of teacher professional development. Such professional development opportunities should compare and contrast teacher-directed and student-centred instructional practices while emphasizing to teachers the important role that both types play in their student's success in the mathematics classroom (Osborne, 2021).

In Ghana, Baafi (2020), sought to establish the effect of instructional strategies on student academic achievement in public Senior High Schools in Ghana. The study utilised a sample of 250 students and 120 teachers sampled through proportionate stratified sampling. The study attempted to establish which instructional strategies were inherent in public senior high schools in Ghana and how those strategies influenced students' achievement in the national standardised mathematics test. Instructional strategies were categorized into teacher-centred, student-centred and integrated instructional strategies. A 5- 5-point Likert scale instrument ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used for data collection. Both mean and standard deviation were used for the analysis. The findings from this study show that teacher instructional strategies will positively influence the classroom environment, which will increase positive learning outcomes. The use of student-centred strategies was positively associated with students' learning achievement.

Studies on Students' Approaches to Learning

In Malaysia, Mohd, Othman, Hamid, Ibrahim, Ismail and Tharim (2016) investigated the influence of two different learning approaches which are, the deep approach and surface approach, on students' academic

achievement among the final year students in the university. A descriptive cross-sectional survey design was used, with a sample size of 643 students.

The Student's Process Questionnaire (SPQ) by Biggs (1987) was adopted for data collection on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from never to always. Data was analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics involving frequency and percentage distribution and Pearson Correlation analysis. In determining the learning approaches used among the students, the total mean scores for all the items of the deep approach were compared to the total mean scores of all the items of the surface approach. The high score indicated the learning approach of students as to whether they use the deep or surface approach. The study showed that students use the deep approach to learning. The correlation test revealed that there was no correlation between the learning approach and the academic achievement of students. The findings show that students use different learning approaches. They argued based on the findings that the role of teachers shapes the learning approach of students.

Rolleston, Schendel and Espinosa (2019) also assessed approaches to learning in Botswana, Ghana and Kenya. The study sought to examine the functioning of a moderately modified version of one of the most commonly used assessments of approaches to learning – the revised two-factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ2F) – in three African contexts (Ghana, Kenya and Botswana). The Pedagogies for Critical Thinking (PCT) guided the study where a sample of 120 students were longitudinally assessed for critical thinking skills over two years. A 4-point Likert scale instrument was used for the quantitative R-SPQ2F instrument.

The study found that approaches to learning are measured via the RSPQ2F even though the result may not be randomly distributed across contexts and disciplines. The instrument is simple to administer, and its responses are straightforward to process, being considerably less onerous both to students and teachers than cognitive assessments. In Kenya, students from the two showed relatively high scores on deep' approaches and very low scores on surface approaches, whereas students in Kenya demonstrated the opposite pattern (i.e. high surface scores and low deepscores). But in Ghana, students scored positively on both surface and deep approaches to learning in comparison with the other participating countries.

Dolmans et al (2016) used a systematic review of the literature of studies published between 1900 and 2015 to investigate the effects of problem-based learning (PBL) on students' deep and surface approaches to learning. Studies were searched dealing with PBL and students' approaches to learning. Twenty-one studies were included. The results indicate that PBL does enhance deep learning with a small positive average effect size of .11 and a positive effect in eleven of the 21 studies. Four studies show a decrease in deep learning and six studies show no effect. PBL does not seem to affect surface learning as indicated by a very small average effect size (.08) and eleven studies showing no increase in the surface approach. Six studies demonstrate a decrease and four (4), an increase in surface learning. It is concluded that PBL does seem to enhance deep learning and has little effect on surface learning.

In Denmark, Hermann, McCune and Bager-Elsborg (2017) investigated the approaches to learning as predictors of academic achievement.

Data was collected from a sample of 3626 students using the adapted Approaches to Learning and Studying Inventory (ASSIST, Entwistle & McCune, 2004). Percentages and frequencies were used for the analysis and regression analysis was also used. The study found no statistically significant correlation between academic achievement and the deep approach scale.

Interestingly, the effect of the surface approach on academic achievement varied across programmes.

In Ghana, Azewara, Agyeman, Dawson-Ahmoah, Adusei and TwumAmpofo (2021) explored the use of surface and deep learning strategies of students in two Colleges of Education. They used Biggs et al.'s Revised Study Questionnaire (2001) to investigate whether student-teachers adopt a predominantly surface or deep learning approach in their studies. A quantitative cross-sectional design allowed for data to be collected with a questionnaire from 332 participants. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests were used to examine participants' age, sex and level of study in correlation with their learning approaches (Deep or Surface). Their responses were analysed using descriptive statistics. A significant difference in the Deep learning approach was found between males and females in both schools ($p = 0.47$). However, there was no significant difference between age, level and learning approach. Findings suggest that trainee-teachers appear to adopt deep learning strategies in their studies and that this approach to learning was used regardless of the programme of study. The study also found that there were no statistically significant differences between the learning approaches of students and their schools. The results also showed that students used both deep and

surface learning approaches. However, the majority of them adopted the deep learning approach rather than the surface approach.

In another study conducted in Ghana, Owusu, Kwakye, Bekoe and Welbeck (2019) explored the learning approaches of students and examined the differences in the learning styles of students based on their demographic characteristics. They used the Approaches and Studies Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST) scale, in collecting data from 366 students. The ASSIST scale is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from never to always. Means and standard deviation were used for the analysis of the data. The overall mean value for the strategic approach is higher than that of the deep approach to study.

The results of the study suggest that the dominant approach to learning by most students in Ghana is the strategic approach, while the surface approach is less popular among the sampled students. The results further show that students are more strategic in their approaches to study than being deep. They further argued that the result is not surprising but rather a reflection of the focus of the Ghanaian education system which places more emphasis on passing examinations rather than seeking to gain knowledge. It is a common practice to find most students go the extra mile to make the best grades in their examinations and thus, would seek to study primarily for examination purposes. Students would not find it necessary to study an area for a given course if they find out they would not be examined in that area irrespective of how exciting or beneficial it would be to them in their career development.

Studies on Instructional Supervision

In Tanzania, Mwakajitu and Lekule (2022) examined the extent to which instructional supervision contributes to the enhancement of teachers' professional development in public secondary schools. For this study, instructional supervision refers to overseeing instruction as a means to promote teachers' professional growth and ensure effective teaching and learning. The study was guided by instructional leadership theory that was developed by Ronald Edmonds in the year 1970. The study adopted a mixed research approach with a convergent parallel design. Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires and analysed using descriptive statistics. Qualitative data were collected through interviews and analysed thematically. A sample of 92 respondents included one District Education Officer (DEO), one District Quality Assurance Officer (DQAO), three Ward Education Officers (WEOs), four heads of schools and eighty-three teachers were involved. Stratified, simple random and purposive sampling was used to select the desired number of respondents.

The findings indicated that instructional supervision contributes to enhancing teachers' ability to use different instructional methods, ability to prepare teaching materials and enhance teaching performance. The study revealed most teachers (78.3%) were of the view that instructional supervision enhanced their professional development greatly in the preparation of teaching materials such as schemes of work and lesson plans. Qualitative data which was collected through interviews revealed that instructional supervision enhanced teachers' professional development to a great extent

In Ghana, Ankoma-Sey and Maina (2019) examined the role of supervision on academic performance in Senior High Schools (SHS) in Ghana. The study was based on the collegial model of educational management and the supervision model, Theory Y as proposed by Douglas McGregor. A descriptive research survey design was employed and 963 respondents were purposively selected from randomised schools in each region comprising headmasters, assistants and heads of department from 155 Senior High Schools across Ghana. Mean, standard deviation, correlation and independent t-tests were used in the analyses of data. The study revealed that there was a positive weak significant relationship between the supervision roles of heads and academic performance of students. There was a positive weak significant relationship between the gender of heads and their supervision roles. They indicated that currently in Ghana, most of the category A and B SHSs are headed by females. It was found that there is no difference in terms of the supervision roles among the category of school heads and the academic performance of SHS students. Headmasters, assistants and heads of departments do not understand their roles as supervisors.

Salifu (2018) employed a mixed method design to assess the core roles of supervisors in the Ghana Education Service (GES) and how effective these roles are discharged as well as the effects of the core roles of teachers on pupils' academic performance. The sample for data collection was one hundred and fifty (150) respondents (20 GES officials, 40 teachers, 40 parents and 50 students) Random and stratified sampling techniques were used in the selection of respondents. A semi-structured questionnaire and an interview guide were used in collecting data for the study. The data were analysed using

means, standard deviation, percentages and frequency. The study found that the majority (75%) of the respondents (GES district education officials, classroom teachers and parents) were not aware of the existence and their supervisory role.

It emerged from the study that bodies such as the National Inspectorate Board, the Regional Monitoring Team, the District Education Oversight Committee, School Management Committees and Parent-Teacher Associations have not been effective in discharging their supervisory roles and responsibilities. The data show that head teachers' pay much attention to supervising teachers' school attendance and lesson notes. The data were analysed using means, standard deviation, percentages and frequency.

In Ghana, Ampofo, Onyango and Ogola (2019), assessed the influence of school heads' direct supervision on teacher role performance in public senior high schools. The study adopted the embedded mixed methods design. The proportional allocation method and simple random and purposive sampling were used to select a sample of 617 respondents comprising 295 teachers, 222 class prefects, 86 Heads of Department, 13 school heads and 1 Regional Director for the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service. Data were collected through questionnaires and interview guides. Quantitative data were analyzed using frequencies, means and multiple regression whereas patterns and themes were developed for the analysis of qualitative data.

The study found that school heads allocated very little time for supervision of lesson planning and delivery of teachers. The teachers involved in the study expressed a mostly negative reaction to the lesson planning

supervision they received from their school heads since most of the responses had mean values ranging between 2.45 and 2.54. The study established that school heads' lesson planning supervision ($p = 0.043 < .05$) and lesson delivery supervision ($p = .035 < .05$) had a significant influence on teacher role performance. Again, school heads were ranked highest for ensuring that the teachers' lesson objectives were clear and achievable ($M = 2.98$) and least in helping teachers select appropriate teaching/learning resources was ranked least. The study revealed that school heads did not undertake lesson delivery supervision as appropriately as expected. The focus was mainly on teachers keeping to the instructional time indicated on the timetable. The study indicated that school heads usually offer supervision to teachers in the form of supervising their assessment practices by vetting their continuous assessment records. The study found that there was a statistically significant effect of school heads' direct supervision of teachers on teacher role performance

In Ghana, Owusus-Addo, Yeboah and Addai-Amoah (2022) examined supervisory styles and teacher commitment in senior high schools. 152 teachers were sampled using the proportionate sampling technique to respond to the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (regression analysis and ANOVA) were used for the analysis. Five forms of supervision: Clinical, Collegial, Self-Directed, Informal and Inquiry-Based Supervision constituted the supervisory styles assessed (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

The findings indicated that all the supervisory types were perceived to be practised in the schools. Inquiry-based supervision, however, was adjudged the most practised supervisory type in the schools. This implies that the

various schools mostly practice supervision in the form of action research which is an option that can represent an individual initiative or a collaborative effort as pairs or teams of teachers work together to solve problems. It was also revealed that only clinical supervision significantly contributes to the prediction of teacher commitment in schools. Collegial supervision made the lowest unique contribution to explaining teachers' commitment.

In Ghana, Kwapong and Mensah (2018) sought to measure head Teachers' instructional supervisory practices on teacher performance in public basic schools in the Effutu Municipality. The study used a descriptive survey design, questionnaire and simple random sampling technique to collect data from 195 teachers and 23 Headteachers. Frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were used to analyse the background characteristics of the respondents, head teachers' supervisory practices and teacher performance. Pearson moment correlation s was used to determine the association between head teachers' supervisory practices and teacher performance in the study area.

The results revealed that in general, the head teachers of the basic schools in the Effutu Municipality “often” performed their instructional supervisory roles. The head teachers “often” perform their instructional supervisory roles by monitoring the academic progress of students, ensuring the organization of teaching and curriculum timetables and setting target performance for teachers. Also, the head teachers “sometimes” provide orientation for new teaching staff and in-service training for teachers. The results of the study on the instructional supervisory activities of head teachers of the public basic schools revealed that overall; the head teacher „often’

performed their instructional supervisory activities. Even though, the head teachers “often” checked record of work and protected instruction time, they “always” checked teachers’ scheme of work and teacher punctuality.

Studies on Problems and Ways to Improve Instructional Supervision

In Sri Lanka, Weerakoon (2017) focused on the issues encountered by supervisors and teachers in the instructional supervision process of the schools. Using a descriptive mixed method design, a sample of 10 head teachers, 18 assistants, 28 heads of departments and 142 teachers used engaged in data collection through questionnaires and interviews. The study found that the majority (80%) of head teachers had the problem of inexperienced and incompetent supervisors. However, the interview data pointed out that the lack of experienced senior teachers is responsible for the non-establishment of an ineffective supervisory team in the school. It has been identified that nearly 60% of principals had difficulty in allocating time for the instructional supervision process as a second important issue. The data further revealed that negative attitudes and unhappiness of teachers concerning instructional supervision was another important issue faced by principals (50%).

The study found that nearly 46.1 % of Vice Principals and 30.4% of heads of department faced the problem of other administrative workloads, lack of formal training for supervisors, negative attitudes concerning the supervision of teachers and absenteeism of teachers during supervision. Again, absence of teachers at the point of supervision, lack of resources (learning materials, classroom facility, etc.), not being given sufficient time for the instructional supervision process (40.7%) and lack of pedagogical knowledge

on instructional supervision (41.2%) affected the instructional supervision process. The study revealed that nearly 61 % of teachers faced problems relating to a lack of pedagogical knowledge of supervisors and nearly 55.8 % of teachers faced problems with the fact of not having subject specialists for the instructional supervision process.

In Ghana, Brako (2020) assessed the nature of instructional supervision on teaching and learning at Lutheran Schools in the Greater Accra Region, Ghana. The study focused on types of instructional supervision and their effects on teaching and learning. Using a simple random sampling technique, 86 respondents comprising 79 facilitators, 5 Heads of Department and 2 Supervisors of Studies were selected to respond to the questionnaires. The mixed-method research design was used for the study; with descriptive and analytical research methods. The research instrument used was a questionnaire. The findings of the study indicated some challenges as job overload for instructional supervisors, inadequate teaching and learning resources and indiscipline among some teachers.

In Kenya, Atieno (2019), identified challenges encountered in undertaking instructional supervisory roles in public secondary schools. A descriptive mixed-method survey design was used. The sample comprised the following: 38 principals, 151 heads of departments and 289 teachers. Stratified random sampling was used in selecting schools. Simple random sampling was used to select principals, heads of departments and teachers for the study. The instruments used to collect data were an interview guide for principals and a questionnaire for principals, heads of departments and teachers.

The study found that the majority (73.5%) of the principals agreed that insufficient funds for training on how to conduct instructional supervision, (70.6%) a heavy workload, (67.6%) under-staffing and overloaded curriculum and (55.9%) a lack of enough time and dealing with overworked teachers were part of the challenges experienced with instructional supervision. Other challenges were deplorable working conditions in their schools, lack of appropriate office facilities and equipment, crowded and under-furnished classrooms, attrition of teachers and inadequate teaching/learning materials.

Studies on Instructional Practice and Students' Approaches to Learning

In Malaysia, Chetty, Handayani, Sahabudin, Ali, Hamzah, Rahman and Kasim (2019) investigated the relationship between students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. The sample size was five (5) lecturers and 251 students responded to the VAK Learning Style Survey and Teaching Style Survey. The study found a significant relationship between learning styles and teaching styles because they can increase or decrease students' academic performances. They concluded teachers' use of different teaching styles enables students to understand lessons in different ways. Students are assisted in the process of understanding what the teachers are trying to deliver in a way that suits their learning style/approach. The study also found that there was an impact on academic performance among students when a mismatch occurred between the learning style and teaching style. It was observed that most teachers did not use a multiple teaching method to match the learning style preference of students. Instead, most of them employed only a single style of teaching. As a result, there was a mismatch between the student's learning style preferences and the teacher's instructional practice.

In China, Zhou (2011) investigated learning styles and teaching styles in college English teaching. Studies show that matching teaching styles to learning styles can significantly enhance academic achievements, student attitude and student behaviour at the college level. This is not to say that the best thing one can do for one's students is to use their preferred modes of instruction exclusively. A point no educational psychologist would dispute is that students learn more when information is presented in a variety of modes than when only a single mode is used. The point is supported by a research study carried out several decades ago, which concluded that students retain 10% of what they read, 26% of what they hear, 30% of what they see, 50% of what they see and hear, 70% of what they say and 90% of what they say as they do something (Stice, 1987).

In Indonesia, Agustrianita, Suherdi and Purnawarman (2019) investigated teachers' perceptions of learning style, their teaching, and the applied methods in the classroom. The research approach was purely quantitative descriptive research approach. The sample for the study was 28 teachers who responded to a 5-point Likert scale type ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Frequencies and percentages were used for the analysis. The findings of this study suggested that teachers adapt their students' learning styles to their teaching. Teachers' perception of students' learning styles can increase their awareness to design teaching methods that differentiate students' learning styles.

In Ghana, Owusu (2018), investigated the teaching methods and learning strategy of students. As part of the hypothesis for the study, he tested whether teaching methods predict Economics students' learning styles. They

used an explanatory sequential design and a sample of 668 students who responded to a questionnaire. Regression analysis was used in testing the hypothesis. The study found a teaching methods used by the Economics teacher predict the learning style of his or her students. In the various learning strategies such as cognitive, meta-cognitive and resource management were all predicted by teaching methods used by teachers. Specifically, when studentcentred method is used, students' use of cognitive learning strategy increased more than when teacher-centred method was used. Again, when teachercentred method was used, students' use of the meta-cognitive learning strategy increased more than when student-centred strategy was used. The use of resource management learning strategy increased when teacher-centred method was used than when student-centred method was used. The study concluded that the way students learn is influenced by the instructional practice of teachers.

Chapter Summary

Various theories in relation to the study were discussed. The relationship between teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning Economics, within the framework of constructivist learning theories was discussed. It introduces a conceptual framework illustrating this relationship, influenced by environmental factors like instructional supervision. The study explores how teacher practices affect student learning approaches, emphasizing the importance of student-centered instructional practices. It highlights the significance of effective instructional strategies, classroom management techniques, and curriculum design in promoting student learning. The text also presents various learning theories, including

behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism, and their implications for teaching practices in contemporary education. Furthermore, it addresses instructional supervision, distinguishing it from inspection, and outlines its role in supporting teachers for professional development and improving the teaching-learning process. Principles of instructional supervision, such as focusing on improving instruction, supporting teachers, and being flexible, are also discussed. It also underscores the dynamic nature of teaching and learning, influenced by various factors, and advocates for an approach to education that promotes active engagement, individual and social learning, and recognizes learner differences as valuable resources.

The studies discussed examine teacher instructional practices and their impact on student academic performance across various countries. In the Philippines, Francisco and Celon (2020) found that while teachers frequently engaged in planning, teaching, and assessment practices, these did not significantly affect student academic performance. Similarly, in another study by Bibon (2021), occasional use of instructional practices was observed, which did not meet educational standards. In Uganda, Muganga and Ssenkusu (2019) discovered that although some student-centered activities were present, the majority of students perceived learning as teacher-centered. In Norway, Svanes and Klette (2018) noted variations in teachers' instructional support during seatwork, with emotional support being minimal. Olayar (2021) in Japan found that instructional practices correlated strongly with students' academic performance in English. In the USA, Osborne (2021) found that both teacher-centered and student-centered instructional practices influenced student mathematics achievement, with variations across schools due to

contextual factors. Serin (2018) highlights the essential role of teachers in effective learning despite the shift towards student-centered approaches. Bondie et al. (2019) emphasize the importance of diverse instructional strategies for better student achievement. Baafi (2020) in Ghana found that student-centered instructional strategies positively impacted students' learning achievement. Overall, the studies emphasize the importance of balancing teacher-directed and student-centered instructional practices for optimal student success, with contextual factors playing a significant role in shaping instructional approaches.

The studies discussed examine how teacher instructional practices impact student academic performance in different countries. In the Philippines, Francisco and Celon (2020) and Bibon (2021) found that despite teachers frequently engaging in planning, teaching, and assessment practices, these did not significantly affect student academic performance, indicating a gap between practice and outcomes. In Uganda, Muganga and Ssenkusu (2019) found that although some student-centered activities existed, most students perceived learning as teacher-centered, suggesting a need for more student involvement in the learning process. In Norway, Svanes and Klette (2018) observed variations in teachers' support during seatwork, highlighting the importance of emotional support in the classroom. Olayar (2021) in Japan discovered a strong correlation between instructional practices and students' academic performance in English, underlining the impact of effective teaching methods. In the USA, Osborne (2021) found that both teacher-centered and student-centered instructional practices influenced student mathematics achievement, with differences across schools due to contextual factors. Serin

(2018) emphasizes the crucial role of teachers in effective learning despite the trend towards student-centered approaches. Bondie et al. (2019) stress the need for diverse instructional strategies to enhance student achievement. Baafi (2020) in Ghana found that student-centered instructional strategies positively affected students' learning outcomes. Overall, these studies underscore the importance of balancing teacher-directed and student-centered instructional practices for optimal student success, with contextual factors shaping instructional approaches.

The studies reviewed offer insights into how teacher instructional practices impact student academic performance across diverse settings. In the Philippines, Francisco and Celon (2020) as well as Bibon (2021) observed that despite teachers' consistent engagement in planning, teaching, and assessment, there was no significant improvement in student academic performance, indicating a disconnect between practice and outcomes. In Uganda, Muganga and Ssenkusu (2019) noted that while some student-centered activities were present, students predominantly perceived learning as teacher-centered, suggesting a need for greater student involvement in the learning process. In Norway, Svanes and Klette (2018) highlighted variations in teachers' support during seatwork, emphasizing the importance of emotional support in fostering a conducive learning environment. Olayar's study (2021) in Japan revealed a strong correlation between instructional practices and students' academic performance in English, highlighting the crucial role of effective teaching methods. Similarly, Osborne's research (2021) in the USA demonstrated that both teacher-centered and student-centered instructional practices influenced student mathematics achievement, with variations across

schools influenced by contextual factors. Serin (2018) emphasized the indispensable role of teachers in effective learning, despite the growing emphasis on student-centered approaches. Bondie et al. (2019) advocated for the adoption of diverse instructional strategies to enhance student achievement. Baafi's findings (2020) in Ghana supported the positive impact of student-centered instructional strategies on students' learning outcomes. Overall, these studies underscore the importance of striking a balance between teacher-directed and student-centered instructional practices to promote optimal student success, recognizing the influence of contextual factors in shaping instructional approaches.

In Sri Lanka, Weerakoon (2017) examined issues in instructional supervision, finding that many head teachers faced problems due to inexperienced and incompetent supervisors, often caused by a lack of experienced senior teachers. Additionally, principals struggled with time allocation for supervision and encountered negative attitudes from teachers regarding supervision. Vice Principals and heads of departments also faced challenges such as administrative workloads, lack of formal training, and absenteeism during supervision. Teachers experienced difficulties related to supervisors' pedagogical knowledge and the absence of subject specialists for supervision.

In Ghana, Brako (2020) assessed instructional supervision in Lutheran Schools, identifying challenges including job overload for supervisors, inadequate teaching resources, and teacher indiscipline. In Kenya, Atieno (2019) explored challenges in instructional supervision in public secondary schools. Principals highlighted issues such as insufficient funds for training,

heavy workloads, under-staffing, and a lack of time. Other challenges included poor working conditions, inadequate facilities, overcrowded classrooms, teacher attrition, and insufficient teaching materials. Overall, these studies reveal common challenges in instructional supervision across different countries, including issues with supervisor competence, time management, resource allocation, and teacher attitudes. Addressing these challenges is crucial for improving the effectiveness of instructional supervision and ultimately enhancing teaching and learning outcomes.

In Malaysia, Chetty et al. (2019) explored the relationship between students' learning styles and teachers' teaching styles. They found that matching teaching styles to learning styles significantly impacted students' academic performance. However, they noted a mismatch between student preferences and teacher instructional practices, as most teachers tended to use only a single teaching style. Similarly, in China, Zhou (2011) investigated learning styles and teaching styles in college English teaching, highlighting the importance of using a variety of instructional modes to enhance learning outcomes. Research indicated that students retain more information when presented in multiple modes compared to a single mode. In Indonesia, Agustrianita et al. (2019) examined teachers' perceptions of students' learning styles and their teaching methods. They found that teachers adapted their teaching to accommodate students' learning styles, enhancing their awareness to design teaching methods accordingly. In Ghana, Owusu (2018) investigated the relationship between teaching methods and students' learning strategies, particularly in Economics education. The study revealed that teaching methods influenced students' cognitive, meta-cognitive, and resource management

learning strategies. Specifically, student-centered methods increased cognitive learning strategy usage, while teacher-centered methods increased meta-cognitive learning strategy usage. Overall, these studies emphasize the importance of aligning teaching methods with students' learning styles to enhance academic performance. They underscore the role of teachers in shaping students' learning experiences and highlight the need for diverse instructional approaches to cater to varying learning preferences.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Overview

This study investigated teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning Economics. I focused on the nature of instructional practice, its instructional supervision and influence on how students learn Economics. This chapter describes the steps that were followed in gathering data for the study. Specifically, it covers the research philosophy, research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, the instruments used in the data collection, pilot testing of instruments, administration of instruments, and data analysis. The credibility of the qualitative data and the ethical issues related to the study have been presented and duly discussed in this chapter as well. A chapter summary which provides a recapitulation of the main points discussed in this chapter have also been provided.

Research Philosophy

The philosophy for this study was pragmatism because it sought to investigate teacher instructional practice and its influence on students' approaches to learning. Pragmatists are of the view that the world is not only accessible by one scientific method because the truth regarding any research question under investigation is "what works" and not the contentious issues of truth and reality. In other words, pragmatism bridges the gap between what might be the contentious issues of truth and reality (from an empirical singular scientific research approach) and the free inquiry of qualitative research theories (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this study, the focus was not necessarily on the suggested teaching activities and methods found in the

Economics syllabus but it was to investigate what instructional practice works in the teaching and learning of Economics for both students and teachers. I investigated whether what was known to be true about teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning was the reality in teaching and learning of Economics. Using both quantitative and qualitative research theories, pragmatism helped to conceptualise the contentious issues of truth and reality of teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning Economics. These contentious issues were captured in the research questions and hypotheses of the study.

Johnson et al. (2007) indicated that pragmatism is an advanced philosophy that provides the epistemology and the logic for combining quantitative and qualitative approaches and methods. This study combines both quantitative and qualitative methods of research in finding answers to its research questions. Pragmatism is “the philosophical partner” of the mixed research approach because it has underlying assumptions that are very helpful when mixing research methods (Denscombe, 2008; Mitchell, 2018). These assumptions are derived from what works and not from mere speculations. Pragmatism is simply oriented toward solving practical problems in the real world rather than being built on assumptions about the nature of knowledge (Creswell, 2014; Hall, 2013; Shannon-Baker, 2016). This means that pragmatism produces “action-oriented” research procedures (Cameron, 2011). Instructional practice of teachers and students' approaches to learning are action-oriented and not about speculations on teaching and learning. The use of pragmatism was for the benefit of generating practical insights into the real

world of the teacher's instructional practice and students' approaches to learning.

Pragmatism uses mixed methods as it seeks to go beyond truth and reality to what really works as the truth regarding research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The philosophy is based on ontological, epistemological and axiological stances. Pragmatic researchers view and use multiple ontological positions located in the middle of the objectivity-subjectivity continuum. Maarouf (2019) conceptualizes this ontological stance as the reality cycle. The reality cycle is built on the existence of one reality in a certain context and multiple perceptions of this reality by other social actors but not the existence of multiple realities based on researchers' construction of reality. Epistemologically, pragmatists see knowledge as both observable and unobservable, with the main concern of choosing the most appropriate research method for addressing them. The axiological stance of pragmatic researcher should be biased only by the degree necessary to enhance the research and helps to answer research questions.

There are two main advantages of using the mixed research approach for this current study (Sale et al., 2002). The first advantage is the complementary strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods to each other. Mixed researchers believe that using only quantitative or qualitative research is limited and incomplete for many research problems. As every approach has its strengths and weaknesses; they should be combined in a way that improves research quality by gaining integral strengths and avoiding overlapping weaknesses (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Sale et al., 2002).

Using only questionnaires for this study will limit the collection of further information that could be gathered through observation and interviews. The complementary strength of the mixed method approach helped I to gather a more detailed data from participants for the study.

The second advantage is “triangulation” which is meant to enrich and strengthen research results by using different methods of data collection and analysis to study the same phenomenon in order to gain a complete understanding of this phenomenon. Triangulation is also used to check on findings from a particular method with finding reached by another (Glogowska, 2011; Greener, 2008; Molina-Azorin, 2016; Sale et al., 2002). For this study, the use of the mixed method approach allowed I use questionnaires, interviews and observations in data collection and analysed the instructional practice of teachers to gain a complete understanding.

From the other side, implementing the mixed research approach is faced by two main challenges. First, the mixed research approach needs more time, effort, and money as it includes at least two phases of research (MolinaAzorin, 2016). In dealing with this challenge, I adopted the guidelines suggested by Ivankova *et al.* (2006):

- i. I ensured that data was the priority in the research design, data collection and data analysis phases of the study.
- ii. The implementation of these three phases were carefully determined and carried out concurrently with all the resources needed.
- iii. The quantitative and qualitative research approaches were integrated during the data analysis phase.

Second, it requires I to expand his research skills, talents and experiences by learning about new research methods and techniques in order to be qualified to conduct both the quantitative and qualitative parts of research (Fetters and Molina-Azorin, 2017b; Molina-Azorin, 2016). This last challenge, in particular, should be seen as an opportunity, as many researchers tend to keep using the same research methods and avoid learning about new ways of doing research which limits their chances of adopting a wide range of research problems (Molina-Azorin, 2016).

Research Design

The convergent parallel design was employed for this study to help me gain an in-depth understanding of the topic. A convergent parallel design allowed me to concurrently conduct the quantitative and qualitative elements in the same phase of the research process, weigh the methods equally, analyse the two datasets independently, and interpret the results together (Creswell & Pablo-Clark, 2011). With the purpose of corroboration and validation, I triangulated the methods by directly comparing the quantitative statistical results and qualitative findings (Barnes, 2019). In this research process, the concurrent triangulation design was used to obtain two datasets, analysed separately, and compared. Therefore, the convergent parallel design was used for this study because it yielded rich data that helped in making important recommendations.

Issues of Procedure in using Convergent Parallel Design

The steps in using convergent parallel design had to do with data priority, implementation of the design and integration of research methods (Creswell *et al.* 2011; Ivankova & Stick, 2006; Gambrel & Butler, 2013; Morgan, 2007).

Priority

Priority has to do with which of the approach (either quantitative, qualitative or both) I must give attention to during the data collection and analysis process. According to Morgan (2007), priority which deals with data collection and data analysis, depends on the purpose of the study and the research questions to be addressed. In this study, the purpose was to ascertain teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning Economics. I therefore gave priority to both the quantitative and the qualitative data (Creswell, 2003).

During the quantitative phase, data from students were collected using questionnaires and analysed to help understand the variables of this study. The qualitative data was from the classroom observation and interview of Economics teachers to also foster a deeper understanding of the variables of this study. The interview data and classroom observation notes were converted into word documents for easy analysis.

Implementation

Implementation deals with when the data types were collected. According to Creswell (2003), implementation tells whether qualitative or quantitative data comes first, second or concurrently in the data collection phase. Guided by the purpose of this study: examining teacher instructional practice, its supervision and influence on students' approaches to learning Economics, I collected the qualitative and quantitative data concurrently. These two types of data collection were concurrent but separate; one did not depend on the results of the other. They also had equal importance in addressing the research questions. Figure 2 shows a scheme of the

implementation procedure of the convergent parallel design employed in this study.

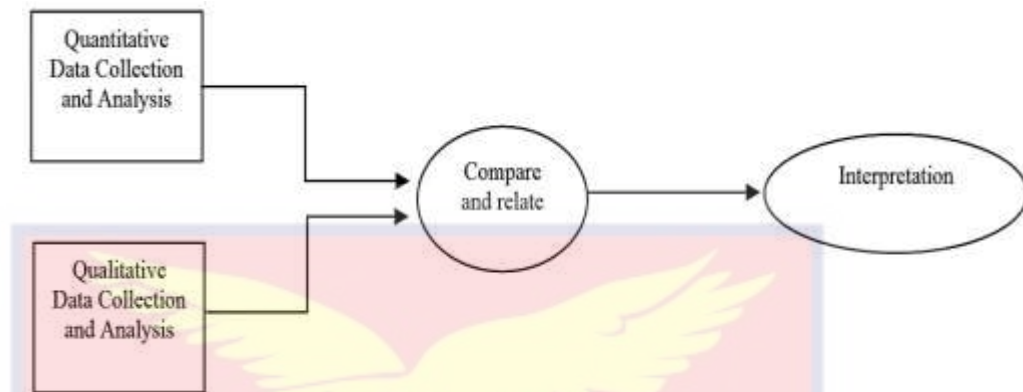


Figure 2: A scheme of the Convergent Parallel Design

Source: Creswell (2012, p. 69)

From Figure 2, both the quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently and separately. I analysed the two datasets separately and independently from each other using quantitative and qualitative analytic procedures. I compared them and related the results of the two datasets. I directly compare the separate results to relate the two data types during additional analysis. In the final step, I interpreted how two sets of results converge, diverge from each other, or relate to each other, and combined them to create a better understanding of the purpose of the study.

Integration

Creswell *et al.* (2011) explain integration in mixed methods research as “the process of grouping evidence and labelling ideas so that they reflect increasingly broader perspective” (p. 208). I interpreted the quantitative data and the themes of the qualitative data, then I linked them through comparative figure and explanatory interpretations. Using joint-display analysis, I was able to merge both datasets in line with the purpose of the design (Creswell *et al.* 2011).

Study Area

The Cape Coast Metropolis was the area for the study. The Metropolis is renowned for its many elite higher educational institutions and is an economy full of tourist sites. Many tourists stream to the Metropolis throughout the year due to its castles, forts, monkey sanctuaries, national parks, and beaches stretching along its coastline (GES, 2008). It is one of the 261 Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in Ghana and forms parts of the 22 MMDAs in Central Region. The Metropolis covers an area of 122 square kilometres and is the smallest Metropolis in the country.

It is located on longitude 115W and latitude 5.06N. Its administrative capital is Cape Coast. The population according to the 2021 population and housing census is 189,925 with 92,790 males and 97,135 females. It is bounded on the south by the Atlantic, on the west by Komenda Edina Equafo Abrem Municipal, on the east by Abura-Asebu Kwamankese and on north the by Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District (GES, 2008).

The Metropolis has long been noted as the hub of Ghana's education since it has most of the best schools in the country. Schools such as Mfantsipim School, St. Augustine College, Holy Child Girls High School, Adisadel College, and Wesley Girls High School have excelled at the WASSCE. However, there are also some schools in the Metropolis which do not perform well in terms of academic work. As a result of this academic dichotomy, a lot of parents refuse to patronize schools perceived to be low performing ones in the Metropolis. Also, there is a perception that most of the schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis attract the best teachers because of easy

access to professional teachers from the University of Cape Coast which is in the same Metropolis.

According to the Annual School Census for Senior High Schools 2007/2008 undertaken by the Cape Coast Metropolitan Education Office, there are ten (10) Senior High Schools in the Metropolis. These schools have boarding/hostel and day facilities for students. The Category A schools such as Mfantsipim School, Wesley Girls High School, Adisadel College, St Augustine College and Holy Child School have an enviable reputation for producing many prominent Ghanaians who have distinguished themselves in their fields of endeavours. Students who get placed in such schools had very good results in the BECE. Those in Category B schools are Ghana National College, University Practice Senior High School and Category C schools: Effutu Senior High School, Oguaa Senior High and Technical School, Academy of Christ the King High School are mostly students who performed above average or a little below average in the BECE. Economics teachers in all these schools are expected to possess certification in Economics from a tertiary educational institution such as a university. Some of these teachers are professionally trained educators, others are not.

Population

The target population for the study was all Senior High School Economics teachers and their students in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the 2021/2022 academic year. The accessible population of teachers was 64 Economics teachers including trainee-teachers and national service personnel.

The accessible population of students was 3,464 third year Economics students in the Cape Coast Metropolis (EMIS, CENTRAL, 2021). These third

year (final year) students were selected because they were deemed to have had enough experiences in Economics education. They were also in a better position to respond to the pertinent issues on the instructional practices of their teachers and their own approaches to learning. The age range of the students is from 16 to 20. Economics students in these schools are either reading General Arts, Business or Home Economics. Some of the Category A schools had some Economics students offering General Science and Visual Arts. I considered how some demographic variables such as school type (GES categorisation), gender (both students and teachers), teaching experience, teacher educational qualification and age of students were related to instructional practice and students' approaches to learning.

Sampling Procedure

The sample size for the qualitative data was done through criterion sampling technique. Out of a total of 64 Economics teachers, 33 of the teachers were selected for the study.

The determination of the sample size for the quantitative data was done using Krejcie and Morgan (1970). With a population size of 3464 third year Economics students, the sample size was 346 students. This sample size was suitable due to the needs of the study, the number of variables, the nature of the analysis, the sample sizes used in similar studies, completion rates, and resource constraints (Dhutup, 2015; Malhotra, 1999). Over-sampling can add cost to the data collection process but its benefit is worth the cost.

The qualitative aspect of this engaged teachers, Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department. Criterion sampling was used to determine this study

group. The basic criteria for determining the participants include the following:

- a. Being an Economics teacher of the selected students for the study
- b. Having taught the selected students from their first year
- c. Volunteering to participate in the study
- d. Being a Head teacher/assistant or Head of Department who is responsible for instructional supervision.

Cape Coast Metropolis had a total of 64 Economics teachers for the 2021/2022 academic year. There were also 21 National service personnel and about 5 off-campus teaching practice Economics students. Per the criteria for sampling, the 21 National Service personnel and the 5 Trainee-Economics teachers were not sampled for the study. Economics teachers who were willing to express their views, and accepted in-class observations were those finally recruited for the qualitative interviews and observations. According to Lee, Woo and Mackenzie (2002), studies that employ more than one method need fewer participants hence the number of participants for this study.

In sum, the total number of teachers used for the study were 33 (thirty (30) Economics teachers and three (3) supervisors). Out of them, a simple random sampling based on the Ghana Education Service school categorization of A, B and C was used to select three (3) for observation and interview, one was selected from each school category. In addition, three (3) supervisors of the teachers selected for observation and interview were also sampled for interview. These were three (3) head teachers/assistants and heads of departments.

The quantitative aspect of the study was made up of students and teachers. Thirty (30) teachers who were selected using the criterion sampling technique also responded to a questionnaire. The 346-sample size determined using Krejcie & Morgan (1970) was sampled proportionated from the ten schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. All the 10 schools in the Metropolis were selected for the study. The proportionate sampling procedure was used to select the total number of Form 3 Economics students from each of the ten public senior high schools.

Table 1: Breakdown of Respondents from all Public SHS in the Cape Coast Metropolis

SN	Name of School	N	n
1	Mfantsipim School	245	25
2	Ghana National College	381	38
3	Adisadel College	462	46
4	St' Augustine's College	413	41
5	Holy Child School	432	43
6	Wesley Girls High School	380	38
7	University Practice Senior High School	475	48
8	Oguaa Secondary Technical School	342	34
9	Effutu Senior High School	421	42
10	Academy of Christ the King	158	16
Total		3464	346

Source: Field Data (2023)

Data Collection Instruments

For this study, three instruments were used in collecting data: questionnaire, observation guide and interview guide. Literature showed the availability of very robust standardised questionnaires for measuring the key variables of this current study. Aside the questionnaires, the observation and interview guides were reflective of the research objectives of this study. Under this section, each of the instruments have been described and a justification has been given for its appropriateness for the study.

Questionnaires for Quantitative Data Collection

The Minnesota Effective Practice Instructional Strategies Assessment (MEPISA) by Ford (2018) was adapted to collect quantitative data from student teacher instructional practice. It is a questionnaire that consists of only closed ended test items with a 5-point Likert scale. The 5-point Likert scale required respondents to choose among (4) *Always*, (3) *Often*, (2) *Sometimes*, (1) *Seldom* and (0) *Never* as an option which best represent instructional activities carried out by their teachers. There were 36 items on the questionnaire designed for the students. The original instrument was designed for teachers as respondents but it was adapted for students to prevent the biases that would have posed problems to the study if teachers were made to assess themselves. The reliability score and correlation coefficient of the original instrument was 0.83 which was excellent (Cohen et al. 2009).

Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST) was also been adopted to collect data on approaches to learning Senior High School Economics. It identified the tendencies of students to adopt deep, surface and strategic approaches to learning. A five-point Likert scale was the

technique of measurement for 50 test-items analysed under three domains the instrument namely: Deep, Surface and Strategic approaches to learning. Reliability score and correlation coefficient of this instrument was 0.75 which was very good (Cohen et al., 2009).

The Instructional Supervision scale was derived from Blasé and Blasé, (1999) and Baffour-Awuah (2011). The questionnaire was made up of a 28item questionnaire adapted to examine the incidence of instructional supervision of Economics teachers. Four out of the 28-items are open-ended questions. The remaining 24-items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (always). During the data entries into the statistical software, negative statements were reversed into positive statements. The reliability score and correlation coefficient of the original instrument was 0.72 which was very good (Cohen et al., 2009).

Structure of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires were put together as one questionnaire with each of the three making up a section. In all, there were four sections of the questionnaire for this study, each have a sub-theme. Section A comprised of demography data of students: gender, school type, gender of teacher, and programme of study. Section B consisted of 28 items relating to teacher instructional practice. Section C consisted of 52 items that focused on student approaches to learning Economics. The questionnaire on instructional supervision was made of two sections: section A is the demography data of teachers (sex, age range, educational qualification, years of teaching, supervisor) and section B consisted of 28 items (4 are open-ended).

The benefits of using questionnaire in research like this one is noteworthy. In this study, the use of the questionnaire enabled me to survey the large number of students at a relatively cheaper cost. The questionnaire made it possible for all the students' respondents to furnish the necessary information at their own pace and convenience, thus reducing any biases (Parfitt, 2005; de Vaus, 2002). Also, the close-ended nature of the questionnaire helped greatly in the generating consistent responses and made easier to compare responses. The open-ended question for teachers made it possible for me to gather data from all the teachers who were used for the study.

Some researchers have made mention of certain challenges with the use of questionnaires such as low return rate and in some situations, total refusal of respondents to complete the questionnaire (Bird, 2009). Fortunately, this did not happen in this study because the questionnaire was given directly to the students after seeking their consent to participate in the study. The test items were also made up of simple and clear English language constructions such that no one struggled to understand the test items. The researcher was also available when students were responding to the questionnaire to explain any items on the questionnaire. All these measures helped rule out any form of biases from the respondents and equipped them with all they needed to provide informed responses to all the items on the questionnaire.

Table 2: Questionnaire for Economics Students

Section	No. of items	Measurement Scale	Literature Source	Purpose of items
A	5	Nominal	Tamada, 1996	Bio-data on students (gender, programme of study, teacher's gender, school type)
B	28	Interval	Ford, 2018	Ascertaining teacher instructional practice in teaching Economics
C	52	Interval	Martin and (Säljö, 1976) and Biggs, 1994	Examining students' approaches to learning Economics
Total	85	n/a	n/a	n/a

Source: Author's Construct (2023) NB: n/a means not applicable

Table 3: Questionnaire for Economics Teachers

Section	No. of items	Measurement Scale	Literature Source	Purpose of items
A	6	Nominal	Tamada, 1996	Bio-data on students
B	28	Interval		Ascertaining prevalence of instructional supervision
Total	34	n/a	n/a	n/a

Source: Author's Construct (2023)

NB: n/a means not applicable

Pilot-testing of Instrument

The instruments were pilot-tested to find out their reliability for this current study and also to ensure respondents had no difficulty answering all test items. The pilot test was conducted with respondents from three schools in Mfantseman Municipal Assembly which are Methodist Senior High School, Mfantseman Girls High School and Kwegyir Aggrey High Technical School. The reliability coefficient of the instruments after the pilot testing was 0.84 for student questionnaire and 0.91 for teacher questionnaire.

Development of Observation and Interview Guides

The interview guide had four parts. Part 1 consisted of four items about introductory courtesies, Part 2 on teacher instructional practice. Part 3 on instructional supervision and Part 4 is closure. The observation guide had three areas of concern namely: instructional resources, student-centred instructional practice and teacher-centred instructional practice of Economics teachers.

Data Collection Procedures

In line with the research design chosen for the study (convergent parallel design), the data collection procedures were organized into two phases. The first phase had to do with the collection of quantitative data. The second phase dealt with the qualitative data collection. Aside these phases of the data collection procedures, my role and the ethical issues related to the data collection process are worthy of mention.

Quantitative Data Collection

The quantitative data come from questionnaires administered to students and teachers. A cross-sectional descriptive design was used in collecting the quantitative data. This data was collected by distributing copies

of the cover letter introducing the study, the informed consent form, the research permit and paper-based survey instruments to third year SHS Economics students and teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The data collection began in the latter part of the second term (i.e. March, 2023).

I visited each of the ten schools and administered the questionnaires.

The questionnaires were distributed to students while in class after permission had been sought from their class teachers and they were given ample time to complete the questionnaires; and collected on the same day. This was done to ensure a high return rate.

Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative data was collected through case studies of three Economics teachers. Data collection techniques involved classroom observations of three schools and semi-structured interviews of three Economics teachers and head teachers/assistant and Head of department in the three selected schools used in the study. A brief description of the case study sites, classroom observation procedures and interviews procedures is presented below.

Case Study Sites

Three schools, one from each of the three categories of school according to Ghana Education Service (GES). These schools have been represented with pseudonyms for ethical reasons. They are Daabi SHS, Oho SHS and Yoo SHS representing category A, B, and C schools respectively. The academic performance, and endowment of teaching learning facilities of the schools are reflected by their school category. The average class size ranges from 45 to 60 students.

Daabi SHS is known to admit the best students in Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). Considered as one of the best schools in the nation, it has a history of educating some of the prominent Ghanaians in various fields of work. As a Category A school, it is endowed with teaching learning facilities as compared to the others. The school is known to attract the best teachers. I observed three lessons of Mr. Duku (pseudonym), an Economics teacher, each lesson last about 45 minutes.

Oho SHS is also considered a very good school which admits very good students who did not get the Category A schools of their choice. The school has also produced some of Ghana's finest in the world of work and politics. There are very good teaching learning facilities at the disposal of students. One unique characteristic is that the academic challenge among students is not tough as compared to students in the Category A school. I observed three lessons of Mr Sampson (pseudonym) which lasted for at least 45 minutes each.

Yoo SHS is in Category C which has some basic teaching and learning facilities at the disposal of both students and teachers. The school is noted to admit average and below average performing students. Due to the status of the school, most of their teachers in the school wish to move out to other schools. The level of indiscipline is high as compared to the Categories A and B schools due to the high number day students. Few of the students are exceptionally good and attach diligence to their academic work. I observed three lessons of Mr Yokoso (Pseudonym) which lasted for at least 45 minutes each.

Classroom Observation

I scheduled a convenient time with the three Economics teachers, one from each school. The exact classes for the observation were selected using a typical case purposive sampling because I wanted to observe a typical SHS Economics lesson. The purpose of the classroom observation sessions was to triangulate the responses from the students and teachers. I had a preobservation meeting with the teachers to enlighten them on the purpose of the study. The pre-observation offered me an opportunity to find out from the teachers the objectives for the lesson, the learning difficulties of students, the particular teaching methods and assessment strategy for the lesson. The postobservation meeting was able to help me get feedback from the instructional practice employed by the teacher during the lessons and the challenges, successes and things to improve upon in future lessons. Field notes about the lesson introduction, teaching methods, task and challenges student faced, especially the kind of questions asked during the lessons by both students and teachers were made.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Three (3) teachers and (3) head teachers/assistants/HoDs were selected purposively from each of the three Category of schools for a face-to-face interview session that lasted for about 30 minutes. This afforded me an opportunity to make critical in-depth analysis and reflection of thorough and true accounts. Using an audio recording device on a mobile phone and field notes, I generated the data from the interviewees (Flick, 2014). I recorded responses from each interviewee on instructional supervision, instructional

practice and students' approaches to learning Economics. I used probing questions to elicit more explanations on their responses (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Data Processing and Analysis

Quantitative Data

In preparing for data analysis, the process of activities such editing, coding, data entry and cleaning were followed. The collected data was first organised, documented and edited before analysis begun. As a quality-control measure, the information on the questionnaires were subjected to data editing before it was transferred to the computer for analysis (Sonquist & Dunkelberg, 1977). Data editing enhances the readiness of the data for analysis because it ensured the data was complete, error-free and readable as possible. The editing process started during the process of data collection and continued through to coding of the data. I used dummy coding on SPSS analysis for the variable categories. The categorical variables were assigned 1 and 0. For example, the variable gender, was coded 0 for male and 1 for female. The coding of the Likert scale test items were numerical codes specified directly on the questionnaire.

Data entry was done on SPSS version 22. It was done in two separate computer files in order to compare the two files for non-comparable entries and minimise coding errors. After the data entry, I went over the data thoroughly for errors. Errors that were detected in terms of coding and entry were all resolved. Using the computer, I also did data cleaning to resolve respondent-related errors. Frequency or percentage distributions were created for the univariate analysis of nominal and ordinal scale variables. Data on

interval scale variables were summarized into tables and graphs in terms of the various statistics.

Quantitative Data Processing and Analysis

Using convergent parallel design called for both the quantitative and qualitative data processing and analysis to be done concurrently and independently. The processing and analysis of the quantitative data have been described below and also summarized in Table 7.

Data from Instructional supervision questionnaire administered to teachers was used to measure the instructional supervision Economics teachers. Means, standard deviation, frequencies and percentages were used to ascertain instructional supervision of teaching and learning of economics. To examine students' approaches to learning Economics, students' responses on the approaches towards learning were analysed using means, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages. In ascertaining the students' approaches to learning, principal components analysis was employed on the data collected. Thereafter, students' responses on the instructional practice of their teachers were analysed using means, frequencies and percentages.

Multiple regression was done to examine if there was any probable influence of instructional practice of teachers on students' approaches to learning Economics. A dominance analysis was also conducted to identify the dominant instructional practice.

Table 4: Summary Presentation of Statistical Analysis Procedure for the Study

RQs	Instrument	Statistical Assumption	Tools for Analysis
1	Questionnaire	No assumption	Descriptive statistics: Means and Standard Deviation
2	Questionnaire	No assumption	Descriptive statistics: Means and Standard Deviation, Principal component analysis
3	Questionnaire	No assumption	Descriptive statistics: Means and Standard Deviation
Hyp	Instrument	Statistical Assumption	Tools for Analysis
1	Questionnaire	Univariate and Multivariate Normality test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001)	Multiple Regression
2	Questionnaire	Univariate and Multivariate Normality test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001)	Dominance Analysis

Where RQs = research questions and Hyp = hypothesis

Qualitative Data

In preparing the qualitative data for analysis, the researcher edited the data from the interviews to determine whether the interviews were properly conducted. The researcher evaluated the interview sessions looking out for problems arising from inadequate use of probes to obtain answers to open-ended questions, checking multiple answers to single items and checking

vague answers or inconsistent responses. It was ensured that the schedule for the interview was completed and all missing responses were coded as well. In situations where critical interview items were missing, I contacted the interviewees on them privately.

Steps in the Data Analysis

The qualitative data (observation and interview) were analysed thematically following the steps described by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 82):

1. Familiarizing with the data
2. Generating initial codes
3. Searching for themes
4. Reviewing themes
5. Defining and naming themes and
6. Producing the report

These steps have been described below.

Familiarizing with the Data

In familiarizing with the data, I did repeated reading of the data and searching for meanings and patterns. I also read through the entire dataset at least three times before coding. I did this in order to identify possible patterns. After identifying the possible patterns, I marked out the issues for the coding. With this achieved, I began the formal coding that defined the entire process of analysis. Since the data from the interviews was verbal, I transcribed the spoken words into written form of discourse to conduct the thematic narrative analysis (Jefferson, 2004).

Using the system of transcription notation which is commonly used in most conversation analysis, I was able to capture succinct responses, including

the context of the respondents. The transcripts provided a detailed version of the complex nature of the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewees (Jefferson, 2004). This process was another opportunity for me to also familiarize with the data (Riessman, 1993). With the transcription of the audio recordings, I developed a more methodical understanding of the data, facilitated close-reading and engaged interpretative skills for an apt analysis of the final data (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999).

Generating Initial Codes

At this step, I created an initial list of ideas about what was in the data and what was interesting about them. Codes identify the characteristics of the data (what is known as semantic content or latent) that catches the interest of the researcher such that it becomes the most basic element of the raw data that need assessment in a meaningful way (Boyatzis, 1998). Coding was done to organize the data into meaningful groups (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Tuckett, 2005). I did manual coding by writing notes on the text and analysed data using highlighters to indicate potential patterns to identified segments of the data. The identified codes were matched up with data extracts. This ensured that I had coded all the actual data extracts and collated them within their codes.

The coding of the interview was similar to that of thematic analysis. I developed a coding scheme which require no separate code for every respondent or case but adequately reflected the full range of responses. It help me to put the data in a manageable form as I was able to also retain as much information as possible. Once the data was coded and analysis begun, it become easier combing code categories for purpose of analysis.

By copying extracts of data from individual transcripts and collating each code together in separate computer files, I was able to code as many potential themes or patterns as possible. In the coding, I kept some of the surrounding data so that I could retain accounts which departed from the dominant issues.

Searching for Themes

This step commenced after all the data had been coded and collated, and a long list of different identified codes was made. My focus was to broaden the analysis through themes not codes by sorting out different codes into potential themes and collating all coded extracts within the identified themes. In other words, I analysed all the codes to obtain an overarching theme.

Braun and Wilkinson (2003) suggested visual representation such as tables and mind-maps for sorting the different codes into themes on separate pieces of paper and organising them into theme-piles. At the end, subsumed some of the codes into main themes whiles redundant ones were discarded. I created a miscellaneous category for all the codes which did not identify with the main themes. The ones which perfectly fitted the themes were accepted.

Reviewing Themes

I started thematising and refining the responses of interviewees which had no enough data or too diverse data to support them. I also found responses which could be collapsed into other themes. In line with Patton's dual criteria for judging categories (internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity), I broke down other themes into separate themes. In this way, I was able to

ensure that data within the emerging themes were meaningfully brought together with clear identifiable themes.

I reviewed the themes on two levels. First, I read the collated extracts for each of them and considered whether they formed a coherent pattern. If they did not, I reworked the themes to create a new themes until all the themes adequately captured the contours of the coded data thematic map that was satisfactory. The second level was where I checked the validity of individual themes in relation to the dataset and also found out how the thematic map accurately reflected the meanings evident in the dataset as a whole. I also reread the entire dataset to find out whether the themes fitted the data set and also to code any additional data within the themes in the earlier coding stages.

Defining and Naming Themes

After a satisfactory thematic map of the data, I defined the themes that were used for the analysis. I identified the main issues of each of the themes, re-collated data extracts for each theme and organised them into coherent and internally consistent account with their accompanying narrative.

For each theme, I did a detailed analysis by identifying the narrative about it and how it fitted into the broader narrative told in the data. I also refined some of the themes to find out whether some of them had sub-themes (themes-within-a-theme). In the end, I clearly defined what the themes were or were not by describing how the scope and content of each theme fitted in a number of sentences.

Producing the Report

The report gives a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting write up of the analysis. It provided a sufficient evidence of the

themes within the data. I therefore used vivid examples which captured the important issues without unnecessary complexities. I ensured that thematic extracts were embedded in the analysis of the narrative so that the analytic narrative went beyond the description of the data but made arguments related to the research questions. Table 5 summarizes the procedure for the qualitative analysis in relation to the research questions.

Table 5: Summary of Analysis Procedure for Qualitative Data in relation to Research Questions

RQs	Instruments	Statistical Assumption	Procedure for Analysis
3	Observation, Semi-structured Interviews	No assumption	Thematic Narrative Analysis
4	Observation, Semi-structured Interviews		Thematic Narrative Analysis
5	Observation, Semi-structured Interviews		Thematic Narrative Analysis

Source: Field Data (2023)

Integration of Datasets

The relationship between two or more methods where the different methods retain their paradigmatic nature but are inter-meshed with each other in pursuit of the goal of knowing more is known as integration (Moran-Ellis et al., 2006, p. 51). I integrated the quantitative and qualitative results after concurrent and independent analysis had been done for each datasets (Creswell, 2014). This was done to produce a coherent data while consciously minimising any threats to validity. I combined both datasets from the questionnaire, observation and semi-structured interviews, analysed it independently in line with the research questions and hypotheses. The results were related to explain the variables.

Table 6: Research Process for the Quantitative and Qualitative Phases and Integration of Data for the Study

Dates	Activities	Schools	Duration
	Distribution and collection of questionnaire	1 & 2	One week
	Distribution and collection of questionnaire	3 & 4	One week
	Distribution and collection of questionnaire	5 & 6	One week
	Distribution and collection of questionnaire	7 & 8	One week
	Distribution and collection of questionnaire	9 & 10	One week
	Observation sessions/ Interviews	2, 4, 9	3 Weeks
	Transcription of interview data		1 week
	Analysis of data		4 weeks
	Integration of quantitative and qualitative data, discussion of results		4 weeks

Source: Author, (2023)

Credibility of the Qualitative Data

In ensuring the credibility of the qualitative data, I looked at a number of issues. First was on the observation, I employed two scorers for a class at a particular time to ensure inter-rater reliability. I compared the observations of the scorers to resolve differences in what was observed and rated. Second was the on the interviews, I used Guba and Lincoln's (1989) framework for trustworthiness to ensure credible and dependable findings from the interview. The framework allowed me collect data from teachers and Head teachers/assistants/HoDs using semi-structured interviews (audio recording, notes and transcripts) and compare with the quantitative data for interpretation.

I also employed member checking where a participant in the study was made to check the accuracy of the information in the transcript. My thesis supervisors served as external auditors who read the final document to check on the research methods, credibility, themes, interpretation and bias issues (Creswell, 2008). I did triangulation using multiple sources such as the use of questionnaire, observation and interview data.

Finally, my strict adherence to ethics of research assured the objectivity of the qualitative data. I conducted the research in a manner devoid of exploitative involvement (Shacklock & Thorp, 2006).

Addressing Common Method Biasness (CMB)

Common method biasness has to do with the variance that can be attributed to the method (questionnaire, interview, observation) used in measuring the constructs rather than the constructs themselves. Counterbalancing the item order of the measurement method helped mitigate the potential biases that was likely to arise due to the order in which the questions were posed to the interviewees/respondents. Marker variables were also added to the items to help addressing any potential biases.

Though the convergent parallel design employs the use of mixed method approach which captures different aspects of the constructs and reduces reliance on only one method, addressing common method biasness requires that the presentation of findings and limitation of the study is done with transparency. This was done in this study to ensure the validity and reliability of the results.

Statistically, Harman's single-factor test with unrotated factor solutions was employed. The results showed that the total variance

extracted by single factor for the sample was 39.45%, which was lower than the recommended threshold of 50% (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, Podsakoff, 2003). There were no issues with common methods bias in this study.

Ethical Issues

In any research work, there are a number issues that must be given attention in the area of ethics. The violation of any of these ethical issues is not acceptable and may render the entire study not credible. Ethical considerations are the rules of conduct that must be applied professionally in research works. It involves the principles and guidelines that clarify the conditions under which the research would be conducted (Oates, Kwiatkowski & Coulthard, 2010). Smith (1995) is of the view that the understanding of ethics is not a study of theoretical knowledge but includes an understanding of the applicability of ethics to real world situations” (p. 480). In this study, some of the important ethical issues was in relation to the research design and data collection, (quantitative and qualitative). It also observed some eight basic ethical principles suggested by Schnell and Heinritz (as cited in Flick, 2014).

The ethical issues of mixed method research were given attention. Nazeer (2006) noted that issues of ethics surrounding research design, implementation and reporting seem simple but not in reality. For the quantitative side, ethical considerations bothered on obtaining permission, protecting anonymity of respondents, not disrupting sites and communicating the purposes for the study, avoiding deceptive practices, respecting vulnerable populations, being aware of potential power issues in data collection,

respecting indigenous culture, not disclosing sensitive information and masking the identities of participants.

According to Creswell (2011), explanatory design require the use of large quantitative database and an individual qualitative interviews. The individual names must not be used without permission because it is unethical to use names without permission. I ensured all these ethical issues relating to confidentiality, informed consent, accountability etc. were fully adhered to in this study. Schnell and Heinritz as cited in Flick (2014, p. 49), suggested some principles that influences my intentions, the people involved in the research and the research done. These principles as follows were fully adhered to:

1. researcher has to justify why the study is necessary at all
2. researcher must be able to explain what the aim of the research is and the circumstances under which participation is required
3. researcher must be able to explicate the methodological procedures in the projects;
4. researcher must be able to estimate whether the research acts will have ethically relevant positive or negative consequences for the participants;
5. researcher must assess the possible violations and damages arising from doing the project - and be able to do so before he/she begin the project;
6. researcher has to take steps to prevent violations and damages identified according to principles 5 above
7. researcher must not make false statements about the usefulness of the research;

8. researcher has to respect the current regulations of data protection.

In this study, an ethical clearance to carry out the study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Cape Coast. The code of ethics requires that the researcher secures informed and voluntary consent and permissions from respondents. Flynn and Goldsmith (2013) cautions researchers to ensure that the consent form clarifies issues of confidentiality, statement of purpose of the study, and details of where and how data will be presented and used. And so, I issued a participant consent form clarifying issues on confidentiality, statement of purpose of the study with details of how and where data were to be presented. Participants who consented by signing the consent form were those used for the study. This was an expression of my respect for participants in this study. I assured them they could withdraw from taking part in the study at any time they deemed fit. Pseudonyms were used in all transcripts to ensure confidentiality. All data were stored securely during the research process.

I sought permission from the management of the various schools that participated in the study before data was collected from participants. After access was granted by the management of the school, I engaged the participants (both teachers and students) and briefed them on the aims and the procedures for the study. I also informed management about the targeted group and how they were selected to get the required data.

Gaining Access and Entry

The relationship between the researcher and the social system within which it is situated is key to the intervention the research envisions. For Flick (2014), this relationship must be a mutual and receptive so that the

researcher's entry into the research field for data will be made easy. Without mutual reception, there will be "increased complexity in the process of agreement and may lead to increased immune reactions" (p. 160). Most social systems, in this case schools see research as a disturbance and a disruption of their daily routines, with no immediate and long-term benefits at sight, especially when the researcher is from outside the school (Josselson, 2007). The implication is that research works sometimes stir a form of resistance from the institution which makes them put real impediments in the way of the researcher.

In addressing these possible challenges, there was the need to establish rapport, reciprocity and maintain professional reputation and credibility with the management of the schools and the teachers, students and all other stakeholders. I am familiar with the schools in the study area (Cape Coast Metropolis) because I have had done research works among them in the past. Having taught in the Metropolis before, I have fostered personal contact with the management of these schools. All these are fertile grounds for my access and entry to schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. These acquaintances made it very easy for me to gain access and entry for this study.

Assurance of Confidentiality and Anonymity

The need to safeguard and guarantee the identity of respondents was assured. The researcher took the necessary steps to ensure anonymity and confidentiality by concealing the details of all respondents. Such detail (names and student identity numbers) was not collected for the study. It helped the researcher to gain the trust of the respondents in the data collection process.

Issues bothering on the respondents' privacy are critical for the success of the study (Owusu, 2018). I satisfied all these requirements on the guidelines put in place for data collection. Ethically, I responded with sensitivity to all data collected and discussed at each stage of the study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter looked at the research methods used for achieving the objectives of the study. It was made up of the research philosophy and how it informed the choice of the research design, procedural issues in convergent parallel design, the description of the study area, the population of the study, sampling and sampling technique and the research instruments (questionnaire, observation and interview guides).

Also the data collection process and the role of the researcher were discussed alongside the data credibility, ethical issues pertinent to mixed methods design, and data collection and analysis in quantitative and qualitative research. Finally, the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data for the purpose of making deep inference from analysis was discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

In this study, I investigated teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning. The purpose of the study was to describe teacher instructional practice, its supervision and influence on how students learn Economics. The concurrent triangulation design was used in this research process to obtain two datasets, analysed separately, and compared. This chapter looks at the results of the fieldwork and the discussion of its implication on the teaching and learning of Senior High School Economics in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The quantitative data was obtained from a sample size of 346 students and 30 teachers. The qualitative data was obtained from a same size of three students and three teachers. The interview and observation data were analysed thematically while the quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. This chapter is made up of two sections, the first section is the discussion of demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section discusses issues pertaining to the research questions and hypotheses. The return rate of the questionnaire is 100% for students and 94% for teachers.

Demography of Respondents

Background Data on Respondents

The demographic data of students who responded to the questionnaire include their sex, age, programme of study, sex of their teacher and interest in learning Economics. The results from these bio data have been reported in Table 3. The demographic data of Economics teachers who responded to the questionnaire are their sex, highest educational qualification and teaching

experience (years). The results from these bio data have also been reported in Table 7. All these demographic data were considered to give readers a clear idea about the participants who were engaged in the study taking into consideration their level of maturity and experiences with the teaching and learning of Economics.

Table 7: Demographic Characteristics of Students

SN	Variable	Frequency	(%)	Total (%)
A	Sex			
	Male Students	106	30.6	(346)100
	Female Students	240	69.4	
B	Programme of Study			
	Business Students	165	47.7	(346)100
	Arts Students	105	30.3	
	Home Economics Students	76	22.0	
C	Age of Student			
	15 years old Students	3		(346)100
	16 years old Students	14		
	17 years old Students	100		
	18 years old Students	151		
	19 years old Students	56		
	20 years old Students	18		
	21 years old Students	2		
	22 years old Students	2		
D	Sex of Economics Teacher			
	Students taught by male teachers	306	88.4	(346)100
	Students taught by female teachers	40	11.6	
E	Interest in Studying Economics			
	High	82	23.7	(346)100
	Moderate	177	51.2	
	Low	87	25.1	

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 7, a greater percentage (69.4%) of the students are females and 30.6% are males. This data is representative of the population of Economics students in the Cape Coast Metropolis (EMIS, 2020) which has more female students than male students. One of the bio data that is noteworthy is students' interest in studying Economics. 22.1% of the students have a low interest in studying Economics, 50.2% are moderately interested in studying Economics and 23.7% are highly interested in studying Economics. It can be inferred that about 80% of Economics students have a good interest in studying Economics through certain approaches to learning (Zimmerman, 2011). The study sought to investigate these approaches used by students in learning Economics. There is a strong relationship of students' interest in studying in a particular subject and their approaches to learning that subject (Sadighi & Zarafshan, 2006).

For teachers who were used for this study, the characteristics that were considered were their sex, highest educational qualification and teaching experience (years). The results of these demographic characteristics are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Characteristics of Teachers

SN	Variable	Frequency	(%)	Total (%)
A	Sex of Teacher			
	Male Teachers	24	80.0	30(100)
	Female Teachers	6	20.0	
B	Educational Qualification			
	BA/BSc	2	6.66	30(100)
	B.Ed	20	66.66	
	M.phil/M.Ed	8	26.66	
C	Teaching Experience			
	1-5 years	6	20	30(100)
	6-10 years	15	50	
	11+ years	9	30	

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 8, Economics teachers' highest educational qualification is worthy of notice. A greater percentage of Economics teachers possess professional academic training in teaching. Teachers with a Bachelor of Education degree are 66.66% and those with a Master of Philosophy/Master of Education degrees are 26.66%. Those with no professional academic training in teaching can be inferred from the 6.7% of teachers with a Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Science degrees. These Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Science degrees are not academic degrees in education studies but in the subject area of Economics. Teachers without a professional academic degree in educational studies are not the preferred persons to teach in SHS. Therefore, the small percentage of 6.66% is expected and needs to be reduced to zero.

Similarly, a greater percentage of teachers have been teaching Economics above six (6) years. Specifically, 50% of them have been teaching Economics from 6-10 years and 30% have been teaching Economics for 11+ years. The inference is that most Economics teachers (80%) have taught at least two batches of students from first year to their final year because a batch spends three years before completion. This data also suggests that most teachers have been teaching Economics long enough to have developed a habitual practice of instruction. This information is crucial for this study given that habitual practices are built based on length of practice (Lally, Jaarsveld, Potts and Wardle, 2010).

Profile of Participating Schools for the Observations

Three schools were selected for the observation which comprised one school each from the three categories of schools. The first school is a Category

A school (Daabi SHS) which is classified so due to their high general performance in the WASSCE and availability of more teaching and learning facilities. The second school is a Category B school (Oho SHS). And the third school for the observation is a Category C (Yoo SHS). The schools of Category C are usually classified due to their general low performance in the WASSCE and the less teaching and learning facilities in the school. The selection of these schools is representative of the Cape Coast Metropolis in relation to the teaching and learning of Economics.

Profile of Interview

Three Economics teachers and three supervisors, one each from the three schools selected for the observations were interviewed. The teachers selected are the same whose instructional practice were observed. One teacher and one supervisor from Category A school was interview, another pair from Category B and the last pair from a Category C school. Pseudonyms have been used to conceal the identities of the interviewees. Pseudonyms were used to represent their identities.

Results

The section two of this chapter is dedicated to the presentation and discussion of the main data of this study. It is done according to research questions and hypotheses. In all, data on five research questions and two hypotheses have been analysed and discussed.

Research Question One

What instructional practice is employed by Economics teachers?

For this research question, I sought to investigate the instructional practice employed by teachers during their lessons. Using questionnaires

responded to by students, I set out to unravel the instructional practice of Economics teachers. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were used in analysing the quantitative data from students. The observation and interview methods were also used to unravel instructional practice from the point of view of teachers and the researcher. With regard to the questionnaire, students were asked to indicate by ticking their level of agreement or disagreement with some activities teachers carry out before, during and after instructional hours. A four-point Likert type scale ranging from “Never” (0) to “Always” (3) was used. The interview guide contained items that requested teachers to indicate their usual practice in the classroom. The responses revealed factors that describe the instructional practice employed by teachers. The descriptive statistics have been presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Distribution on Instructional Practice of Economics Teachers

	Response Ratings				N	M	SD
	Never (%)	Rarely (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)			
Instructional Practice							
Teacher-centred	1.7	71.1	27.2	-	346	1.3	.5
Student-centred	2.3	58.7	39.0	-	346	1.4	.5

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The data shows that teachers rarely use both student-centred and teacher-centred instructional practice. This can be taken as the point of view of students based on their instructional interactions with teachers. There are negligible percentages of “never” usage of both student centred (2.3%) and teacher-centred (1.7%) instructional practice. These two are the broad categories of instructional practice found in literature. Ansell, Morales, Kuras,

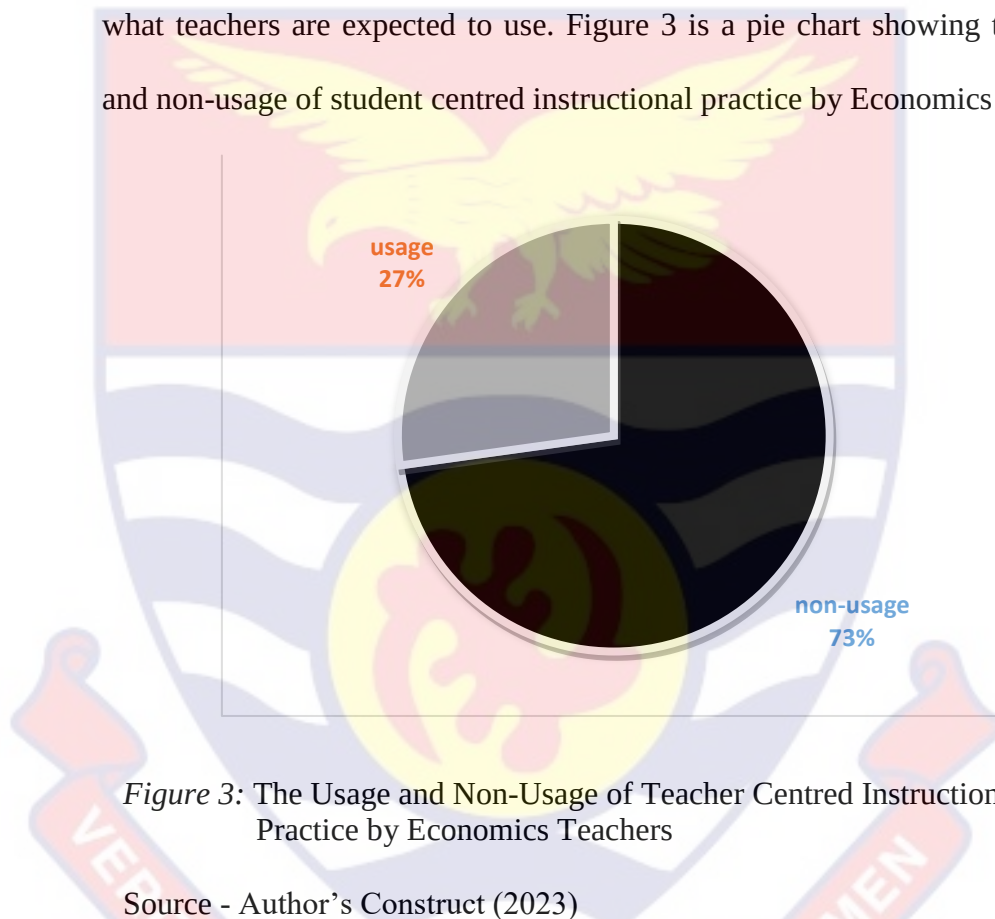
Requa and Mulvaney (2021) posit that the multitude of instructional practices typically fall under major categories such as “teacher-directed” and “student-centred.” The student-centred instructional practice considers students as the key focus of the teaching and learning process. Burnard (1999) interprets this as “choice” in student-centred instructional practice where “students might not only choose what to study, but how and why that topic might be an interesting one to study” (p. 244). The student becomes the centre of attention for all activities of teaching and learning (O’Neill & McMahon, 2005). Student-centred instructional practice also considers students as active participants in the teaching and learning process (Lea et al. 2003).

For Gibbs (1995), any instructional practice that is centred on students emphasizes student activity rather than passivity; students’ experience on the course outside the institution and prior to the course; process and competence, rather than content (O’Neill & McMahon, 2005). The Economics teacher assumes the role of a facilitator to student learning. This role of facilitation is seen in how the teacher goes about his or her teaching. The element of effective teaching which requires planning strategies, instructional strategies and assessment strategies are all employed in a way that ensures that students are active in the teaching and learning process (Danielson, 2011; Brandes & Ginnis, 1986 as cited in O’Neill & McMahon, 2005). For a teacher akin to student-centred instructional practice, lesson planning, teaching and assessment of students are tailored on students’ learning needs. Teaching done in a student centred instructional context is not based on the convenience of the teacher (Carlile & Jordan, 2005).

The opposite of student centred instructional practice is the teachercentred instructional practice. For this, the students are passive in the entire teaching and learning process. The teacher is the focus of all teaching and learning activities. Harden and Crosby (2000) consider teacher-centred instructional practice as maintaining focus on teacher transmission of knowledge, where the teacher is perceived as an expert and the student as a novice. The primary role of the student in the classroom is to accept and commit to memory whatever information given by the teacher. Student contributions in class are rarely elicited in teacher-centred instructions (Blazer & Kraft, 2017). Such contributions and comments from students are perceived as disruptions and distractions to the plan of activities of the teacher. The main objective of the lesson is usually about how the teacher can complete what has been planned for an instructional period.

From Table 9, it is important to note that there are greater percentages of “rare” use of both student centred instructional practice (58%) and teachercentred instructional practice (71%). “Rarely” means the frequency of the usage of both practice is very low. None of the two instructional practice can be considered as the most commonly used instructional practice in Economics classrooms. However, a 39 % “often usage of student-centred instructional practice is indicative that it is more often used than teacher-centred instructional practice (27%). This means that teacher centred instructional practice is more uncommon in Economics as compared to student-centred instructional practice. This is expected because SHS teachers are encouraged to use student-centred instructional practice. As a researcher, what this data is showing is a step in a right direction and the usage of teacher-

centred instructional practice should become rare in Economics classrooms. However, it is worrying to find a 58% rare use of student-centred instructional practice. This percentage figure is a little above average, implying that averagely, student centred instructional practice is rarely used. One will expect that it should have a lower percentage than the data is showing because that is what teachers are expected to use. Figure 3 is a pie chart showing the usage and non-usage of student centred instructional practice by Economics teachers.



In the pie chart, the percentages of responses labelled “never” and “rarely” are captured as non-usage of teacher-centred instructional practice while “often” and “always” have been captured as usage of teacher-centred instructional practice. It is clear that a greater percentage (73 %) do not use teacher-centred instructional practice in SHS Economics classroom.

Researchers such as Baafi (2020), Li, Flowerdew, and Cargill (2018), Kang and Keinonen (2018) as well as Day, Gu, and Sammons (2016) have

all found that teacher-centred instructional practice do not enhance students' academic achievement so its non-usage is preferred. In another study by Baafi (2020), it was observed that passive students' involvement in teaching and learning leads to low students interest in the subject. He indicated that "teacher-centred instructional strategies have been criticised for an inability to spur learner attitudinal change, which in part, is one of the objectives of learning".

Teacher-centred instructional practice requires increasing students' interest and motivation for learning (Hude & Rohmah, 2017). And the indicators of students with high learning interest are seen during the teaching and learning process in the classroom (Safari, 2003). Students interested in a particular subject tend to give greater attention to the subject (Slameto, 2010).

Aside the data revealing that Economics teachers "rarely" use both student-centred and teacher-centred instructional practice, it also shows that a small percentage of teachers "often" use teacher-centred (27.2%) and student-centred instructional practice (39%). This means that both student-centred and teacher-centred instructional practices are not commonly used in Senior High Schools. However, some researchers (Mohammed, 2018; Clavel, Crespo, Mendez, 2016; Garrett, 2008) have found that the usage of both student and teacher-centred instructional practice are common. Specifically, teacher-centred instructional practice is the most common instructional practice in contexts with limited educational resources and facilities such as the Ghanaian context (Starkey 2019; Baafi 2020). So to find teacher-centred instructional practice being rarely used is commendable.

But for student-centred instructional practice to be rarely used raises some concerns. One would expect that it will be in common usage because it ensures that the rationale for SHS education that requires active student participation in the teaching and learning process is achieved (Ministry of Education., 2003). Teacher-centred instructional practice denies students that opportunity for active participation in the classroom (Di Biase, 2019). The SHS Economics syllabus contains only student-centred teaching activities and demands that teachers employ student-centred instructional practice in their engagement with students (Curriculum Research and Development Division, 2010). So, to find such a high percentage for its “rare” usage and a low percentage of its “often” usage is very worrying. It means that SHS Economics teachers do not employ student-centred instructional practice in isolation. This finding is presented differently in a pie chart.

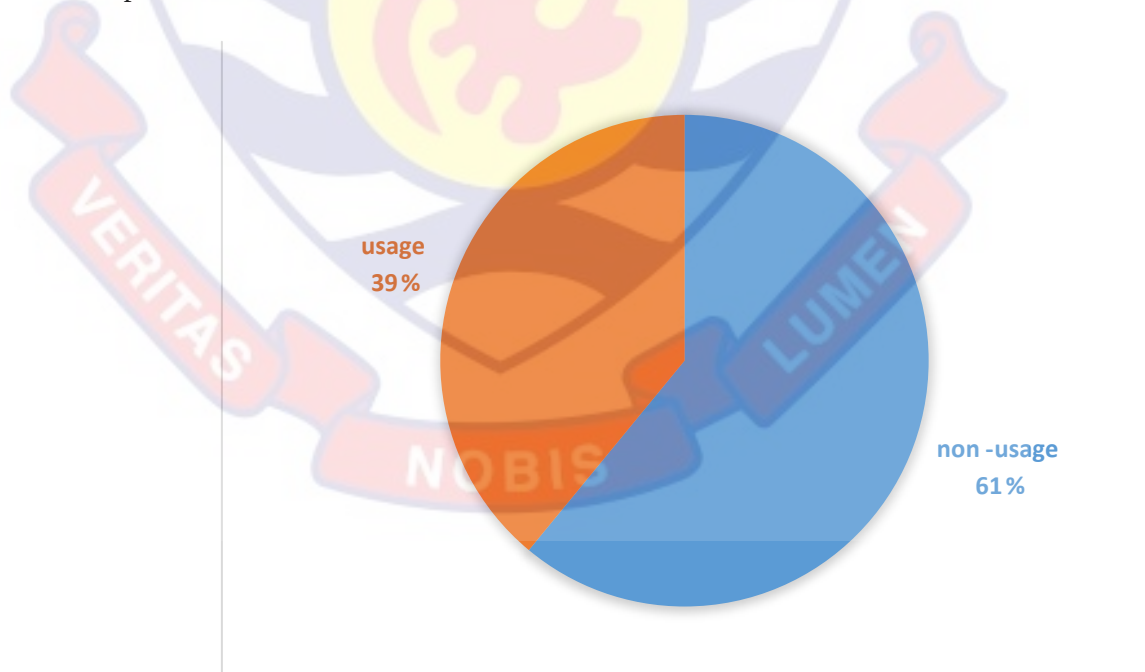


Figure 4: The Usage and Non-Usage of Student Centred Instructional Practice by Economics Teachers
Source - Author’s Construct (2023)

The percentages of responses labelled “never” and “rarely” are captured as non-usage of student-centred instructional practice while “often” and “always” have been captured as usage of student-centred instructional practice. Here, even though the usage of student-centred instructional practice is higher (39%) than teacher-centred instructional practice (27%), the non-usage is also very high (61%). It is worthy to recognise from Table 9 that none of these broad instructional practices was used “always”. This implies that student-centred and teachercentred instructional practices are not used exclusively in isolation. The interview data provides some explanation to this finding. Investigating the instructional practice teachers use revealed some factors that describe other instructional practice used by Economics teachers. The interview result related to Research Question One are presented and discussed in the ensuing section.

Interview Result

The interview revealed a key theme around factors that induce the instructional practice of Economics teachers. These factors define the instructional practice teachers employ in the classroom. According to Moses, Busetti-Frevert, and Pritchard (2015), when teachers’ pay particular attention to their teaching practice, it offers them a great understanding of their instructional practice. Instructional variety according to Goodwin-Jones (2011) can be systematically provided by teachers when they assess the factors that induce their instructional practice. From the interview, teachers indicated that they reinvented instructional practice that works for them. One interviewee says *“I have been teaching for some time now. I know what works for me and my students and that’s what I use in my teaching.”* This was an answer to a

question on the instructional practice he or she identifies with. When I reinstated the interviewee on the need to use student-centred instructional practice because it was the recommendation in the Economics syllabus, this is what the interviewee had to say, *“I know the importance of using student-centred practice but I can’t always use that. When I have to use it, I do but there are times I cannot use it. Generally, I use both teachercentred and student-centred practices in almost every lesson.”* All the interviewees intimated that their instructional practice is induced by certain factors which require that they reinvent an instructional practice that works for them. Two major themes emerged out of those factors; they are the Content-induced instructional practice and Context-induced instructional practice.

Content-Induced Instructional Practice

Content-induced instructional practice is centred on the content (topics) teachers teach during their instructional sessions with students. Unlike the situation where either the student or the teacher is the central focus, here the content to be taught becomes the centre of the teaching-learning interaction. Similarly, the teacher uses both student-centred and teachercentred strategies to get the content taught. In other words, the teacher uses what works for him/her and his/her students in teaching a particular content. For instance, an interviewee says, *“in class, it’s all about how to get my students to understand the content I’m teaching. So you will only find me doing what will help them get the content.* This view is indicative of an instructional practice which is induced by the content. Another interviewee notes *“I use discussion, note taking, lecturing, as long as it helps in teaching the topic.”* So I asked this particular interviewee how he/she knows that the instructional variety works

and this is what he/she had to say, *“I know it does. You were in the class when I was teaching, find out from them if they understood what I taught. When I evaluate my lessons during and after the lesson, it’s always positive.”*

So I engaged some of the students after my interview with their teacher and questioned them on the topic that was taught. The students were able to recall what was taught by the teacher. I did not get the opportunity to do a written (pen and paper) test but I got the opportunity to check their class exercise books. The data from the exercise books and the classroom observation have been presented in the ensuing section.

Observation Results

In one of the classroom observations, I found the content being taught as the central focus of the entire instructional interaction. The topic for the lesson was “National Income”. The teacher began the lesson with brainstorming method but along the line, he switched to a lecture and notetaking method. I also observed that during the use of brainstorming, the intention was to get the students to share their thoughts on the content being taught. When he realised the students had exhausted all their views/thoughts on the content, the teacher used lecture and note-taking. The teaching was centred on the content, creating a learning atmosphere which was a “mixture” of both teacher-centredness and student-centredness. The instructional practice was induced by the content being taught and not necessarily the student or the teacher. Hence, the pragmatic description of a content-induced instructional practice.

Morrison, Ross, Morrison, and Kalman (2019) agree with this pragmatic view of a content-induced instructional practice and argue that

various instructional practices exist and are applied in various contexts for different anticipated outcomes. For Illeris (2018), there are some categorizations of instructional practice that are based on sources of the instructional action. These sources of instructional action are similar to what is defined in this current study as factors that induce instructional practice.

Based on the sources of instructional action, Illeris (2018) groups instructional practice into learner-centred, teacher-centred and integrated instruction. The concept of integrated instructional practice is related to content-induced instructional practice. Chick and Hassel (2009) modelled it along the advantages of both teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices. Teachers who use this integrated instructional practice do so in order to draw from the pros of the two broad categories of instructional practice. This is the situation I find among SHS Economics teachers. Just that for them, they are not necessarily induced by the pros of the two broad categories of instructional practices but by certain factors related to the content of the subject. Richards and Rodgers (2001) call it Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and describes it as an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is done based on the content or information students will be given rather than basing it on a linguistic or other type of syllabus.

Content-induced instructional practice appears to be preferable to an exclusive use of either student-centred or teacher-centred instructional practice because it gives them (teachers) the opportunity to merge the strengths of both the teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices when the weaknesses of these two threatens their effectiveness (Riordan, Hine, & Smith, 2019). Content-induced instructional practice curtails the challenges of using

either student-centred or teacher-centred practices in isolation (Day et al., 2016). My observations of classroom interactions revealed active students participation when teachers used the content-induced instructional practice.

It is important to emphasize the possibility of some cons of contentinduced instructional practice. One I observed is that it does not provide incentive for effective planning of the teaching-learning process because teachers rely on what works. What works may not necessarily be what works best. Baafi (2020) agrees with this observation and adds that content-induced instructional practice “draws its weaknesses on the fact that its application does not allow time for effective planning of learning areas” (p. 21). Again, students will be burdened with switching back and forth between different instructional practices alongside the complexities of some content to be taught (Drinkwater et al., 2014). Nonetheless, this instructional practice is a good foundation for deeper content understanding and has been applauded for its focus on basic skills, content and stimulation of higher-level thinking (Day et al., 2016; Baafi, 2020, Riordan et al., 2019). Content-induced instructional practice exposes the need for instructional practice to be constructive because it appears no Economics classroom will give teachers enough time to use any instructional practice in isolation.

Context-Induced Instructional Practice

This practice is centred on school related factors that influence how teachers go about their lessons. According to Morrison et al., (2019) different teaching-learning environments require different instructional practice to elicit expected teaching-learning outcomes. The students’ of a particular school have certain characteristics that make them unique from those in other schools.

The teacher's professional engagement in various schools differs from each other. Economics education at the SHS level is implemented through instructed learning. In Ghana, Baafi (2020), finds "most teachers adopting strategies that make their work easier based on their perceptions and attitude, personal subjective preferences, and institutional and disciplinary cultures" (p. 18). He also emphasizes that teachers alter their instructional practice depending on students' entering behaviour and level of participation in the lesson. Baafi (2020) and Curtiss et al. (2016) opine that instructional practice are broadly induced by student related, teacher related and institutional/ disciplinary cultures.

Context-induced instructional practice is induced by institutional and disciplinary cultures. In my interviews with teachers, they commented on how their school specific factors influence their instructional practice. This is what one had to say, *"in my previous school, the class size was small so I could have more interactive time with students. But here, I can't do that because it will delay my class. So I have to curtail some of their comments so I can meet the scheme of work for the term."*

Awoyemi, (2006) agrees with the problematic issue of large class sizes in Ghana. He argues that the provision of quality education is being hampered by inappropriate teacher-student ratio making classroom management difficult. According to Assafuah-Drokow (2018), the class size for SHS education based on Ghana Education Service Standard is 45 students per class but with the free SHS education policy most classes have large numbers ranging from 50 to over 90 students per class.

Some researchers (Cakmak, 2009; Reece & Walker, 1997) argue that large class size has no effects on class management practices on the basis that

whether class size is smaller or larger classroom management difficulties is still possible. I am of the view that a large class size can become a risk factor for ineffective teaching, a view that is shared by Kayikci (2009). So the context of the teacher with a large class size induces his or her instructional practice. Another interviewee indicated that *“I really want to always give my students class exercises but they are too many. It will be too much work on me when marking those exercises. But I engage them while teaching to make sure they understand what I teach”*. This speaks of how a contextual issue of large class size induces the instructional practice of the teacher.

The observation data shows differences between how teachers in each of the three GES school categorization go about their lessons. Those in Category A, where students are generally above average performance had more active students’ participation. Students in such schools were given more reading assignments and student led activities like group works. In one of the schools (Category A school), the teacher encouraged students to visit the school’s library for further reading on what was taught. This was not observed in the other schools (Category B and C). The availability of educational facilities and materials influence the practice of teachers (Nugroho & Wibowo, 2020).

I conceptualise the instructional practice of Senior High School Economics as two-fold: extreme and intermedial instructional practice. Figure 5 is the framework of the two-fold Extreme-Intermedial Instructional Practice.

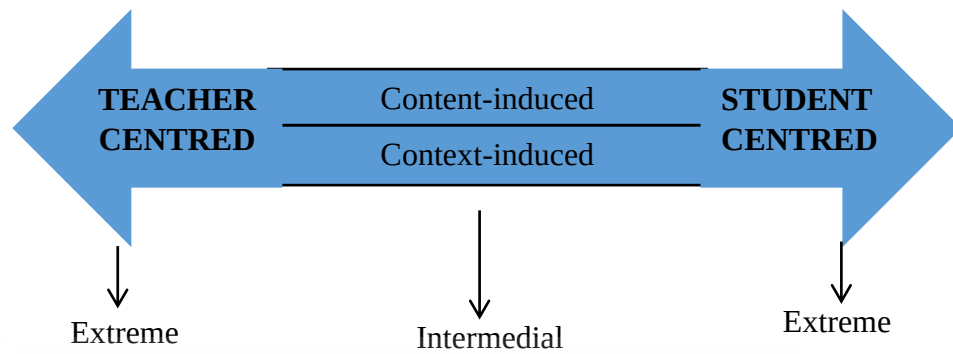


Figure 5: Extreme-Intermedial Instructional Practice construct Source - Author's Construct (2023)

I conceptualize teacher instructional practice as two-fold namely the extreme (teacher-centred and student-centred) and the intermedial (Contentinduced and Context-induced). An Economics teacher can exclusively go for teacher-centred instructional practice or student-centred instructional practice. He or she has the opportunity to also use an integrated instructional practice which is induced by content or context. The quantitative data revealed that these two broad extreme instructional practices are rarely being used by Economics teachers. The qualitative data also revealed two instructional practices that are in use by teachers. Even though this study does not have the quantitative evidence on the extent to which the intermedial practices are being used, it can be inferred that they may be more commonly used than the two broad extreme practices.

Research Question Two

What approaches do students employ in learning Economics?

The objective of this research question was to ascertain the ways in which Senior High School Economics students approach their studies. Approaches to learning have to do with how students go about their learning task. It is what they do before, during and after instructional session. As a

result, I sought for the opportunity to investigate what students do before, during and after their instructional interactions with their teachers in the classroom. The instrument used to gather data on students' approaches to learning was a Likert type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Marton and Saljo (1976, 1997) and Entwistle and Ramsden (1983) opine three broad approaches of learning namely Deep, Strategic and Surface approaches to learning. In this study, I used Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (ASSIST instrument) to find out if students' approaches to learning follow the same in ASSIST. Principal Component Analysis was employed to ascertain students' approaches to learning. Two main components were extracted which are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Comparison of eigenvalues from principal components analysis (PCA) and the corresponding criterion values obtained from parallel analysis

Comp.no.	% of Variance	Actual eigen Value from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision	Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin	Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Sig.)
1	58.294	9.327	1.3776	Accept	.917	.000
2	12.819	2.051	1.3007	Accept		

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 10 shows the number of factors retained using Parallel Analysis. The factors whose actual eigenvalues are greater than the criterion values obtained from the parallel analysis were accepted and retained. The 13 subscales and the 3 main scales loaded on the two factors retained. The test

items for each sub-scales were obtained by adding together responses on the items in those sub-scales. The scores for all the main approaches were created by adding the sub-scales for each approach. In all, sixteen (16) variables which consisted 13 sub-scales and 3 main scales were subjected to Principal Component Analysis using SPSS version 22. Before running the analysis, the data was cross checked to ensure their suitability for conducting a factor analysis. The correlation matrix showed most of the items had coefficient of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.92 exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974). The Sig. value ($p=.000$) of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was statistically significant, confirming the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Two (2) out of the 16 components were revealed through the Principal Component Analysis. These two had eigenvalues above one 1 and provided 71.11% explanation for the variance. The Scree test hinted me to retain these two components because of the clear elbow shape after the second component (Catel, 1966). A Parallel Analysis was consulted to confirm the 2 components retained. It produced eigenvalues above their corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same sample (16 variables x 346 respondents). The loadings of the 16 components on the 2 principal components are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Pattern/Structure For Coefficients

Test items	Comp. 1	Comp. 2
Comp. 1: Strategic-Deep Approach to Learning		
Strategic approach	.947	.233
Deep approach	.872	.398
Organised studying	.869	-
Monitoring effectiveness	.840	.124
Achieving	.763	.240
Seeking Meaning	.734	.326
Interest in ideas	.733	.308
Use of evidence	.731	.345
Alertness to assessment demands	.726	.299
Relating ideas	.712	.350
Time management	.690	.210
Comp. 1: Surface Approach to Learning		
Surface approach	.302	.950
Lack of purpose	-	.846
Fear of failure	.251	.805
Unrelated memorising	.318	.738
Syllabus boundness	.356	.697
% of Variance explained	58.29%	12.82%

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Using the Varimax rotation solution for easy interpretation (Thurstone, 1947), the two (2) students' approaches of learning are the Strategic-Deep approach and Surface approach. These approaches have been discussed in the ensuing sections.

Strategic-Deep Approach to Learning

Students' approaches to learning looks at how they processes and handles information or experience obtained. Khamkhien (2010) defined it as how students gather new information and retain what they have already learnt. Bigs (1987, 1993) developed the strategic approach in addition to the surface and deep approaches developed by Martin and Saljo (1976). Though these

scholars separated these approaches in the ASSIST instrument, the loading for the sub-scales revealed a merger of strategic-deep approaches to learning.

Richardson (2004) in using the same instrument found that the scales for Strategic approach to learning did not hold up well due to the context of his study. So he suggested dropping the Strategic approach scale. Entwistle, Tait and McCune (2000) used ASSIST for a similar study and broadened the Strategic scale. In this current study, the Strategic and Deep scales were merged as a result of the context of SHS Economics. Other research support a possibility of a merger of scales in using the ASSIST instrument (Meyer, Parsons & Dunne, 1990; Meyer, 1991). For instance, Meyer (1991) used deepstrategic approach to indicate students who are able to discern and utilise the aspects of a learning environment to support their way of studying. But in this study, the researcher's labelling has strategic appearing first because the coefficients for the strategic sub-scales were higher than the deep approach sub-scales. The sub-scales such as organised learning, monitoring effectiveness of learning, achievement motivation, and alertness to assessment demands recorded high coefficients. Linkages between approach and motive are also clear-cut within the strategic approach, where achievement motivation (Atkinson & Feather, 1966) is strongly associated with both organised studying and time management.

The data shows that students use a strategic-deep approach in learning Economics. Students set out on their learning task by first organising what they are learning and monitors themselves closely to ensure effectiveness of their learning. Their motivation for learning is also important to the effectiveness of what they are learning so they seek achievement as the

purpose of what they are learning. With motivation achieved, they launch into deep approach to learning such as seeking meaning of what they are learning, building deep interest in what they are learning and looking for evidence to support what is being learnt. Though deep approach to learning sets in at this point, students are still alert to assessment strategically and support this strategic alertness to assessment by relating ideas learnt and managing their study time well.

Organizing studying is where students pay attention to the conditions for learning so that they can go about their learning easily. “Planning skills are required for digesting new information and developing competencies for organizing one’s learning process in general” (Chuvgunova and Kostromina, 2016). Considering learning strategies as complex educational actions, it must be purposefully organized by the student (Dvornikova & Kostromina, 2009). Organisation of learning looks also at how students break down learning task when revising for an exams. But these skills are applicable not only to learning process because it is a resource for general development of self-organization skills that are essential for increasing effectiveness of all human activities.

Recent studies within this framework prove that students’ planning skills are crucial for efficiency of learning activity in all stages of education (Kostromina, 2013). The strategic-deep approach is preferred to waiting till an impending exam. The strategic approach is when students are quite systematic and organised about revising for exams. This means that they follow up on suggested reading materials from their teachers and plan their learning task in advance. Chuvgunova and Kostromina (2016) argue that planning is critical for students learning because it prepares them for selfregulated learning.

According to CRDD (2010) of the Ministry of Education, the objective of Economics education is to prepare students for further studies at the tertiary level which is strictly self-regulated. The strategic approach of organising one's learning is a skill needed by students for further studies at the tertiary level. Literature appears silent on how students acquired these organising skills. But what students do by way of organizing their learning needs more investigation.

During my classroom observation, I saw teachers encourage their students on how to learn what was being taught. The teacher suggested to them to break down their learning task. Students' skill in organising their learning is acquired partly through the guidance of their teachers. Baumert et al., (2010) agrees with this observation and adds that the work of teachers is not only about subject area content but others that enhance student learning. It is possible the source of students' organizing skill may come from indirect content taught by teachers. This indirect content includes useful educational knowledge that is not planned but is taught episodically during instructional periods.

"Monitoring Effectiveness" comes up possibly after organising one's studies. The data shows that the coefficient of "Monitoring Effectiveness" is a little lower than the coefficient of organising learning. It speaks of how students ensure that learning is done effectively. Students do this by going over their studies to ensure it meet what is expected by their teachers. This is done for assignments, exams questions and the course outline given by their teachers (Entwistle, Tait and McCune, 2000). Students' monitoring of their learning effectiveness is important because it ensures that their learning effort

contributes positively to their total academic performance (OECD, 2005). The work of Blazar (2016) argues that most students get their teachers initiating this effectiveness monitoring process (Vegas & Petrow, 2008; Rashid, 2018). Teachers' assessment feedback gives students the impression on areas to ensure effectiveness. Amua-Sekyi (2016) adds that students judge their learning task by the assessment feedback and formative assessment remarks they get from their teachers during teaching. "Assessment is also used in selecting, controlling or motivating students, and to satisfy expectations" (Biggs, 2003; p.141).

From this study, students are doing well in monitoring their effectiveness in learning. One can infer that teachers are possibly doing well with providing feedback for students. However, Amua-Sekyi (2016) hold a different view because she found that teachers do not provide feedback on assessment to students. She noted that there is lack of feedback dialogue between teachers and students, a situating which has contributed to poor academic performance of Economics students in the WASSCE. Part of the reason for this lack of feedback dialogue is the hierarchical relationship between teachers and students that inhibits collaboration in the teaching and learning process. A hierarchical relationship between teachers and students features strongly in a teacher centred instructional practice (Emaliana, 2017). It is imperative to note that Amua-Sekyi (2016) finding was a comparison between formative and summative assessment feedback done as part of teaching. Formative assessment feedback which gets to students during teaching and learning is beneficial to students in monitoring their learning effectiveness. Nicol (2009) and Yorke (2003) agree that formative assessment

feedback enhances the effectiveness of students learning (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Covic & Jones, 2008; Bloxham & Boyd, 2007).

Achievement motivation is another strategic way students go about their learning task. This sub-scale looks at how students feel about their learning efforts. Students' motivation has a lot of linkages with other variables but this study focuses on students' approaches to learning. So students' achievement motivation concerns how students' are determined to excel and how they motivate themselves to achieve that excellence. Orhan-Ozen (2017) argues that student self-motivation is key in effective student learning. This argument sought to underline the importance of motivation as a factor that facilitates the learning achievements of the students. Wolters and Rosenthal (2000) intimate that learning achievement and effectiveness may vary according to motivators such as interest, desire and need (Tahiroğlu & Aktepe 2015). Several studies have put further the need to get students to motivate themselves towards learning as an element of student motivation for achievement (good academic performance). This is not to downplay the influence of other non-student factors that ensure students motivation to learning. Marsh and Martin (2011) intimate that self-motivation of students is a strategic way of getting students to become passionate about learning. Since motivated students put in much efforts in learning (Dramanu & Mohammed, 2017), this much efforts is what is required for deep approach to learning.

Seeking Meaning, Interest in Ideas and Use of Evidence are sub-scales of deep approach to learning. Seeking Meaning has to do with how students seeks to understands what they learn from further reading materials such as textbooks. Interest in Ideas is about students' interest in the information

acquired through learning and how they seek to deeply understand what they are learning. Nyamekye and Baffour-Koduah (2021) write about how deep approach to learning is more preferred to the other approaches because it guarantees effective learning when students are interested in new ideas being taught. The coefficients of these three sub-scales were very close: 0.734 for Seeking Meaning, 0.733 for Interest in Ideas, 0.731 for Use of Evidence. It shows how students' strength in Seeking Meaning, Interest in Ideas and Use of Evidence are highly close to each other (Akoglu, 2018).

Alertness to Assessment is another strategic approach in which students ensure that their quest to deeply understand what they are learning does not make them lose focus on assessment. Asikainen and Gijbels (2017) argue that one of the challenges with deep approach to learning is students losing their alertness of examination. They delve deep into seeking more information on a content (topic) and as their interest of new ideas heightens, their focus is centred on seeking more new evidence for what they are learning to the neglect of impending examination and the scope of the examination. The deep approach activities make most students pay little attention to assessment. Hamm and Robertson (2010) indicate that students may end up learning what is not needed for their examination.

Relating Ideas is another sub-scale of the deep approach to learning which affords students the opportunity to connect what they learn in class and from books to existing knowledge. Mitchell, Keast, Panizzon and Mitchell (2016) state that relating ideas is a way students find the similarities and differences between prior and new knowledge. In Whiteley's (2012) view, "big ideas are the building material of understanding. They can be thought of

as the meaningful patterns that enable one to connect the dots of otherwise fragmented knowledge” (p.42). For Smith and Girod (2003), students’ ability to relate ideas to what they have learnt already is a good indication of effective learning. The coefficient of Relating Ideas (.712) is low compared to the others in the sub-scales but it shows how strong it explains the Strategic-Deep approach to learning of Economics students. In most studies, this sub-scales had the highest coefficient under the deep approach (Speth, Namuth and Lee, 2007; Centre for Research on Learning and Instruction, University of Edinburgh 1997; Speth & Buaun 1988; Caro-Garcia & Justicia-Justicia, 1994). But in this study, Relating Ideas has the lowest coefficients. It is not farfetched to imply that even though students are not doing badly in relating ideas of what they are learning, more can be done. This also gives a clue to the dominance of strategic approach to learning over the deep approach. The coefficients of the Strategic sub-scales are higher than the Deep sub-scales.

Time management is the least sub-scales of Strategic Approach and it looks at how students manage their time as they go about their learning task. One can infer from the coefficient (.690) that students are not very good with the management of their time as they do with the other sub-scales. Vaida and Brinzei (2021) show that personal time management induces anxiety among students. Motivation is a key dimension of time management (Wolters, 2017). Active self-regulated learning increases students’ motivation and their attitudes towards learning as they manage both chores and academic tasks at the same time (Khan, 2017). Students ought to be aware of their working rhythm, learn to organize their activities and all factors influencing their performance.

Generally, students do well with time management when they are conscious of these factors (Indreica, 2011).

According to Newhall (2020), time management must be ensured by school authorities and students must be taught on how to manage their time well. Naturil (2018) and Amin (2019) speak of academic procrastination as a problem among at least half of the every student population. A coefficient above 0.6 is good and shows that even though time management had the lowest coefficient, students are not poorly managing their time. The larger the absolute value of the coefficient, the more important the sub-scale is in calculating the component (Minitab LLC, 2023; Schober, Boer, and Schwarte 2018). The Strategic-Deep Approaches to learning recorded a high coefficient (0.9) which shows a strong usage of this approach to learning by Economics students. This approach explains 58.7% of the variance of how students' approach the learning of Economics.

Surface Approach to learning

From the data, the Surface Approach reveals a coefficient of .950 which is higher than the coefficient of Strategic-Deep Approach. However, this approach only explains 12.82% of the variance of Students' Approaches to Learning. The approach has four sub-scales: Lack of Purpose (.846), Fear of Failure (.805), Unintended memorising (.738) and Syllabus-boundness (.697).

Lack of purpose deals with how students see the learning task as worthwhile and interesting (Dislen, 2013). The idea of student motivation is used to explain how much time and effort students devote to different activities in the classroom, and whether the students finds them to be worthwhile. Saro et al. (2022) explains students' lack of purpose in learning a

subject as loss of interest in studying the subject. They intimated that students' lack of purpose for learning will be low when their interest for the subject is low. In this study, I collected data on students' interest in learning Economics. Even though in other studies there is evidence that some students do not find interest in learning Economics (Livermore & Major, 2020; Dwyer, 2017, 2018; Owusu, 2018). In the current study, the data indicated a moderate interest in studying Economics as presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Distribution of Students and their Level of Interest in Studying Economics

Interest in Studying Economics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
High	82	23.7
Moderate	177	51.2
Low	87	25.1
Total	346	100

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From the table, many of the students indicated that they were moderately (51.2%) interested in studying Economics. According to Brown et al., (2017) students' interest in learning is influenced by how they learn. Mat et al., (2016) noted that Surface Approach to learning is not preferred because students who resort to it do not consider what they are learning purposeful. The table show a 25.1% low interest in learning Economics, indicating that 75% of SHS Economics students have a moderate to high interest in studying Economics.

Fear of Failure and Unrelated Memorizing all recorded high coefficients. These sub-scales according to Gustafsson, Sagar and Stenling (2017) are the factors that drive students to ensure they get a pass mark in an examination. Fear of failure has been conceptualized as the motive to avoid

failure associated with anticipatory shame in evaluative situations; thus, a onedimensional construct where shame is at the core of fear of failure. Fear of failure arises as they get overwhelmed with amount of material to study and the anxiety associated with it. It increases their negative cognition and concerns about failure, making them feel anxious, worried, stressed, scared, tensed and it decreases their self-perception and motivation (Sagar et al., 2009). OECD (2020) argues that students with surface approach deal with anxiety and fear of failure of their academic work which does not improve their academic performance. As a result, most researchers consider surface approach to learning as an ineffective approach (Case & Marshall, 2009; Biggs, et al., 2001; Cope and Staehr, 2005). Students learning approaches that help them to develop better strategies to deal effectively with their fears of failure is important because fear of failure poses a risk not only to general well-being and social development (Conroy, 2001; Sagar et al., 2009), but it also lead to academic burnout.

Unintended memorising is another sub-scale of Surface Approach to learning which impedes students' academic performance. According Mazer (2013a, 2013b), student retention is related to student interest and student engagement in their coursework. Student interest in coursework is fundamental to teaching and learning activities. The proposal of Krapp, Hidi, and Renninger (1992) and Linvill (2014) is that interest characteristically has two standpoints: from either the person or the conditions that induce interest. This study used the ASSIST instrument which sees interest from the standpoint of the student. It is this interest that determines unintended memorising of what they are learning (Titsworth, 2001). Astin (2005) have

shown inverse relationship between unintended memorisation and student retention.

Syllabus-boundness is a typical issue in most WAEC participating schools. Students are usually bound to the syllabus, and most students focus their learning on past examination questions (Englund & Stockhult, 2021).

When students become syllabus-bound, their learning tend to be at the surface without deep understanding of concepts. It is associated with attributes such as students feeling a lack of purpose when studying (Brown et al., 2017), engaging in rote learning (Coertjens et al., 2016), and having a narrow syllabus-bound attitude (Baeten et al., 2013). In the existing literature, syllabus-boundness typically carries a negative connotation primarily because it makes students learn just for examinations (Mat et al., 2016; Smith & Smith, 2000), engage in superficial forms of learning (Chonkar et al., 2018), and simply reproduce the material in the syllabus (Bonsaksen et al., 2017). As sometimes argued, it constitutes a less productive approach to studying which students tend to outgrow with time (Bonsaksen et al., 2017). Adding to this, it suggests a notion of authority which has negative consequence on student learning. Syllabus-bound students become highly dependent on authoritative figures to define their learning process making them dependent what teachers gives them in class without any personal efforts seek further knowledge. Such dependence curtails critical, reflective, and inquisitive student qualities needed for self-regulated learning at the tertiary level (Biesta, 2020).

Research Question Three

What is the prevalence of instructional practice supervision among Economics teachers?

This research question was to investigate how instructional supervision is being carried out among Economics teachers and the extent to which it was being done. As a result, I set out to unravel the role of supervisors, the provision of supervision feedback and remediation and professional development on instructional supervision. Using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages, I analysed the data from the questionnaire on instructional supervision of teachers. Test items of the questionnaire demanded that teachers indicate their level of agreement or disagreement to the instructional supervisory activities of supervisors. A fourpoint Likert scale ranging from „Never’ (0) to „Always’ (3) was used. The descriptive statistics have been presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Distribution on Instructional Supervision of Economics Teachers

	Response Ratings			
	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
Items	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)
Supervisory role	3(10)	25(83.3)	2(6.7)	-
Supervision Feedback and Remediation	7(23.3)	18(60)	5(16.7)	-
Professional-development	1(3.3)	26(86.7)	3(10)	-
Instructional-Supervision	.-	30(100)	-	-

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From the Table, 100% of Economics teachers “rarely” have instructional supervision. Head teachers/assistant and heads of department are those responsible for instructional supervision of Economics teachers. The result implies that head teachers/assistant and heads of department rarely perform this instructional supervisory duty. “Rarely” suggests that the instructional supervision hardly takes place in Senior High Schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. This is a Metropolis which has a reputation of having the best schools and teachers in the country (Owusu, 2018). According to Hoque, Kenayathulla, Subramaniam and Islam (2020), the fact that instructional supervision is very seldom carried out in schools can be equated to its complete absence. This result flows from the sub-scales of Supervisory Role, Supervision Feedback and Remediation and Professional Development (i.e. dialogue and support). The data of this current study reveals that in all the three (3) sub-scales of supervision, they are “rarely” being carried out by supervisors. 83.3% of Economics teachers “rarely” find their supervisors playing their supervisory role, 60% “rarely” get feedback and opportunity for remediation and 86.7% “rarely” have opportunities for professional dialogue/support. These high percentages are indicative of non-performance instructional supervision. Teachers’ continuous learning through instructional supervision assists them to become more efficient and effective (Hoque et al, 2020). The three sub-scales explaining the instructional supervision of Economics teachers have been discussed in the ensuing sections.

Supervisory Role

The Supervisory Role has to do with the supervision of instructional practice of teachers. It entails supervisors going round to inspect, evaluate, and assess teaching methods, use of teaching-learning resources, and classroom

management. Both formal and informal visitations and observations of instructional practices are part of the supervisory role. Figure 6 shows how supervisors played their supervisory role.

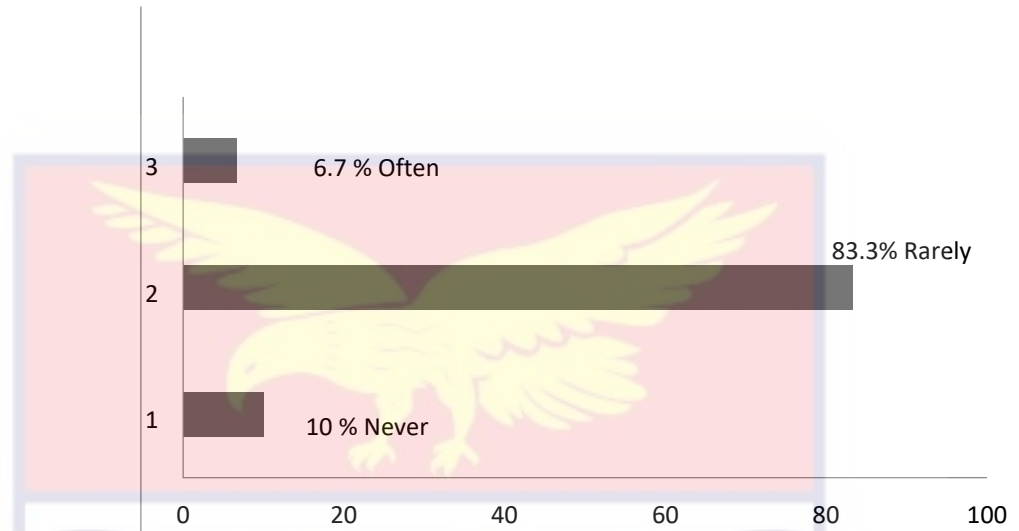


Figure 6: Performance of Supervisory Role by Head teachers/assistants and HoDs

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The data shows 10% of teachers indicating that their instructional practice were “never” supervised. This is inferred from the fact that these 10% of teachers never had a supervisory role being performed by either their Head teachers/assistants or Heads of department. A greater percentage of teachers (83.3%) indicated that supervisors rarely played their supervisory roles. Even those who say supervisory roles were often played were very few (6.7%). It is not surprising to find that supervision was not always done. In a similar study, Mohd Zaki (2001), found that Head teachers/assistants and Heads of department fail to do their duty of instructional supervision and when they do, they do it in a hierarchical, bureaucratic, and autocratic manner. The quality of education partly depends on how students are taught and managed. According to Glanz et al. (2007) teachers are one of the important inputs in the delivery

of quality education so supervision boosts their professional development and teaching performance, which in turn can enhance teaching methods and result in student success (Baffour-Awuah, 2011; Kholid & Rohmatika, 2019).

Several studies have found a strong influence of instructional supervision on poor students' academic performance (Esia-Donkoh & Baffoe, 2018; Kageha, 2008; Polit and Beck, 2010). Oduro (2008) found out that poor supervision of teachers is one of the major causes of poor academic performance among students in Ghana. In fact, Okendu (2012) is of the view that poor academic performance is due to poor instructional supervision. He describes poor instructional supervision using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire (1-5) where a mean of 2.5 or greater was considered good and a mean less than 2.5 was considered poor instructional supervision (Okendu, 2012). In this current study, the exact response of teachers were used and found that 10% never had instructional supervision, 6.7% had it "often" and 83.3% "rarely" had instructional supervision. The approach of this study in describing the state of instructional supervision captures the phenomenon with more detail (Hoque et al, 2020). Sabitu and Ayandoja (2012) and Samoei (2014) posit that instructional supervision is required to ensure that teachers are effective in teaching. Two of the test items under the Supervisory Role sub-scale throw more light on whether supervisors go for supervision or not. The result is presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Comparison between Supervisors' Informal Visits and Formal Visits to Classrooms

	Response Ratings			
	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
Items	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)
Informal visits to classroom	6(20)	6(20)	14(46.7)	4(13.3)
Formal visits to classroom	10(33.3)	9(30)	8(26.7)	3(10)

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The data presents informal visits of supervisors as against formal visits by instructional supervisors. A greater percentage (46.7%) of instructional supervisors “often” visit their teachers informally as compared with a smaller percentage (26.7%) who “often” visit formally. The data also shows that 33.3% “never” embarked on any formal instructional visits to the Economics classrooms. (Akinwumiju and Agabi (2008) argue that informal visits are usually an avenue for exchanging pleasantries and rarely for direct clinical supervision. To find a supervisor not engaging in formal supervisory visits can be very problematic. Figure 7 is presents the results of formal and informal visits of instructional supervisors to SHS Economics classrooms.

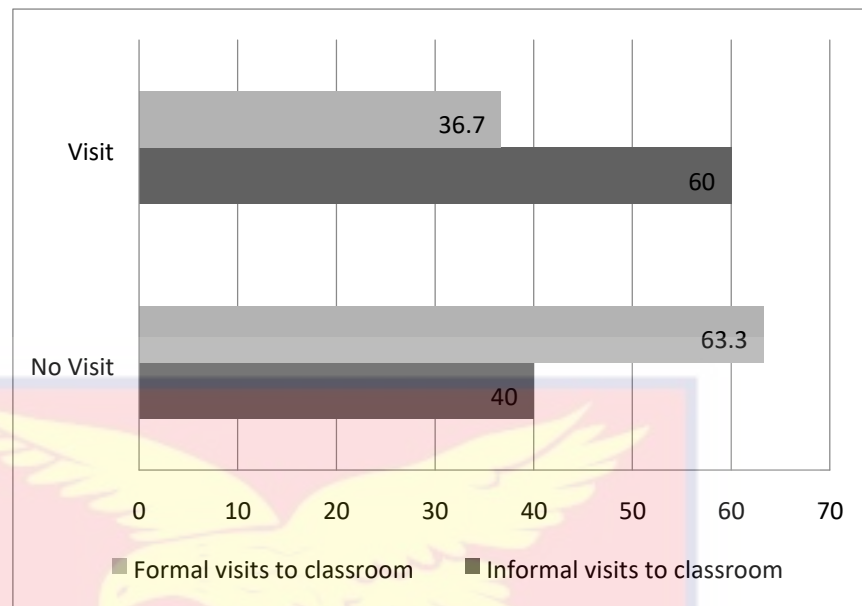


Figure 7: A Bar Chart representing formal and informal visits of instructional supervisors to SHS Economics classrooms
Source: Field Survey (2023)

In Figure 7, the percentages of responses labelled “never” and “rarely” are captured as “no visit” by instructional supervisors while “often” and “always” have been captured “visit” by instructional supervisors. The top bars in each column is Formal visits for instructional supervision and the bottom bars in each column are Informal visits. The data shows that there were more informal visits (60%) than formal visits (36.7%). Again, 63.3% of teachers had no formal visits while 40% had no informal visits.

The observation data indicated how Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department (HoD) visit classrooms and only exchange pleasantries with the teachers and students. It can be argued that the HoD whom I engaged had not purposed to embark on supervision because I was there for data collection so he possibly passed by the class to check on me. But after an informal conversation with the teacher, it was obvious the HoD only visits the classes informally. The teacher I engaged could not even remember the

last time the HoD formally visited his class for instructional supervision. Peretomode (2004) intimated that Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department generally do not embark on instructional supervision in many schools. They only engage in “monitoring or inspection” of class attendance by both students and teachers. This view has also been re-established by this study. However, informal visits are not entirely ineffective because when done purposefully, it can prove effectual. Some studies have found informal visits to classrooms as crucial component of supervision that researchers have theorized and empirically demonstrated that they can enhance instructional practice (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Rous, 2004). Such informally visits can be explored as collaborative or collegial supervision which can serve as mediums of peer coaching, mentoring, etc. Such visits give supervisors the chance to pinpoint areas where teachers need help or need to improve in a less tensed atmosphere. Supervisors can help teachers both individually and in groups by using this informal visits to support and assist them.

Supervision Feedback and Remediation

The data again revealed that 60% of Economics teachers “rarely” get feedback and remediation opportunities from their supervisors. Supervision feedback and remediation has to do with the opportunity supervisors give teachers for an interaction on their instructional practices and ways to improve their teaching. Blasé & Blase (2004), DuFour (2004), Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2007) posit that feedback enables teachers to understand how they go about their teaching. It provides them an insights into their instructional practices and ways to improve them. Remediation

offers teachers the opportunity to ensure they do not use any instructional practice that is not contributing positively to teaching and learning of Economics. Figure 8 presents the result showing the supervision feedback and remediation is given to teachers.

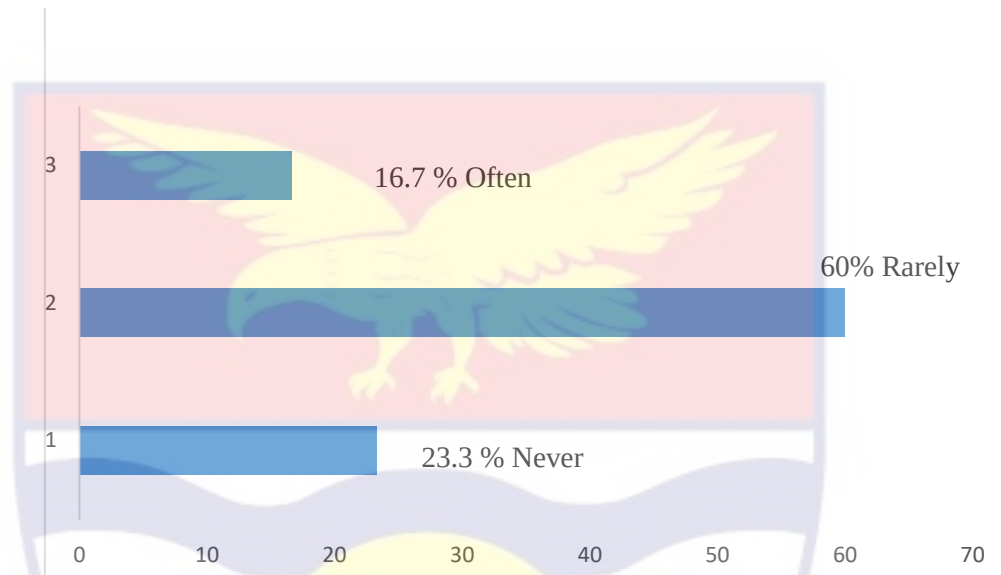


Figure 8: Provision of supervision feedback and remediation by Head teachers/assistants and HoDs
Source: Field Survey (2023)

Again, the data here shows that a greater majority of Economics teachers do not get feedback and opportunity for remediation from their instructional supervisors. About sixty percent reports that they rarely receive supervision feedback and remediation opportunities from their supervisors. Only 16.7% often had feedback and remediation opportunities but for over twenty-three percent of teachers, they never received feedback and remediation. It not surprising to find this result because the previous result on performance of supervisory role revealed that it was rarely done. If supervision was not done, it is expected that feedback and remediation will also not be done. Wahlstrom and Louis' (2008) finding was similar to this but with particular emphasis on the effect of lack of supervision feedback not provided.

They intimated that a lack of effective supervision and feedback on teachers' instructional practice are to blame for the low quality of education in many schools.

According to Tan et al. (2020), the main goals of feedback are to reduce gaps, increase knowledge, and minimize errors. Feedback is important because it indicates whether teaching is effectively done, making it a crucial part of education. Bergil and Atlib (2012) established that teaching can be influenced by feedback in any format, including written or spoken (Brown et al. 2012). Remediation is built upon the feedback from supervision so that the purposes why feedback was given can be achieved. Remediation is a strategic way of significantly improving teaching outcomes based on feedback provided by instructional supervisors (Al-Hattami 2019; Hattie & Timperley 2007; Mahfoodh 2017; Moreno 2004; Panhoon & Wongwanich 2014; Shute 2008; Van der Kleij et al. 2019). Effective feedback and remediation must be task-specific, brief, detailed, and focused on the task in order for teachers to set realistic expectations for themselves and take actions that will contribute to their successful teaching and learning (Fluckiger et al. 2010).

Professional Development (Dialogue and Support)

Even if the purpose of feedback is to improve performance, it is believed to be more effective when linked to professional development (May 2013), and it should be related to performance in terms of goals, criteria, and expected results (McCarthy 2017). Aoun et al. (2016) adds that effective feedback produces some form of reflective knowledge development that enables both supervisors and teachers to monitor and assess themselves to elicit and offer support for professional development. Instructional supervision

enhances teachers' professional development and improve students' academic performance (Terra & Berhann, 2019). Professional development on instructional supervision looks at the dialogue that takes place before and after instructional supervision aimed at helping the teacher develop his or instructional practices. There are also support services and resources Head teachers/assistants and heads of Department provides for teachers that enhance the teaching process. These professional dialogues can be done individually or in groups. Figure 9 shows professional development on instructional supervision.



Figure 9: Professional development on Instructional Supervision
Source: Field Survey (2023)

The result shows that 86% of Economics teachers rarely get any opportunity for professional development in the form of professional dialogues and support services/resources for their supervisors. In this study, professional support include in-service trainings, group meetings among Economics teachers, use of discussion and research on teaching of Economics and good interpersonal relationship among teachers. Only 10% of teachers often had

professional dialogues and support. Professional development in instructional supervision is usually sacrificed when supervision becomes an avenue for fault-finding. Mwakajitu, Lekule, Augustine (2022) found that instructional supervision has been used for fault-finding and criticising teachers, making teachers respond defensively to instructional supervision instead of it being an avenue for professional development. To find this professional development rarely done for teachers is indicative that their ability to properly use, maintain, and update instructional practice is not being enhanced (Mwaniki and Guantai (2018). Therefore, it should not be surprising to find teachers using the same instructional practice even if it is not effective.

Musa (2020) intimates that frequent instructional supervision of teachers raises the calibre of teachers to increase teaching effectiveness so that supervisor-teacher interaction becomes an avenue for improving teachers' instructional skills and ability to use different instructional methods. Kristiani (2020) posits that professional engagement and development of teachers promote collaboration between teachers and supervisors through the development of professional and productive relationships among teachers and supervisors for mutual support. It also builds teachers' confidence and competence when using teaching documents. For Mwaniki and Guantai (2018), professional development must be the core duty of instructional supervisors. They argue that every instructional supervision has an observation and post observation stage. During the post-observation stage, the supervisor must engage teachers on their pedagogical skills to discuss their instructional problems and suggests ways of addressing those problems. It was Akinwumi (2002) who insisted that this must be done in a post-observation conference for

all teachers in the school. The exchange of ideas will improve the quality of Economics education.

A report by the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2008) made it evident that the supervision of teaching methods has a significant impact on the quality of education. The report stated further that supervision is inadequate, inconsistent, and ineffective. The absence of instructional supervision affects the commitment of teachers and the academic performance of students. The physical presence of supervisors in the classrooms also gives teachers the opportunity to ask for help, boosts their confidence, and motivates them to work hard to raise student achievement.

Research Question Four

What problems are faced in supervising Economics teacher instructional practice?

The Research Question Four (4) sought to find out the problems associated with how instructional supervision is carried out in SHS Economics classrooms. These problems are the issues challenging teacher instructional supervision. The problems discussed here are those faced by supervisors (Head teachers and heads of department) and teachers. Data for addressing this research question was collected from the interviews of teachers and Head teachers and heads of department. An open-ended question: *briefly describe problems you face with supervision*, was included in the questionnaire for teachers. Responses to this question was also used in addressing this research question. The interview data was collected from three (3) Economics teachers and three (3) Head teacher/assistant/Head of Department. Each of the three category of schools (A, B and C) had one teacher and one Head

teacher/assistant/Head of Department. The views and submissions of the interviewees have been analysed thematically. Three major themes comes up from the interview data which describe the problems associated with instructional supervision of Economics. The themes are supervisor related problems, nature of the supervision and student related problems. The detailed description of these problems have been discussed extensively in the ensuing sections.

Supervisor related problems

This has to do with the challenges associated with how supervisors go about instructional supervision. These problems were acknowledged by teachers. Non-availability of supervisors is one of the core problems of instructional supervision. It implies that Head teachers/assistants and Heads of department who are in charge of instructional supervision were not readily available for supervision. This can be interpreted that instructional supervision is not being done regularly. One of the interviewees had this to say, “*the supervisors don’t come around*”. Another interviewee also added that “*I know this must be done by the headmaster, but he can’t come around because he is very busy*”. Still to buttress this point, an interviewee indicated that “*the HoD is supposed to come for supervision but he hasn’t being coming*”. These views were intimated by almost all the teachers interviewed for the study. And it is expected because the Head teachers/assistants and heads of department are burdened with a lot of administrative issues which gives them little or no time for instructional supervision (Baffour-Awuah, 2011). In an interview with one of the Assistant Headmaster who is also an Economics teacher, he indicated that his role as headmaster gives him very little time to do instructional

supervision. Attrams (2015) agrees that aside the administrative roles of the office of the assistant head teachers, they also have teaching responsibilities as well.

Other studies done by Hoque, Alam and Abdullah (2010) share the position that instructional supervision is encumbered by the heavy workload of Head teachers/assistant and Heads of department who are the main supervisors. These internal supervisors are not readily available because they do not have enough time to do the supervision. One would expect that HoDs who are not preoccupied with a lot of administrative duties like the head teachers/assistants should have enough time to handle the supervision.

However, the interview data shows that both Head teachers/assistants and Heads of department are not readily available for instructional supervision. There are some other factors that explain why HoDs are also not readily available for supervision which fall under teacher related problems and school related problem. The implication of non-availability of supervisors is dire to effective instructional practice because there is no extra eye checking what and how teachers go about their teaching. Instructional supervision has the potential of ensuring that teacher instructional activities are tailored to suit effective practices. The non-availability of supervisors means teachers can do whatever is convenient for them (Attrams, 2015).

In one of the classroom observation, I observed that teachers rarely get instructional supervision because there is no consciousness of a supervisor's eye on their instructional activities. In one instance, there were no readily available lesson notes prepared by the teacher I interviewed. It may not be farfetched to perceive that the non-availability of supervisors does not urge

them to get their lesson notes written out for every lesson. According to Attrams (2015), teachers are urged on to follow due processes when there is supervision. This is not only about teachers but generally the presence of supervision urges one to do the right thing.

Still on supervisor related problems, there is the issue of supervisors not having content knowledge in Economics. The supervisors for instructional supervision are usually Head teachers or assistant head teachers who tend to come from any of the subject areas. In this study, I found only one of the head teachers who was also an Economics teacher. The rest were all in other subject areas. The interviewees saw it as a problem to instructional supervision. The exact reason for this was not communicated by the interviews but the impression they give is that *“my headmaster is not an Economics teacher, so he does not really understand why I teach the way I do”*. Clearly, the issue here is the level of content knowledge a supervisor in a subject area brings into instructional supervision of teachers of other subject areas. Baffour-Awuah (2011) agrees with this assertion because supervisors must have content knowledge of the lesson they are supervising as a guarantee of effective and efficient instructional supervision.

In relating the issue of supervisors with no content knowledge in Economics to the instructional practice of teacher, one can juxtapose it with the use of content-induced instructional practice. It is important to acknowledge that a supervisor who is working with teachers who employ content-induced instructional practice must possess good content knowledge in Economics. Effective and efficient instructional supervision of a contentinduced instructional practice demands that the supervisor must have a

good background in Economics education. Anyagre (2016) buys into this view because he argues that it helps the supervisor to appreciate what the teacher does in the classroom well. Others such as Hoque et al (2020) are opposed to this position because it is the teaching methods that is being supervised and not necessarily the content being taught. The content is contained in textbooks which can always be verified by both students and teachers but the teaching methods are usually the problem that calls for supervision. Therefore, supervisors must as a prerequisite have knowledge in pedagogy and not necessarily content knowledge.

Others such as James and Massiah (2019) and Khun-inkeeree et al (2019) still disagree with that position because the application of pedagogical knowledge is only relevant if it helps convey content knowledge effectively. It is the content that tells the tool or method to use and not the tool that tells the content to teach. Personally, I am akin to the latter position because the teaching of Economics at SHS is guided by content specified in the syllabus and examinable by WAEC; and not just the teaching methods. Teachers must first know the content to teach before planning how to teach that content. Knowing the content helps in choosing the most effective and efficient teaching method.

Nature of Supervision

The nature of supervision has to do with how supervision is carried out. It appears teachers find the way supervision is done to be problematic. One interviewee had this to say about the way supervision was done, *“supervision is more like monitoring whether we come to class or not”*. The impression this gives is that supervisors do not make time to sit in the

classroom for supervision but only check for teacher attendance to class. Another interviewee added that “the *HoD only inquires how things are going but do not come to sit in my lessons*”. This is expected because the HoDs are colleague teachers whose informal interactions with both teachers and students affects the formal role of supervision. Even though this informal cordial relationship is beneficial to effective instructional practice. Instructional supervision must be done professionally with the high level of seriousness.

The expected type of instructional supervision is clinical instructional supervision, a type that must be done through sit-in sessions (Salifu, 2018). Monitoring/inspection of teacher class attendance cannot be classified as supervision because monitoring neglects the real work of paying attention to how teaching is done. Segun (2004) emphasizes that supervision is the promotion of teachers' professional development, the choice and revision of educational objectives, instructional materials, teaching strategies, and instruction evaluation. It is a method of counselling, advising, reviving, encouraging, stimulating, improving, and overseeing particular groups in an effort to gain their cooperation and help supervisors succeed in their managerial duties at schools Bessong and Ojong (2009). It is not synonymous to monitoring whether teachers are present in class or not. Others such as Kwapong and Mensah (2018) posit that effective instructional supervision requires supervisor to sit in and observe classroom teaching and learning activities.

The problem with seeing the nature of supervision as “monitoring” appears to be related to non-availability of supervisors. In making up for their non-availability, Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department may only

show up to monitor whether teachers are in class or not. They will not sit in to observe instructional sessions of teachers but will only go round from class to class checking if teachers are teaching. Instructional supervision feedback and remediation is not done because this nature of supervision cannot produce the right feedback needed for remediation. A popular anonymous quote says, *“people do what they are supervised to do and not what they are told to do”*. It is not surprising to find Akyeampong (2003; 2009) report that teachers do not use the recommended instructional practice in the SHS syllabus. He joins the World Bank (2004) to call for changes in classroom in terms of better supervision of teaching and improved teaching methods in Ghana. The supervision needed to ensure that the recommended teaching activities are implemented is not done properly. Instead of instructional supervision, what is being done is “instructional monitoring”.

In my observation, a Head of Department came by the class, refused to sit in but only exchanged pleasantries with the teacher and students. After the class, I engaged the teacher and some of the students whether they get either the Head teachers/assistant or Heads of Department coming to sit in their classroom for instructional supervision. The impression I got was in the negative. This situation is typical of most Senior High Schools in the country (Owusu-Addo, Yeboah & Addai-Amoah, 2022). One thing that is commendable is the call on teachers to prepare lesson notes regularly for inspection by Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department. The discussion of the scheme of work for teaching is regularly done among HoDs and the rest of the teachers.

Student related problems

Students face certain problems due to how instructional supervision is done in Economics classrooms. One interviewee says, *“students most at times are reluctant to contribute in class when a supervisor is around”*. This problem is not surprising because most students tend to revere Head teachers/assistant and are shy to voice out their submissions in their presence. Therefore, having Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department in the class will get them feeling a bit uncomfortable. Ayandoja et al (2017) are of the view that students coil in and struggle to contribute in classroom interactions when there are visitors in their class. There are others who are of the view that students feel that way because the supervisors are intimidating towards the students (Emenike Iroegbu, 2019). The point here is that a nonintimidating Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department will not have a negative effect on students during sit-in sessions but if the supervisor already has an intimidating attitude outside of the classroom he or she will have it impacting student learning negatively.

The observation results is against this position because students seemed a bit tensed by my presence in the classroom but as the lesson progressed they felt at ease and comfortable with my presence in the class. It is incumbent on the classroom teacher and the supervisor to prepare the minds of students for any instructional supervision session. This will help ease the tension associated with having an instructional supervisor around.

Research Question Five

What can be done to improve how instructional practice of Economics teachers is supervised?

This research question sought to find out things that can be done to improve how instructional supervision is done among Senior High School Economics teachers. The interview results provided these factors that can be implemented to improve instructional supervision. The factors were the major themes that came up from the interview data related to the research question on how to improve instructional supervision. These factors include digitalization of instructional supervision, motivation of supervisors (especially HoDs), and institutionalisation of external supervisors, teacher professional dialogue and in-service training for supervisors. The details of how each of these factors tend to improve instructional supervision has been discussed in the ensuing sections.

Digitalisation of instructional supervision

This comes at the back of the difficulty Head teachers/assistant and Heads of Department have in making time for instructional supervision. These internal supervisors are preoccupied with other equally important activities such that they are unable to make time for in-person supervision in the classroom. For them, the digitalisation of instructional supervision will make it possible for them to do it at any time. One of the interviewees suggested that, “*cameras can be used*”. This can be in the form of CCTV cameras which when installed in the classroom will record what transpired during the instructional period. The instructional supervisor can view the recorded lesson on a monitor screen either live or later from his or her office.

Even if the supervisor (head teacher/assistant or HoD) is busy at the time of the lesson, he or she has the opportunity to watch the recorded instructional session at a different time. The problem of supervisors coming to sit in Economics classrooms for instructional supervision can be resolved through digitalisation.

The digitalisation of instructional supervision will also provide a very reliable data on instructional supervision which can be analysed and interpreted for policy formation and academic purposes. The use of digital instruments will also ease the tension students deal with when there is a third party (supervisor) sitting in the classroom. Even though Spencer, Fegley and Harpalani (2003) argue that CCTV cameras can also cause some level of tension in the classroom, it is worthy to clarify that this is a natural response to having cameras in their classroom for the first time. Soon, they will get used with it and consider the cameras as part of the facilities in the classroom. Spencer et al (2003) perceive CCTV cameras as security measures for disciplinary and surveillance purposes so their concern about it causing tension is understandable but it will not be problematic when used for academic purposes. For Kupichik, Ward and Race (2013) using CCTV camera for only security purposes is a stereotypical position. In an age of digitalisation and innovation, these surveillance facilities have other latent educational purposes. CCTV cameras in the classroom does not suppress classroom interactions as in-person supervisors would. When students find CCTV cameras as part of the facilities in the classroom, they approach it differently as one would perceive a physical presence of a Head teacher/assistant or Head of Department (Cornel, 2015).

Johnson, Bottiani, Waasdorp and Bradshaw (2018) argue that CCTV cameras installation will breach the privacy of students. This argument is not sustainable because the classroom session is a not private interaction but a place for teaching and learning activities. It is not a place for private activities which can be to the detriment of other persons in the classroom. Even though the main finding of Johnson et al (2018) suggest that students and teachers may view outside cameras as keeping them safe and internal cameras could make them feel like potential offenders who need to be watched, the academic purposes for the installation of the CCTV cameras cannot be jettisoned. Therefore, school administrators and leaders must religiously consider the location and extent of usage and how those decisions may change depending on the context of the school and the students.

Another challenge with the use of CCTV cameras is that it cannot provide a concrete data on the emotions or affective interactions of both students and teachers (Adedoyin & Soykan 2020). The cameras cannot capture the emotions at play in the classroom. Unlike in-person supervision, the CCTV cameras cannot provide a detailed data on the affective interactions of students and teachers. Nonetheless, CCTV cameras can provide useful data of the non-verbal communication of both students and teachers making its useful for instructional supervision.

In the work of Martin et al. (2020) on the use of CCTV cameras for educational purposes, it was found that it keeps teachers doing what is expected of them in the classroom. It also ensures punctuality and attendance to class by both teachers and students. It was also intimated by teachers that the presence of the cameras in the classroom required that they prepare well

before coming to class. Digitalisation of instructional supervision can be a good way of improving the teaching and supervision of Economics lessons at the SHS level. However, it must not be relied on solely but complemented with in-person instructional supervision. This will help supervisors to confirm or verify the data from the cameras.

Motivation of supervisors (especially HoDs)

To improve classroom effectiveness, teacher motivation is a crucial factor (Carson & Chase, 2009). Since the quality of instruction has a significant impact on students' learning outcomes, research on teaching effectiveness has focused on teaching practices and instructional behaviours in relation to teacher motivation factors (Butler & Shibaz, 2014; Han, Yin, & Wang, 2015; Retelsdorf, Butler, Streblow, & Schiefele, 2010; Retelsdorf & Günther, 2011). Heads of departments appear to be the best persons for instructional supervision at the SHS level. Unfortunately, the level of motivation of Heads of Departments for this work is very low. This can be confirmed by my personal observation from all the schools I visited. There was no enthusiasm and supervisory engagements with teachers by the head teachers/assistants or HoDs. The office of Heads of Departments in all the schools were not resourced. This situation is the case generally in all Senior High Schools in Ghana (Simpson, Howaward, Peligah & Cann, 2016). The departmental structure is better at the tertiary educational level than in the lower levels. So the department structure in SHS is just part of the administrative structure but not an effective operational system. It is not surprising to find low motivation for the extra responsibilities heads of department play. No additional remuneration or allowance (monetary) given to

them for the work Heads of Department do. These and many other challenges demotivates HoDs from taking up the extra duty of instructional supervision alongside their teaching responsibilities. But with the good level of motivation and monetary compensation, they will feel motivated to ensure effective instructional supervision (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2014; MoE, 2015).

The office of the Heads of Department is usually an internal appointment with no formal recognition by the Ghana Education Service. The appointment is done by the head teacher and on the basis of years of teaching experiences or how long a teacher has taught in that particular school (Simpson, Howaward, Peligah & Cann, 2016). There appears to be no special monetary compensation for the supervisory role played from GES except the allowance given them internally by the school (Kosi, Sulemana, Boateng & Mensah, 2015). This allowance from the school rarely gets paid due to financial difficulties the schools face as well. Han, Yin and Boylan (2016) argue that teacher motivation is not only in monetary terms. Even though this position is valid and I identifies with it, the influence of the financial element in teacher motivation cannot be underestimated. Quainoo (2019) in his study on the influence of job satisfaction on teacher instructional practice found that the single factor that accounted for why teachers were not satisfied with teaching is their salary. The study also revealed that the use of teacher centred instructional practice in Economics classroom was influenced by their dissatisfaction with their salaries.

One of the interviewees has this to say, “*supervision is burdensome and there is no allowance for it*”. In a follow-up question, he added that “*I can’t leave my personal things and sit in another class for supervision when nobody cares about me*”. This assertion reveals the need to motivate Heads of Department for the extra responsibilities of instructional supervision. Adarkwah (2023) posits that motivated teachers will do more to ensure effectiveness in any teaching and learning activity. Usually, the issue of motivation is centred on recognition and appreciation of efforts. The excuse for not motivating teachers is usually around inadequacy of resource. Already, the government is always trying to scrap off some of the existing allowances of teachers (Ghana Business News, 2013). But the improvement expected to be seen in the way instructional supervision is done requires that the government pay particular attention to getting Heads of Departments motivated for the extra work done. Osei (2006) mentioned that although the government of Ghana expects much from teachers, it does not adequately reward them. According to Ghana Business News (2013) and Oyennigbehin (2018) teachers in Ghana frequently go on strike because they believe their motivation is low which has resulted in the numerous strike actions.

Institutionalisation of External Supervisors

Currently, the personnel used for instructional supervision are all internal personnel in the various schools. They include head teachers, assistant head teachers and heads of departments. And institutionalisation of external supervisors will help improve the work done by the internal supervisors. This is not to say that the internal supervisors should be replaced by the external but both be allowed to complement each other. The external supervisor will help

address the issues of victimisation of teachers by some internal supervisors. It will also provide an external eye on the work done by internal supervisors to ensure effectiveness and efficiency.

External supervision will also address the challenge of familiarity among teachers and internal supervisors. Familiarity tend to work against effectiveness and the level of seriousness people attach to things (Aboagye, 2007; Amedahe, 2007). One interviewee intimated that “*external supervisors will be more serious with the work than using HoD*”. Even though the interviewee refused to explain further his assertion, one could infer that his position was based on the general impression that external supervisors are more serious than internal supervisors. This is expected because internal supervisors do have a lot of responsibilities in their schools and have to deal with the issue of familiarity.

External supervisors are also well motivated than internal supervisors because they are full time appointees of the Ghana Education Service (GES, 2002). At the moment, there are officers of the Inspectorate Division (I.D.) of the Ghana Education Service (GES) who visit basic schools as circuit supervisors. A District Oversight Committee was established by the GES (Act 506) to monitor the district-level administration of education and to collaborate with the school management committee to advance teaching and learning. These officers have received training to visit the schools that fall under their purview in order to verify that the government's highest performance standards are being upheld. External supervisors are remunerated for their service. According to Osei-Mensah (2012) external supervisors are more motivated than internal supervisors. Adarkwah (2023) found that if

internal supervisors have the same motivation given external supervisors their effort will be highly productive. Few other policy options, according to research, can increase teachers' motivation but not without addressing the monetary first (Tournier et al., 2019).

Teacher Professional Dialogue and Support

Another way of improving instructional supervision is teacher professional dialogue. This has to do with teachers engaging in professional discussions to improve their instructional practice. In these dialogues, they can review the way they go about their classroom sessions with students and brainstorm ways of improving the effectiveness of their teaching. The interview results show almost all teachers indicating the need for teacher professional dialogue and support. The main reason from the data is that it offers teachers the opportunity to adopt what works for students in teaching Economics.

One of the interviewees stated that *“sharing ideas on how to teach a particular topic helps in planning for my lessons”*. Esia-Donkoh and Ofosu-Dwamena (2014) calls this “professional engagement” and captures it in the framework of effective teaching. In the framework designed by OECD (2003), teacher professional dialogue was conceptualized as very critical to the teaching and learning process needed for achieving teacher effectiveness. Issues such as these fall under teacher professional dialogue and support.

It is important to note that the departmental structures in SHS do provide opportunity for teacher engagement for teachers in the same subject area. Teachers in Economics meet to discuss issues pertaining to teaching and

learning of the subject during departmental meetings. In these meeting, the head of department moderates discussions and deliberations. In my visit to one of the schools for observation, there was a departmental meeting which was on going during lunch break. I got the opportunity to sit in the meeting and I observed that their departmental meetings are avenues for teacher professional dialogue. However, the meetings are usually restricted to discussing the scheme of work (a list of topics to teach each week in the term) and dissemination of notices from the school's administrative office.

Instructional supervision and instructional practices of teachers are expected to be topical in such deliberations but it appears it is not the case because the supervision is rarely done (Ampofo, Onyango and Ogola, 2019). What is commonly done is the academic board meeting report discussion. Here the report from the academic board where the head of department represents the Economics department is discussed. In the academic board meeting, students' performance of end of term examinations and the WASSCE are discussed. The discussion is supposed to be done subject area by subject area but due to time constraint, the moderator who is usually the Head Teacher can pick subjects with poor performance for detailed discussion. Other issue that is topic during academic board meeting are teaching time schedules, issues of indiscipline and notices/announcement from GES.

I did not get the opportunity to observe either an academic board meeting. It appears that detailed discussions on instructional practice and supervision of teachers are not paramount in those meeting. All the teachers interviewed intimated that encouraging teacher professional dialogue on instructional practice and supervision is a way of improving instructional

supervision. Again, the data from CCTV cameras when analysed and interpreted, the results will guide discussions and deliberations on instructional supervision in such professional meetings.

Other support that comes up from the interview results has to do with workload of heads of departments. One of the interviewees had this to say, *“HoDs should have less instructional period. This will help them to have time for instructional supervision”*. The issue here is how heads of department can be readily available for instructional supervision. It is not suggestive that they do not have time but it is clear that the workload of teaching alongside supervision of their colleagues is a lot to bear. A way out of this difficulty is to have their instructional periods reduced so they can have a lesser teaching responsibility to make room for instructional supervision.

In-Service Training and Workshops on Instructional Supervision

Another factor that is worth considering in improving instructional supervision is in-service training and workshops on instructional practice and supervision. This training must not be tailored for only supervisors but teachers as well to educate them on the import of instructional supervision and what is expected of them. The training and workshops must also ensure that challenges faced during instructional supervision by both teachers, supervisors and students are discussed and addressed. A cooperative attitude must be encouraged among teachers and supervisors. Kalule and Bouchamma (2014) posit that cooperation between supervisors and teachers is necessary in instructional supervision. An interviewee noted that instructional supervision can be improved through *“organisation of workshops and seminars to help improve content delivery”*. These workshops help improve the expertise of

both supervisors and teachers in their work. It re-orientes teachers and supervisors on the purpose of instructional supervision and calms the tension that arises between them (Sullivan & Glanz, 2013; Mofareh, 2011).

The present situation in SHS Economics education is that Head teacher/assistants and Heads of Department are not given regular in-service training on instructional practice and supervision (Essel, Badu, OwusuBoateng & Saah, 2009). Even though there are efforts in this regard (Essel, Badu, Owusu-Boateng & Saah, 2009), the problem still persist in the area of instructional supervision. The notion that teaching experience qualifies Head teachers/assistants and Heads of Department as instructional supervisors is problematic. Though teaching experience has a positive influence on effective teaching, it is not always the case because several other factors affect teaching. One of these other factors is continuous in-service training (Essel, et al, 2009).

There is also the issue of non-teaching Head teachers/assistants who are serving as instructional supervisors. During my school/class observation, almost all head teachers/assistants in the Senior High Schools used for this study are no longer teaching. They were only involved in administrative activities. This situation is normative in Senior High Schools in Ghana and must not be interpreted that non-teaching Head teachers/assistant do not qualify for instructional supervision. However, it is necessary for such persons to recognise the need for in-service training to get themselves more abreast with new issues in instructional practice and supervision.

Some Heads of Department intimated that they have not received any training on instructional supervision. They are playing the role of instructional supervisors because of their position as Heads of Departments. Osamwonyi

(2016) agrees with this because in a similar study, he found that supervisors are not given any special training as instructional supervisors. It was difficult finding any direct GES policy on instructional supervision at the Senior High School level. It is the Staff Performance Planning, Review and Appraisal Form (Public Services Performance Management, 2022) which offered some information on teacher eagerness for personal development and other opportunities from management for further training. It must be emphasized that this training spoken of on the form is not necessarily about instructional supervision because the form is for all teachers and not specifically for instructional supervisors. According to Siva-Sumapal and Billones (2019), inservice training is a way of making sure supervisors are well trained for the job. In improving instructional supervision of SHS Economics teachers, inservice training and workshops must be organised regularly for both teachers and supervisors. It is a deliberate and ongoing process involving the identification and discussion of present and anticipated needs of specific staff members for advancing their job satisfaction and career prospects and of the institution for supporting its academic work and plans, as well as the implementation of staff activity programs designed for the harmonious satisfaction of these needs.

However, Gerumi (2002) found majority of instructional supervisors lacking professional and technical skills in instructional supervision aside their teaching abilities. Even though this study was carried out in Tanzania, the context is similar to the Ghanaian context because Head teacher/assistant are responsible for supervision just like in Ghana, there are few specialised training institutes for educational leaders just like it is in Ghana, short training

courses for Head teachers are usually not comprehensive, and there are no certified professional courses on instructional supervision in the tertiary educational institutions just like it is in Ghana.

As a result, it is vital that Head teachers/assistants and HoDs are equipped with continuous training that will help them ensure that instructional practice is properly directed for effective teaching. This can only be possible through in-service training. Fritz and Miller (2001) opined that, the responsibility of ensuring that effective teaching and learning rests on the supervisory techniques of instructional supervisors. Obi (2004) has provided several ways supervisors may use to support good teaching in schools. These include self-appraisal method, micro-teaching, classroom visitation, clinical supervision, workshop, demonstration method among others. It will assist in achieving the objectives of teaching and learning and give teachers feedback on their teaching (Mwakajiku, Lekule & Augustine, 2022).

Discussion for Hypothesis One

H₁: Teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices do significantly influence student learning approaches.

H₀: Teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices do not significantly influence student learning approaches.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to determine the influence of instructional practice of Economics teachers on students' approaches to learning. The instructional practice under consideration are the teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices (see results of research question one). And the students' approaches to learning under consideration are the Strategic-Deep and Surface approaches to learning (see results of research question two). The "rare" use of both teacher-centred and student-centred

instructional practices and the greater majority of students using a Strategic Deep approach to learning presupposes differences in students' approaches to learning as a result of teacher instructional practice. The significance of such differences will provide an understanding on the influence of teachers on student learning. It will also elucidate the argument that the way students learn is influenced by the way teachers teach. It is in explaining such differences that this hypothesis: teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices do not significantly influence student learning approaches was formulated. The conceptual understanding that teacher instructional practice can influence students' approaches to learning shaped this hypothesis. Hence, the difference was examined through multiple linear regression. The results have been presented in Table 15.

Table 15: Regression Analysis of Teacher Instructional Practice on Students' Approaches to Learning

Teacher Instructional Students' Approaches to Learning Practices

	Strategic-Deep		Surface	
	Coef.	p	Coef.	p
Teacher-centred	1.891561 (.446)	0.000	2.14 (.384)	0.000
Student-centred	1.777882 (.403)	0.000	.6169827 (.346)	0.075
Cons	6.708644 (.797)	0.000	10.29172 (.686)	0.000
Number of obs =	346		346	
Prob > F =	0.0000		0.0000	
R-squared =	0.1298		0.1099	
Adj R-squared =	0.1247		0.1047	
F(2, 343) =	25.57		21.18	
mean VIF =		1.08		
Heteroskedasticity =	$(\chi^2 = 24.70, p = .0002).$			

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The test of multicollinearity showed that the independent variables (teacher instructional practice) were not highly correlated with each other (mean VIF = 1.08). The homoscedastic test was passed ($\chi^2 = 24.70$, $p = .0002$). From Table 15, the results show that the overall regression model was statistically significant for Strategic-Deep approach to learning ($R^2 = .1298$, $F(2, 343) = 25.57$, $p = .000$) and Surface approach to learning ($R^2 = .1047$, $F(2, 343) = 23.18$, $p = .000$). It was found that the use of teacher-centred instructional practice influences students to use both Strategic-Deep approach and Surface approach to learning. Nevertheless, the weight of influence teacher-centred instructional practice had on Surface approach to learning is greater ($\beta = 2.14$, $p = .000$). The influence of student-centred instructional practice was only statistically significant on Strategic-Deep approach to learning ($\beta = 1.78$, $p = .000$). Its weight of influence was not greater than the weight of influence of teacher-centred instructional practice has on students' who use of Strategic-Deep approach ($\beta = 1.89$, $p = .000$). In comparing the influence of instructional practices on students' approaches to learning, the data shows that students who use Surface approach to learning were influenced by teacher-centred instructional practice and not student-centred instructional practice. Again, students who use Strategic-Deep approach to learning were influenced by a mixture of both teacher-centred and studentcentred instructional practices.

On the other hand, the findings of (Espenshade & Radford, 2009; Dolmans, Loyens, Marcq & Gijbels, 2016) which found an influence of student-centred instructional practice on Surface approach to learning was not confirmed in this study. The result is clear that Surface approach to learning

was not caused by student-centred instructional practice. This result is expected because extant literature (Peyton, More & Young, 2010; Zimmerman, 2008) have established how student-centred instructional practice highly promotes Strategic-Deep approach to learning than the Surface approach. This means that Economics teachers who are student-centred in the instructional practice influence students to learn strategically and deeply. Such teachers do not enhance the use of Surface approach among their students.

Approaches to learning are assumed to be related to the perceived demands of the learning environment and are not seen as purely personal characteristics (Biggs & Tang 2007; Nijhuis et al. 2005). How students approach their learning is viewed as changeable and influenced by factors in the learning environment and students' perceptions of these factors (Gijbels et al. 2014; Gijbels et al. 2009). A very predominant factor of the learning environment is teacher and student perceptions on instructional practice. The finding of this study that Surface approach to learning is not influenced by student-centred practice was also confirmed. Dolmans et al (2016) investigated the effects of student-centred instructional practice on Surface approach to learning and they found no effect. Even when the context of teaching and learning was considered, the student-centred instructional practice has a less effect on Surface approach to learning. Rather, surface approach to learning was influenced by teacher-centred practice as seen in the result. Muganga and Ssenkusu (2019) have argued that teacher-centred practice enhance Strategic-Deep approach to learning.

Discussion for Hypothesis Two

H_1 : Student-centred instructional practice significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.

H_0 : Student-centred instructional practice does not significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.

The purpose of this study is to unravel whether student-centred instructional practice dominate the influence on students' use of strategic-deep approach to learning. It is an attempt to appreciate whether the influence of instructional practice on students' approaches to learning was dominated by teacher-centred or student-centred instructional practice. In other to ascertain which of these two instructional practices was dominant in influencing students' use of Strategic-Deep approach to learning, a dominance analysis was consulted. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16: Dominance Analysis Weights of the Teacher Centred and Student-Centred Instructional Practices on Students' Use of Strategic-Deep Approach to Learning

Strategic-Deep approach	Instructional Practice	Standardized Dominance Stat.	Dominance Ranking
	Student-centred	0.0670	1
	Teacher-centred	0.0628	2

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The result shows that student-centred instructional practice with a standardized dominance statistic of .0670 is ranked the most dominant in influencing students' use of Strategic-Deep approach to learning. It dominated teacher-centred instructional practice in terms of its influence of students' use of the Strategic-Deep approach to learning. This result clarifies the data in

Table 16 that even though the Strategic-Deep approach to learning varies more with the teacher-centred instructional practice, than with student-centred instructional practice, students' use Strategic-Deep approach to learning is dominated by student-centred instructional practice. This study provides clear evidence to support some earlier studies (Owus & Cobbold, 2020, Franscisco & Celon, Weimer, 2002, Wright, 2011) that obtained similar findings on the influence of student-centred instructional practice on Strategic-Deep approach to learning.

The dominance of student-centred instructional practice can be discussed in terms of the nature of the instructional practice. Grasha (1996) shares the idea of the use of different instructional practices. For Kazemi and Soleimani (2016), are of the view that one cannot overlook the diverse classifications and categorizations observed in instructional practice, most of which are based on either teacher-centred or student-centred orientations. The central goal of instructional practice is how teachers' ideas and attitudes regarding classroom management impact judgments on how to deliver content and involve students in class activities. This is why Grasha (1996) argues that the main issue of concern is that teachers' instructional practice may differ depending on context and students' needs because no single teacher adopts a single practice in an educational setting. As a result, one of these different instructional practice will be the dominant instructional practice. The dominance is in terms of the kind of instructional practice that allows the teacher to create appropriate codes of behaviour for active classroom interaction with students (Kazemi & Soleimani, 2016). When the instruction is teacher-centred, there is an explicit teacher control over the classroom whiles student-centred instruction values active student participation. Yasar (2008) tested this hypothetically and examined the relationship between the classroom

management approaches and instructional practice in Turkey. The results indicated that teachers who used integrated instructional practice tend to use a student-centred approach for classroom management. This study confirms the dominant nature of student-centred instructional practice for the use of integrated instructional practices.

According to Serife (2011) and Dolmans et al (2016), the mechanisms through which student-centred instructional practice is assumed to encourage Strategic-Deep learning are active and self-directed learning. These mechanisms are not promoted in teacher-centred instruction where the preference is on textbook dominated instruction, control and student passivity. As a result, teacher-centeredness has received a lot of criticism for favouring passive students rather than active ones, who use Surface learning to cope with their learning task (Serin, 2018; Freiberg, 1999). However, it is important to mention that this study is not advocating for an exclusive use of studentcentred instructional practice as being indicated by Santi and Kadaryanto (2017).

Even though student-centred approach has been favoured, teacher-centred instructional practice is still essential for effective learning. It is the teacher who provides who conditions classroom environment to stimulate active student participation and academic success. Serin (2018) argues that the students' sense of responsibility increases in student-centred classroom when there is a blend of teacher-centredness. This is because "passionate teachers know that it is their role to encourage students for an active learning and concern themselves with promoting students' intellectual and moral development" (Mart, 2013, p. 438). Students cannot learn in a vacuum without a facilitator. Vygotsky (1978) conceptualises it as a zone of proximal development, so that the difference of what a student can learn without help and what he or she can learn with help is addressed. A blend of

teachercentredness with student centred instructional practice creates this zone of proximal development for Strategic-Deep approach to learning (Mascolo, Fischer & Pollack, 1997).

In this current study, Strategic-Deep approach to learning was influenced by both teacher centred and student centred instructional practices. This is suggestive of a mixture of instructional practices. Weimer (2002), Wright (2011) and Serin (2018) have all indicated how student learning is improved when different instructional practices are used in teaching. Dolmans et al (2016) also indicated that when students who are used to teachercentredness are exposed to student-centred instructional practice they tend to improve their approach to learning from Surface to Deep.

Student-centred instructional practice allows students the responsibility to control their learning by being actively involved in the learning process, a responsibility that is discharged effectively through incorporating studentcentred methods into traditional teaching practices (Slunt & Giancario, 2004; Chung & Chow, 2004). Baxter and Gray (2001) posit that effective learning requires a move towards a model in which students are actively engaged in the learning process through different instructional practice. This helps students to develop the ability to manage their own learning, choose appropriate learning goals, and use their existing knowledge and skills to direct their learning, all as a strategic-deep approach to learning (Tärnvik, 2007).

Chapter Summary

The study investigated instructional practices employed by Economics teachers through student questionnaires, teacher interviews, and classroom observations. Descriptive statistics revealed that both student-

centred and teacher-centred practices are rarely used, with "rarely" being the most common response for both. Student-centred practices, which focus on active student participation, were used more frequently (39%) than teacher-centred practices (27%), but still not as commonly as expected. Interviews revealed that teachers adapt their practices based on content and context, rather than strictly adhering to either student-centred or teacher-centred methods. Content-induced practices focus on effectively delivering the lesson content, while context-induced practices consider factors like class size and school resources. Classroom observations confirmed that teachers often blend both approaches depending on the situation. Despite the push for student-centred practices in the SHS Economics syllabus, their usage remains lower than ideal. Teachers' reliance on a mix of practices suggests a need for flexible instructional strategies tailored to specific teaching contexts. The study highlights the complexity of instructional practice and the necessity of adapting to both content and contextual factors for effective teaching.

The research aimed to understand how Senior High School Economics students approach their studies using a Likert-type scale and the ASSIST instrument. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) identified two main components: Strategic-Deep and Surface approaches to learning. The Strategic-Deep approach includes organized studying, monitoring effectiveness, achievement motivation, and a deep interest in ideas and evidence. The Surface approach, which explained less variance, involves lack of purpose, fear of failure, unrelated memorizing, and syllabus-boundness. The Strategic-Deep approach was preferred by students,

indicating a strong use of strategic and deep learning strategies. Teachers' feedback and guidance were noted as important in helping students organize and monitor their learning effectively.

The study investigated the prevalence and nature of instructional practice supervision among Economics teachers. The data showed that Economics teachers "rarely" receive instructional supervision, with a notable percentage of supervisors performing their roles infrequently. Specifically, 100% of teachers reported rare instructional supervision, indicating a significant gap in this area. Supervisors' feedback and remediation opportunities were also infrequent, with 60% of teachers rarely receiving such feedback. Professional development opportunities linked to supervision were similarly scarce, with 86% of teachers reporting rare professional support. The findings highlight a critical need for more consistent and effective instructional supervision to enhance teacher performance and student outcomes.

Research Question Four explored the problems associated with supervising Economics teacher instructional practices in Senior High Schools (SHS). The study identified three main problem areas: supervisor-related issues, the nature of supervision, and student-related problems. Supervisor-related problems include the non-availability of supervisors due to their heavy administrative workload and a lack of subject-specific content knowledge, which impairs effective supervision. Issues with the nature of supervision involve the focus on monitoring rather than clinical supervision, leading to inadequate feedback and support for teachers. Additionally, student-related problems arise as students may feel

intimidated or reluctant to participate when supervisors are present. Overall, these issues suggest that instructional supervision is hindered by administrative constraints, ineffective practices, and student discomfort, impacting the quality of teaching and learning.

To improve instructional supervision of Economics teachers, several strategies can be implemented. Digitalization, such as using CCTV cameras, allows supervisors to observe lessons remotely, though it should be supplemented with in-person observation to address privacy and emotional data concerns. Enhancing the motivation of Heads of Departments (HoDs) through financial incentives and reduced teaching loads is crucial, as current low motivation negatively impacts supervision quality. Incorporating external supervisors can provide an objective perspective and mitigate issues of familiarity and motivation among internal supervisors. Finally, fostering professional dialogue among teachers and providing regular in-service training and workshops will support instructional improvements and enhance the effectiveness of supervision practices.

Hypothesis One sought to examine if teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices significantly influence students' learning approaches. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis showed that both instructional practices did significantly impact students' Strategic-Deep and Surface learning approaches. Specifically, teacher-centred practices were found to have a stronger influence on the Surface approach, while student-centred practices more significantly affected the Strategic-Deep approach, although not more than teacher-centred practices. Contrary

to some previous studies, student-centred practices did not influence the Surface approach, aligning with the notion that such practices are more effective in promoting deep learning. Overall, the findings suggest that while teacher-centred practices can influence both learning approaches, student-centred practices primarily support strategic and deep learning.

Hypothesis Two investigated whether student-centred instructional practices significantly dominate the use of the Strategic-Deep approach to learning. The dominance analysis revealed that student-centred practices are indeed more dominant than teacher-centred practices in influencing students' Strategic-Deep learning approaches. This result supports previous studies indicating that student-centred practices promote deeper learning more effectively. Although student-centred practices are dominant, a blend of both instructional types is considered beneficial, as teacher-centred practices still play a crucial role in creating an engaging learning environment. Effective learning often involves integrating various instructional practices to maximize student engagement and development.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to investigate the instructional practice employed by Economics teachers, its supervision and its influence on students' approaches to learning. The convergent parallel mixed method, specifically the concurrent triangulation design was used. The study was guided by the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is an instructional practice employed by Economics teachers?
2. What approaches do students employ in learning Economics?
3. What is the prevalence of instructional practice supervision among Economics teachers?
4. What problems are faced in supervising Economics teacher instructional practice?
5. What can be done to improve how instructional practice of Economics teachers is supervised?

Hypotheses

- 1 H_1 : Teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices do significantly influence student learning approaches.

H_0 : Teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices do not significantly influence student learning approaches.

2. H_1 : Student-centred instructional practice significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.

H_0 : Student-centred instructional practice does not significantly dominate the use of strategic-deep approach learning.

The main data for the study was collected from 346 final-year Economics students in 10 Senior High Schools who were sampled through proportionate random sampling technique. Criterion sampling was used to collect data from 30 Economics teachers who have directly been teaching the selected students since their first year. Qualitative data was collected from three (3) teachers and three (3) Heads/assistants/HoDs through lesson observation and interviews. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (principal component analysis, multiple regression, and dominance analysis) were used in analysing the quantitative data. Thematic narration was also used in analysing the qualitative data.

Summary of the Study

Key Findings

The results of the study have been summarised as follows:

1. Both teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices are rarely used in isolation by Economics teachers. Other integrated instructional practices such as Content-induced and Context-induced instructional practices are used by Economics teachers.
2. Two approaches to learning namely, the Strategic-Deep approach and Surface approach to learning are used by Economics students.
3. Instructional supervision was rarely done for Economics teachers.
4. The problems faced in instructional supervision are supervisor-related (non-availability of supervisors, supervisors not in subject area, intimidating attitude) nature of supervision (mere monitoring for attendance), student-related (shyness and tension in class),

teacher-related (familiarity with supervisors) and school-related (low staff motivation).

5. Instructional supervision can be improved through the digitalization of instructional supervision, motivation of supervisors (especially HoDs), the institutionalization of external supervisors, teacher-professional dialogue and in-service training for supervisors.

The following are the key results that emerged from the hypotheses:

1. There was a statistically significant difference in students' approaches to learning Economics based on the instructional practices of their teachers (i.e. instructional practice of teachers influence students' approaches to learning).
2. It was only teacher-centred instructional practice that influenced students' use of the Surface approach to learning, but not student-centred instructional practice.
3. Generally, the use of both teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices influenced students' use Strategic-Deep approach to learning.
4. Student-centred instructional practice is the dominant instructional practice that influences students' use of the Strategic-Deep approach to learning.

Conclusions

Economics teachers' instructional practice is induced by content knowledge and context of teaching, thus making room for an integrated use of teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practice.

The finding suggests that teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices have different effects on students' approaches to learning implying that one of them is more effective than the other in enhancing strategic-deep learning among Economics students.

This finding implies that instructional practice of teachers play a crucial role in shaping students learning approaches, and that the use of integrated instructional practice can foster the use of Strategic-deep approach to learning by Economics students.

This finding indicates that teacher-centred instructional practice is associated with a lower level of learning approach, which is surface approach, and that student-centred instructional practice does not have a significant impact on students' use of surface approach.

This finding shows that an integrated use of teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices can promote a higher level of learning approach, which is strategic-deep approach, and that both of them have a positive influence on students' use of strategic-deep approach.

This finding reveals that student-centred instructional practice is more effective than teacher-centred instructional practice in enhancing students use of strategic-deep approach, and that student-centred instructional practice is the main factor that contributes to students' use of strategic-deep approach.

The findings suggests that instructional supervision of Economics teachers is not regular and not done according to standard practice, implying that there are no regular formal visits, constructive feedback and professional development to elevate the quality of teaching.

The finding underscores the problems of instructional supervision and suggests the importance of collaborative efforts among teachers, students and supervisors to address interconnected issues in instructional supervision and improve its overall effectiveness.

The study advocates for a shift from rarely conducted instructional supervision to making it a consistent practice, suggesting digitalization, motivation, external supervision, professional dialogue and in-service training as key strategies to ensure regular and enhanced instructional supervision, ultimately leading to improvements in the teaching and learning process.

Recommendations

The findings of this study make some important suggestions that educational stakeholders such as students, teachers, instructional supervisors, Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Education must take into consideration to improve teacher instructional practices, instructional supervision and students' approaches to learning Economics. More importantly, it is to ensure that teacher instructional practice is positively influencing how students learn. The following suggestions are based on the findings of the study.

Organization of CPD Workshops:

- a. Head teachers/assistants/Heads of Department should be given training on standard practice of instructional supervision.
- b. For teachers, workshops on the use of integrated instructional practice such as content-induced and context-induced instructional practices should be organised for them.

- c. Students should be equipped with the skills needed in using strategic deep approach to learning Economics.

Support/initiatives:

- a. The Ghana Education Service (GES) should consider digitalizing supervision using CCTV cameras.
- b. The Ghana Education Service should help institute monetary allowance for Head of Department for the extra task of instructional supervision.
- c. National Council of Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA) should reconsider replacing the isolated use of student-centred instructional practice prescribed in the Economics syllabus with an integrated instructional practice.

Teacher Professional activities:

- a. Teachers are encouraged to continue the use of content-induced and context-induced instructional practices and not the isolated use of teacher-centred or student-centred instructional practices.
- b. Head teachers/assistants/Heads of Department should be regular with supervision and ensure it is done according to standard practice of supervision.
- c. GES through head teachers should ensure teachers collaborate by sharing best teaching practices, fostering mutual professional dialogue, and improving instructional practice collectively.

Contributions of the Study

This research work has made the following contributions to policy formulation, practice, knowledge and methods. The details of these contributions have been summarized in the ensuing sections.

Contribution made to policy

The following are some contribution to policy.

1. The study identified that teachers use integrated instructional practices such as content-induced and context-induced because they are more productive and effective in teaching. For that matter, a call has been made for a review of the syllabus to reconsider the suggested teaching and learning activities to reflect what works in the field.
2. The study has exposed the flaw in the policy of an exclusive use of student-centred instructional practice at the Senior High School level. Teachers do not find it pragmatic leading to its rare usage by them.
3. The study raised another concern about the use of Head teachers/assistants and Heads of Department as the sole instructional supervisors and called for external supervisors to be engaged to complement their efforts.
4. The study revealed that students who do Surface learning were influenced by the use of teacher-centred instructional practice. Thereby sounding an alarm for instructional supervisors, the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service to discourage the isolated use of teacher-centred instructional practice in SHS classrooms.

Contribution made to Practice

The following are how teacher-centred and student-centred instructional can be put into practice.

1. Both teacher-centred and student-centred instructional practices are rarely used by Economics teachers and the need for instructional supervisors to ensure that this is improved. In the use of integrated instructional practice, student-centred practice must be dominant.
2. Strategic-Deep approach to learning is the most effective student approach to learning and therefore teachers must identify students who use the Surface approach to switch to the use of the Strategic-Deep approach.
3. Digitalization of instructional supervision was noted as an effective emerging medium for instructional supervision and the need for the supervisors to embrace it.
4. Intermedial/integrated instructional practice enhances a strategic-deep approach to learning rather than using a single instructional practice.

Contribution made to Knowledge

The following are some contribution to knowledge

1. The study has provided empirical evidence on the relationship between instructional practices and learning approaches in the context of Economics education in Ghana, which is a relatively under-researched area.

2. The study has also offered practical implications and recommendations for teachers, the GES, and the Ministry of Education of Ghana to improve their teaching and learning practices, which can benefit the educational system and the society at large.
3. Context-induced and Context-induced instructional practices are intermedial or integrated instructional practices which were found pragmatic to the teaching and learning of Economics.
4. The study revealed the tripartite nature of the problems associated with instructional supervision and how this knowledge defines the scope of the solution needed to address those problems.
5. In-service training, workshops and seminars are productive avenues of professional development and this study provides enough evidence to justify why it must be explored for professional development in instructional supervision.

Contribution to methods

The following are contributions to methods.

1. This study used rigorous methods to address the weakness of existing methods used in the literature.
2. The study uses multiple statistical methods to investigate the relationship between teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning.

No single research work can provide the answers needed to address a particular research problem. There is a need for further work to be conducted to provide ongoing discussion on teacher instructional practice, its supervision and its influence on students' approaches to learning.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study focused on teacher instructional practice, its supervision and influence on students' approaches to learning. Less focus was placed on the effectiveness of the instructional practice identified. The focus was rather on identifying the instructional practice Senior High School Economics teachers' use. Instructional supervision did not focus on the effectiveness of supervision but rather focused on its prevalence. For students' approaches to learning, the focus was to identify the approaches used by students and how instructional practice influences these approaches. Therefore, future research efforts can focus on the following:

1. Examining the effectiveness of teacher instructional practice identified in this study: teacher-centred, student-centred, content-induced and context-induced.
2. Examining quantitatively the influence of content-induced and context-induced instructional practices on students' approaches to learning.
3. Assessing the effectiveness of instructional supervision done in Senior High Schools.
4. Investigating the moderating effect of instructional supervision between teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning.
5. Formulating a model in examining the effect of instructional practice on students' approaches to learning.

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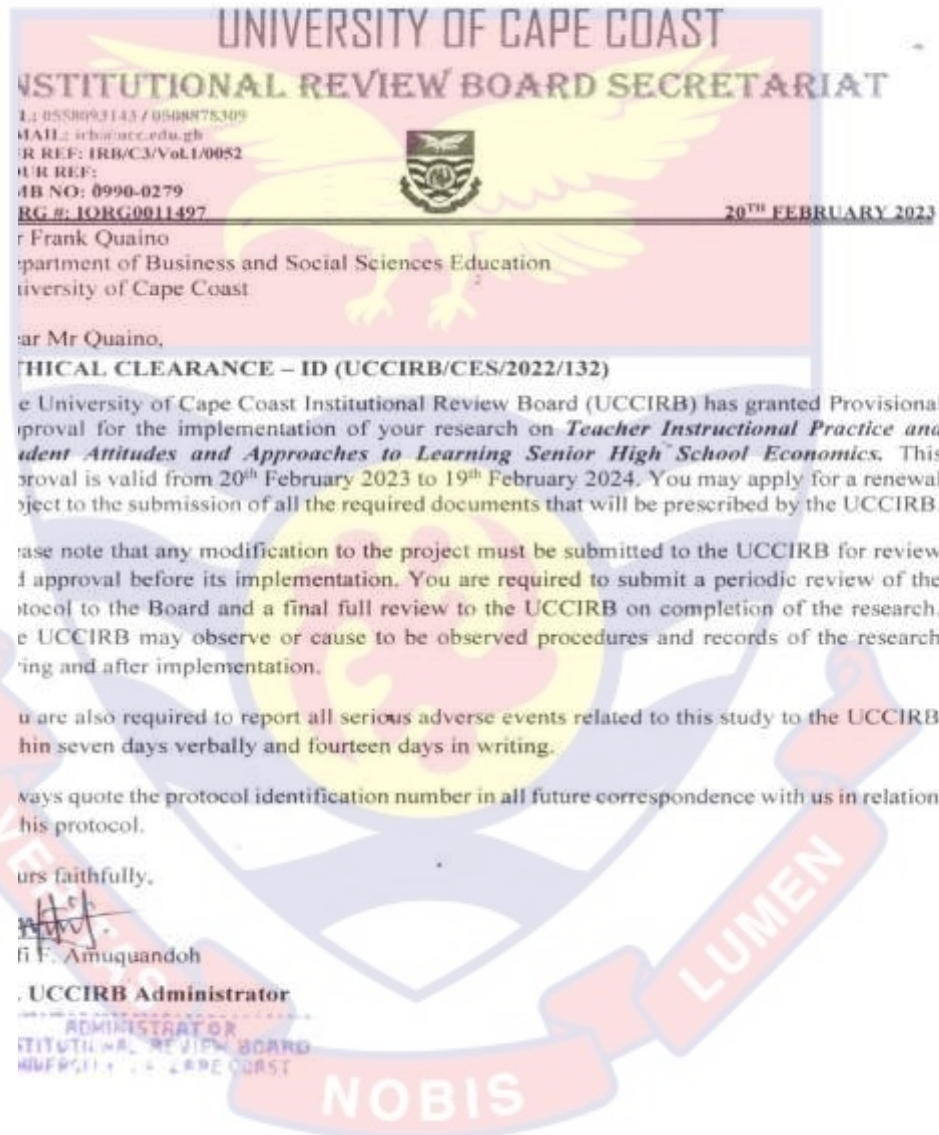
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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Ethical Clearance from IRB, UCC



Appendix B

Initial Report on Application of Ethical Clearance

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309

E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/R/1/1823

12TH JANUARY,

2023

Mr Frank Quainoo

Department of Business and Social Sciences Education

University of Cape Coast

Dear Mr Quainoo,

COMMENTS ON YOUR RESEARCH PROTOCOL

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has given conditional approval to your request for ethical clearance to conduct research titled *Teacher Instructional Practice and Student Attitudes and Approaches to Learning Senior High School Economics*. The approval is subject to you considering the comments below and making the necessary revision to your current protocol:

1. The executive summary should be one block paragraph and include information on data management and ethical considerations in this section.

2. State the research questions and hypothesis to test the main objective under data analysis on page 6.
3. Please provide details on how research instruments will be administered and provide procedures for ensuring data quality.
4. You mentioned, "...data collected will be coded and analyzed both descriptively and inferentially based on the research questions and hypothesis". Justify why the data will be coded and analyzed based on the research questions and hypothesis.
5. Concerning the section for the data management plan, indicate how long the data would be kept.
6. Under ethical considerations, you mentioned that **"The researcher will adhere to...consent, confidentiality, anonymity, autonomy and avoiding plagiarism."** Please state systematically how you will seek consent, and ensure confidentiality, anonymity and autonomy.
7. Please revise your work plan
8. Regarding the section for budget, the sub-total for data collection needs a correction.
9. Justify why there will be no compensation packages either in cash or in kind
10. Kindly provide details on the section for the data collection. Provide a step-by-step description of how the fieldwork will be implemented. Indicate the date and time for data collection.
11. Inappropriate comments and responses to the questions need to be handled well not to cause discomfort and stress to some teachers.

You are to revise your protocol by incorporating the above comments, highlight all corrections effected in the revised work and send a soft copy of the revised protocol to the UCCIRB Administrator for the Board's consideration. Please provide us with a write-up on the changes made. Kindly noted that your failure to respond to these comments within a month after the issue of this letter results in the cancellation of your ethical clearance application.

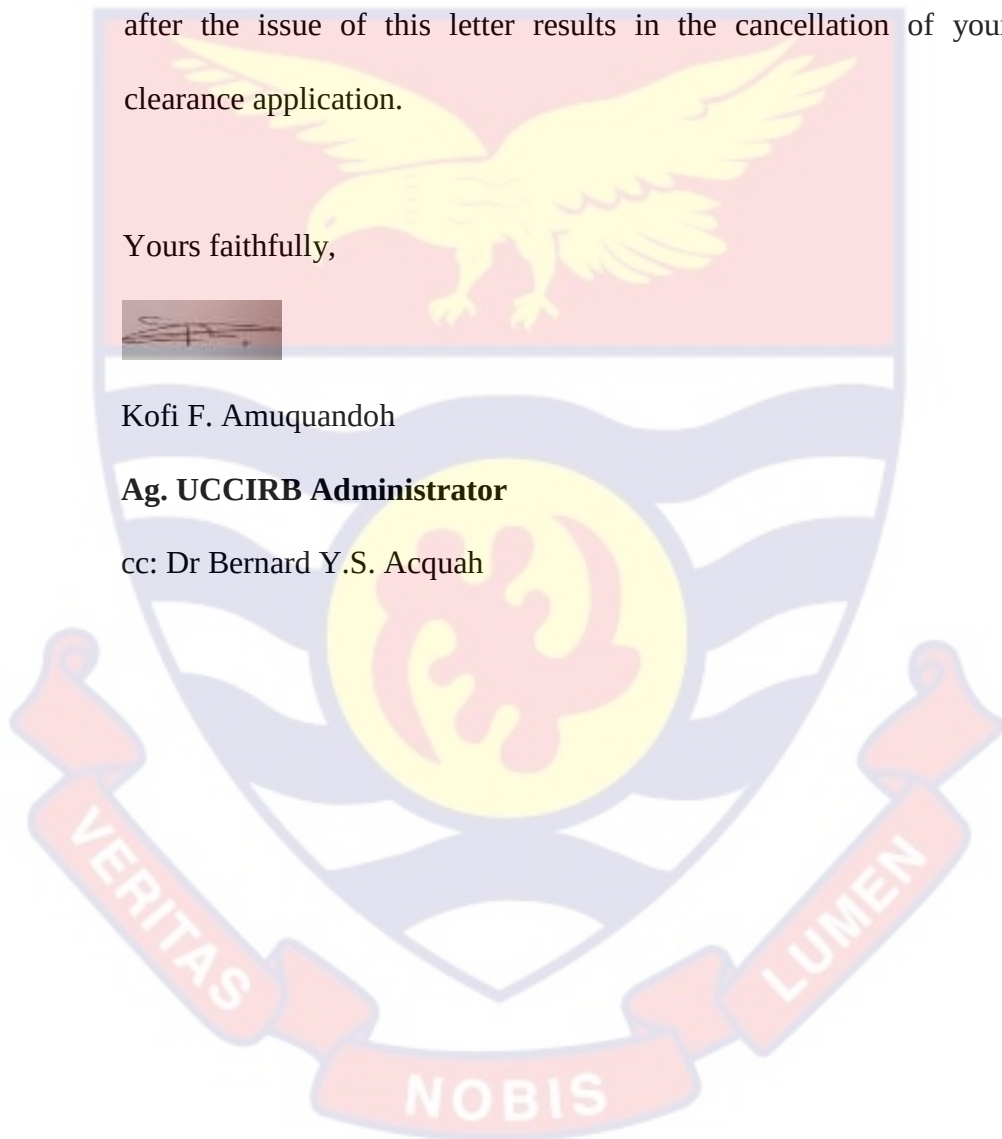
Yours faithfully,



Kofi F. Amuquandoh

Ag. UCCIRB Administrator

cc: Dr Bernard Y.S. Acquah



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

MEMORANDUM

FROM: FRANK QUAINOO (EH/ECD/20/0001)
TO: THE CHAIRPERSON, IRB, UCC
SUBJECT: REVISED PROPOSAL FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE
REF. NO: (UCC/IRB/R/1/1823)

DATE: 17TH JANUARY, 2023.

Your letter with Reference Number UCC/IRB/R/1/1823 dated 12th January, 2023 refers.

In response, I wish to re-submit my application for ethical clearance. This memo seeks to provide explanations to the comments and provide details on how the specific issues raised in respect of the earlier application have been addressed. Find the comments and how they have been explained/addressed in the table below.

Comments	How it has been explained/addressed (page number where it can be seen)
<i>The executive summary should be one block paragraph and include information on data management and ethical considerations in this section.</i>	All paragraphs have been joined together as one block paragraph. Information on data management and ethical considerations has also been added to the executive summary.

<i>State the research questions and hypothesis to test the main objective under data analysis on page 6.</i>	The research questions and hypothesis to test the main objective under data analysis have been stated (see page 8)
<i>Please provide details on how research instruments will be administered and provide procedures for ensuring data quality.</i>	The details of how research instruments will be administered has been provided as suggested. This included the procedures for ensuring data quality (see paragraphs 2 to 4 under Data Collection Procedure on pages 7)
<i>You mentioned, "...data collected will be coded and analyzed both descriptively and inferentially based on the research questions and hypothesis". Justify why the data will be coded and analyzed based on the research questions and hypothesis.</i>	Each research question and hypothesis will warrant some for descriptive tools of analysis and/or some inferential analysis. The analysis will be done separately for each research question and hypothesis. This will help ensure that each research question and hypothesis is given the much needed attention. This will also give clarity in the presentation of how each research question and hypothesis was analysed (see first paragraph under Data Analysis on page 7)
<i>Concerning the section for the data management plan, indicate how long the data would be kept.</i>	This has been indicated as suggested (see page 8)

<i>Under ethical considerations, you mentioned that “The researcher will adhere to...consent, confidentiality, anonymity, autonomy and avoiding plagiarism.” Please state systematically how you will seek consent, and ensure confidentiality, anonymity and autonomy.</i>	The systematic procedure for seeking consent, confidentiality, anonymity and autonomy has been stated as suggested (see from 3rd sentence under ethical considerations on page 8) More details of consent, confidentiality, anonymity and autonomy have be provided in details under procedures for informed consent (see page 1 C: INFORMED CONSENT) The schedule for administration has been included in the timelines for the study (see page 10). The budget for the administration of the consent form has also be captured (see page 11).
<i>Please revise your work plan</i>	This has been revised as suggested (see page 10)

<i>Regarding the section for budget, the sub-total for data collection needs a correction.</i>	The correction has been effected (see page 11)
<i>Justify why there will be no compensation packages either in cash or in kind</i>	Respondents will be verbal appreciated. Financial constraints is the main reason the researcher will not be able to compensate in cash or kind respondents for the study.

Kindly provide details on the section for the data collection. Provide a step by step description of how the fieldwork will be implemented.	The details on the step by step description of the fieldwork has been provided (see the last paragraph of page)
Indicate the date and time for data collection.	The date and time for data collection has been indicated as suggested (see paragraph 3 under Data Collection Procedure on page 7)
Inappropriate comments and responses to the questions need to be handled well not to cause discomfort and stress to some teachers.	This suggestion has been duly noted and be the study will be guided by it.
Explain how you will seek informed consent	Under data collection, it has been as suggested (see page 8).

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,



Frank Quainoo (EH/ECD/20/0001)

cc: Dr Bernard Y.S. Acquah

Appendix C

Consent Form

Dear Respondent,

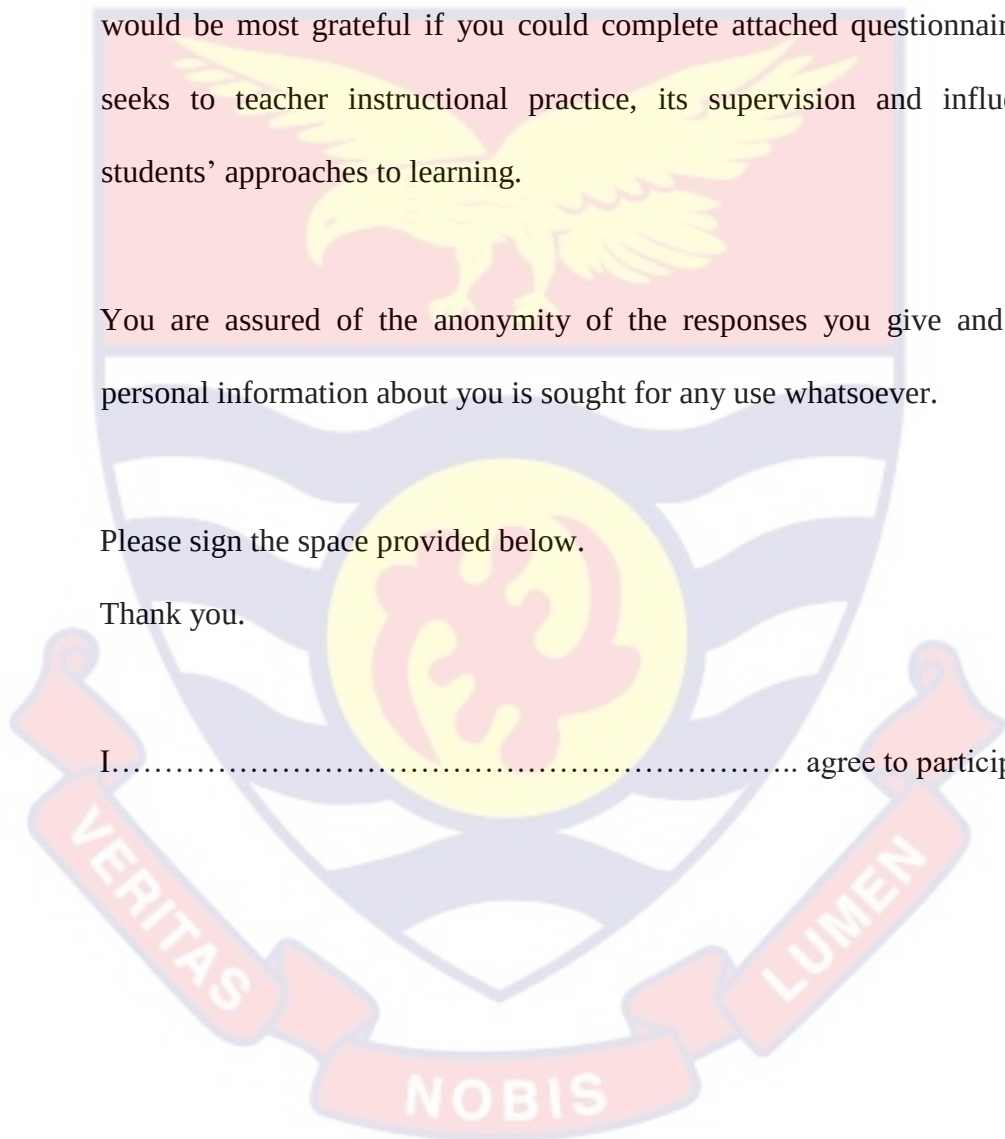
I am conducting a research study and would like to ask for your help. If you are willing to participate, it should take about 10-15 minutes of your time. I would be most grateful if you could complete attached questionnaire which seeks to teacher instructional practice, its supervision and influence on students' approaches to learning.

You are assured of the anonymity of the responses you give and that no personal information about you is sought for any use whatsoever.

Please sign the space provided below.

Thank you.

I..... agree to participate.



Appendix D

Questionnaire for teachers

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ECONOMICS TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is to help the researcher to collect data on supervision of instruction of Economics. The study is solely for academic purposes. Please, kindly provide sincere and objective responses to the questions. I assure you that any information provided will be treated as **strictly confidential**.

SECTION A: Demography of Respondents

Please put a check mark (✓) where appropriate in the box corresponding to your choice concerning each statement.

- A. Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female
- B. Age: ☐ Up to 29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59
60+
- C. Your highest qualification:
- D. Your professional status: ☐ Trained ☐ Untrained
- E. Years of teaching Economics:
- F. Who supervises your instruction: ☐ HoD. ☐ Headteacher/Assistant

G. SECTION B: SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE

Please put a check mark (✓) in the appropriate box to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement:

0 (*Never*); **1** (*Rarely*); **2** (*Sometimes*); and **3** (*Always*).

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Always
1	My supervisor has been suggesting to me how I should teach.				
2	My supervisor has been using control to affect my instructional practices.				
3	My supervisor has been inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors.				
4	My supervisor has been helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices.				
5	My supervisor has been readily availing himself/herself for advice and instructional support.				
6	My supervisor has been evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.				
7	My supervisor has been assessing teachers' content knowledge.				
8	My supervisor has been ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.				
9	My supervisor has been engaging teachers in mutual dialogue about ways to improve				

	teaching.				
10	My supervisor has been offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.				
11	My supervisor has been praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour.				
12	My supervisor has been ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach.				
13	My supervisor has been providing teachers with articles on research findings about instruction.				
14	My supervisor has been demonstrating teaching techniques.				
15	My supervisor has been making informal visits to classrooms.				
16	My supervisor has been formally observing teaching and learning.				
17	My supervisor has been conferencing with teacher to plan for lesson observation.				
18	My supervisor has been providing objective feedback about classroom observations.				

19	My supervisor has been encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes.				
20	My supervisor has been providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.				
21	My supervisor has been providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills.				
22	My supervisor has been establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.				
23	My supervisor has been treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect.				
24	My supervisor has been implementing the use of Action Research in the school.				

25. Briefly describe the problems you face in supervision.

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26. Suggest any GES support to improve supervision of instruction in your school.

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What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

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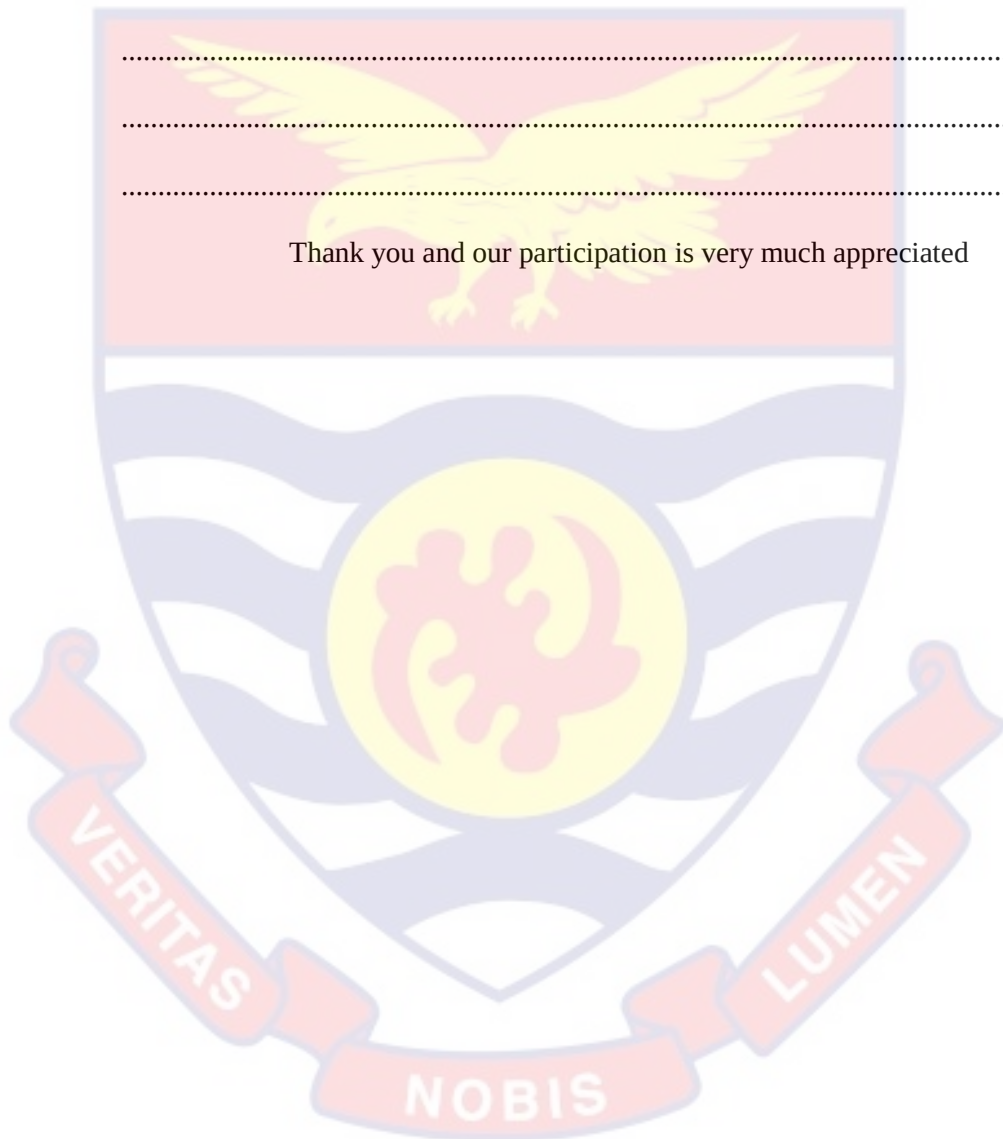
27. Any other comments

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Thank you and our participation is very much appreciated



Appendix E

Questionnaire for Students

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ECONOMICS STUDENTS

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is to help the researcher to collect data on the instructional practice and approaches to learning. The study is solely for academic purposes. Please, kindly provide sincere and objective responses to the questions. I assure you that any information provided will be treated as **strictly confidential**.

SECTION A: Demography of Respondents

Please put a check mark (✓) where appropriate in the box corresponding to your choice concerning each statement.

- A. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
- B. Programme: Business ☐ Arts ☐ Home Economics ☐
- C. Age:
- D. Gender of Economics teacher Male ☐ Female ☐

SECTION B: INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE OF ECONOMICS TEACHERS

Please put a check mark (✓) in the appropriate box to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement:

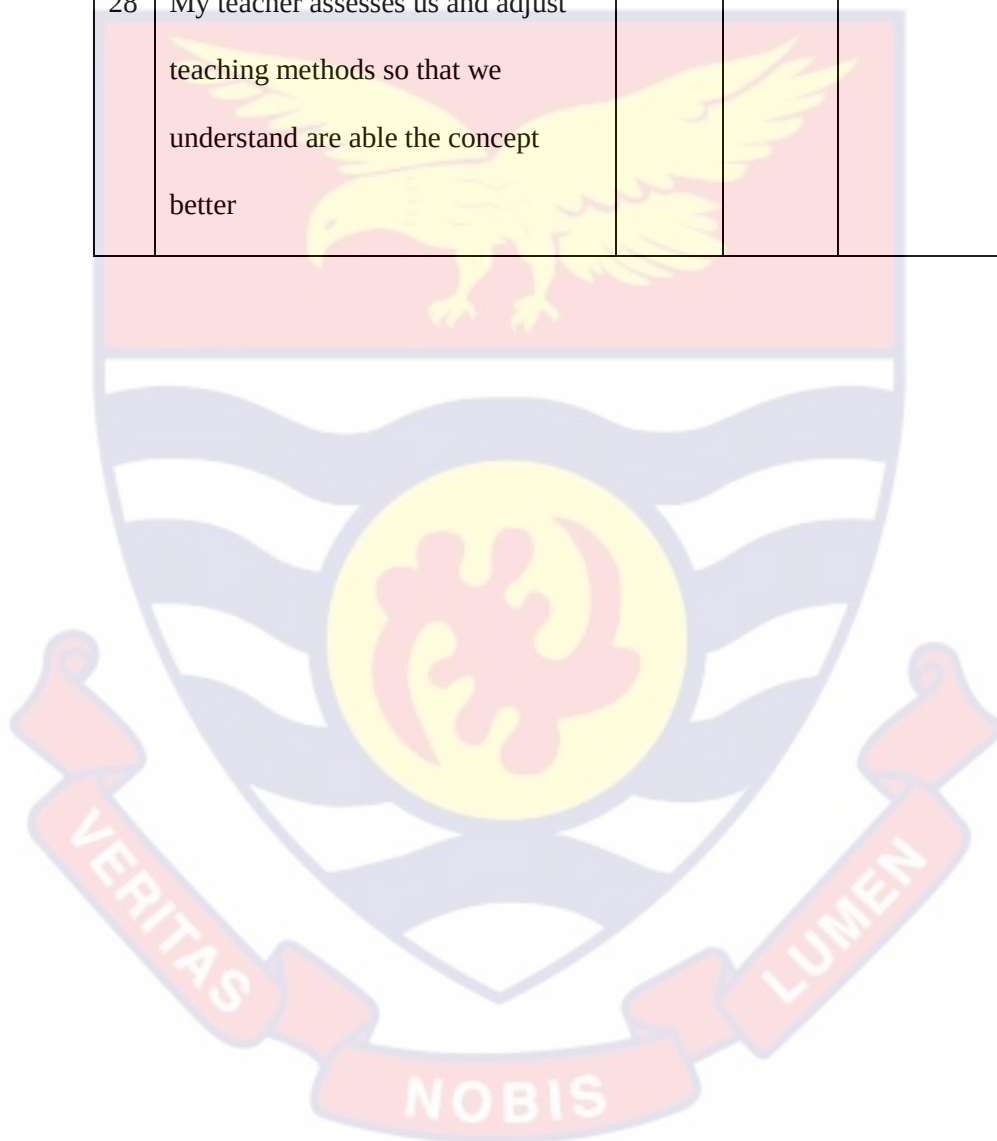
0 (Never); 1 (Rarely); 2 (Sometimes) and 3 (Always).

	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Always
1	My teacher asks about how we learn before, during and after teaching.				
2	My teacher changes his/her plans for the class to provide additional explanations, activities, and enrich our understanding.				
3	My teacher finds out our previous knowledge about the topic before teaching it.				
4	My teacher allows us to act, sing, or move around the classroom to learn concepts/skills				
5	My teacher allows us to reflect on or share our thoughts when solving a problem and applying a concept.				
6	My teacher breaks us into small groups to facilitate collaborative learning.				
7	My teacher uses methods that help students to make meaning and to share their understanding of what was taught.				
8	My teacher uses a variety of resources in the classroom (handouts, visual presentations, books, objects, cardboards, etc.) each week.				

9	My teacher uses more than one method to teach the same concept or skill to the same class.				
10	My teacher uses real world problem-solving scenarios in class that require course content and resources in their solution				
11	My teacher asks students to identify similarities and differences relating to the content that he/she is teaching or that has been recently taught.				
12	My teacher intentionally asks questions to test our knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, evaluation, synthesis of what he teaches				
13	My teacher meets with students individually to address their specific learning needs				
14	My teacher inquiries from students if they find some teaching activities and topics problematic.				
15	My teacher prevents any questions that can interrupt and slow down his/her teaching				

16	My teacher asks us to confirm topics that are yet to be not taught				
17	My teacher does not come to class with any resource that can help us understand what will be taught				
18	My teacher teaches one concept or skill and then move on without revisiting it				
19	My teacher uses note-taking alone when teaching				
20	My teacher wants to cover more topics when he/she comes to class				
21	My teacher exercises much authority as possible in the classroom				
22	My teacher does all the talking in class when teaching				
23	My teacher wants me to absorb as much information as possible from what was taught.				
24	My teacher provides students with accurate and complete knowledge rather than encouraging them to discover it themselves.				
25	My teacher corrects learning misconceptions of students right away instead of verifying them first				

26	My teacher gives other explanation for students in case the initial explanation is not understood.				
27	My teacher finds out from us if we understood what was taught				
28	My teacher assesses us and adjust teaching methods so that we understand are able the concept better				



SECTION C: APPROACHES TO STUDYING

Please put a check mark (✓) in the appropriate box: Try **not** to use **3** (unsure), unless you really have to.

1 (disagree) **2** (disagree somewhat) **4** (agree somewhat) **5** (means agree)

S/N	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
29	I manage to find conditions for studying which allow me to get on with my work easily.					
30	When working on an assignment, I'm keeping in mind how best to impress the marker.					
31	Often I find myself wondering whether learning Economics is really worthwhile.					
32	I usually set out to understand for myself the meaning of what we have to learn					
33	I organise my study time carefully to make the best use of it.					
34	I find I have to concentrate on just memorising a good deal of what I have to learn.					
35	I go over my assignment I've done carefully to check the reasoning if it makes sense.					
36	Often I feel I'm drowning in the amount of material I have to learn					

37	I look at the exams scores and class tests carefully and try to reach my own conclusion about what I'm studying.					
38	It's important for me to feel that I'm doing as well as I really can in Economics.					
39	I try to relate ideas I come across to those in other topics or other subjects whenever possible.					
40	I tend to read very little beyond what is actually required to pass.					
41	Regularly I find myself thinking about ideas from class when I'm doing other things.					
42	I think I'm quite systematic and organised when it comes to revising for exams.					
43	I look carefully at my teacher's comments in class test to see how to get higher marks next time.					
44	There's not much of to study in Economics that I find interesting or relevant.					
45	When I read an Economics book, I try to find out for myself exactly what the author means.					
46	I'm pretty good at getting down to learning whenever I need to.					

47	Much of what I'm studying makes little sense: it's like unrelated bits and pieces.					
48	I think about what I want to get out of this subject to keep my studying well focused.					
49	When I'm learning on a new topic, I try to see in my own mind how all the ideas fit together.					
50	I often worry about whether I'll ever be able to cope with the Economics properly.					
51	Often I find myself questioning things I hear in class or read in books.					
52	I feel that I'm getting on well, and this helps me put more effort into the work.					
53	I concentrate on learning just those bits of information I have to know to pass.					
54	I find that studying academic topics can be quite exciting at times.					
55	I'm good at following up some of the reading suggested by my teacher					
56	I keep in mind who is going to mark an assignment and what they're likely to be looking for.					
57	When I look back, I sometimes wonder why I ever decided to read Economics.					

58	When I am reading, I stop from time to time to reflect on what I am trying to learn from it.					
59	I work steadily through the term, rather than leave it all until the last minute.					
60	I'm not really sure what's important in my teacher teaches so I try to get down all I can.					
61	Ideas in Economics books often gets me thinking a lot on my own.					
62	Before starting work on an assignment or exam question, I think first how best to tackle it.					
63	I often seem to panic if I get behind with what my teacher has taught in class.					
64	When I read, I examine the details carefully to see how they fit in with what the teacher said in class.					
65	I put a lot of effort into studying because I'm determined to do well.					
66	I focus my studying closely to just what seems to be required for assignments and exams.					
67	Some of the ideas I come across in Economics I find really gripping.					
68	I usually plan out my week's work in advance, either on paper or in my head.					

69	In class, I only pay attention to what my teachers seem to think is important and concentrate on that.					
70	I'm not really interested in Economics, but					
	I have to take it for other reasons.					
71	Before tackling a class test or assignment, I first try to work out what lies behind it.					
72	I generally make good use of my time during the day.					
73	I often have trouble in making sense of the things I have to remember.					
74	I like to play around with Economics ideas of my own even if they don't get me very far.					
75	When I finish an Economics test, I check it through to see if it really correct.					
76	Often I lie awake worrying about not being able to an Economics test.					
77	It's important for me to be able to follow the argument, or to see the reason behind things.					
78	I don't find it at all difficult to motivate myself.					
79	I like to be told precisely what to do in exams or other assignments.					
80	I sometimes get 'hooked' on academic topics and feel I would like to keep on studying them.					

Thank you!!!

Appendix F

Observation Guide

Title of the Study	Teacher instructional practice and students' approaches to learning Economics
Date:	
Session number:	
School (A, B, C)	
Rater: (A/B)	

The researcher observed teachers by focusing on the following parameters:

Instructional Resources

	YES	NO
1 Prepared Lesson note	[]	[]
2 Students exercise books in usage	[]	[]
3 Teaching-learning resources used for the lesson	[]	[]
4 Economics textbooks being used	[]	[]
5 Teacher's personal copy of Economics syllabus	[]	[]
6 Teacher Appraisal Form (with HoD or Headteacher/assist)	[]	[]

Comments:.....

.....

.....

.....

Student-centred Instructional Practice		YES	NO
1	Teacher collect data on student learning before, during and after teaching.	[]	[]
2	Teacher changes lesson plan to provide additional explanations, activities, and enrich our understanding.	[]	[]
3	Teacher finds out students' previous knowledge about the topic	[]	[]
4	My teacher allows students to act, sing, or move around the classroom to learn concepts/skills	[]	[]
5	Teacher allows students to reflect on or share their thoughts when solving a problem and applying a concept.	[]	[]
6	Teacher facilitate collaborative learning among students.	[]	[]
7	Teacher varies teaching methods to help students make meaning and to share their understanding of what was taught.	[]	[]
8	Teacher uses a variety of teaching-learning resources in the classroom.	[]	[]
9	Teacher uses more than one method to teach the same concept or skill to the same class.	[]	[]
10	Teacher uses real world problem-solving scenarios in class that require course content and resources in their solution	[]	[]
11	Teacher helps students to connect content with previous knowledge.	[]	[]
12	Teacher engages in formative assessment of teaching and learning.	[]	[]

13 Teacher engages students individually to address their [] []
specific learning needs

14 Teacher inquiries from students if they find some teaching [] []
activities and topics problematic.

Comments:.....

.....
.....

Teacher centred Instructional Practice YES NO

1 Teacher prevents any questions that can interrupt and slow [] []
down his/her teaching

2 Teacher confirms topics that are not taught from students. [] []

3 Teacher does not come to class with any resource that can [] []
help students understand what will be taught

4 Teacher teaches one concept and then moves on without [] []
revisiting/linking it other concepts.

5 Teacher uses note-taking alone when teaching [] []

6 Teacher covers more topics in the lessons [] []

7 My teacher exercises much authority as possible in the [] []
classroom

8 My teacher does all the talking in class when teaching [] []

9 Teacher wants students to absorb as much information as [] []
possible from what was taught.

Teacher provides students with accurate and complete
knowledge rather than encouraging them to discover it
10 themselves. [] []

12 Teacher corrects learning misconceptions of students [] []

13 Right away instead of verifying them first

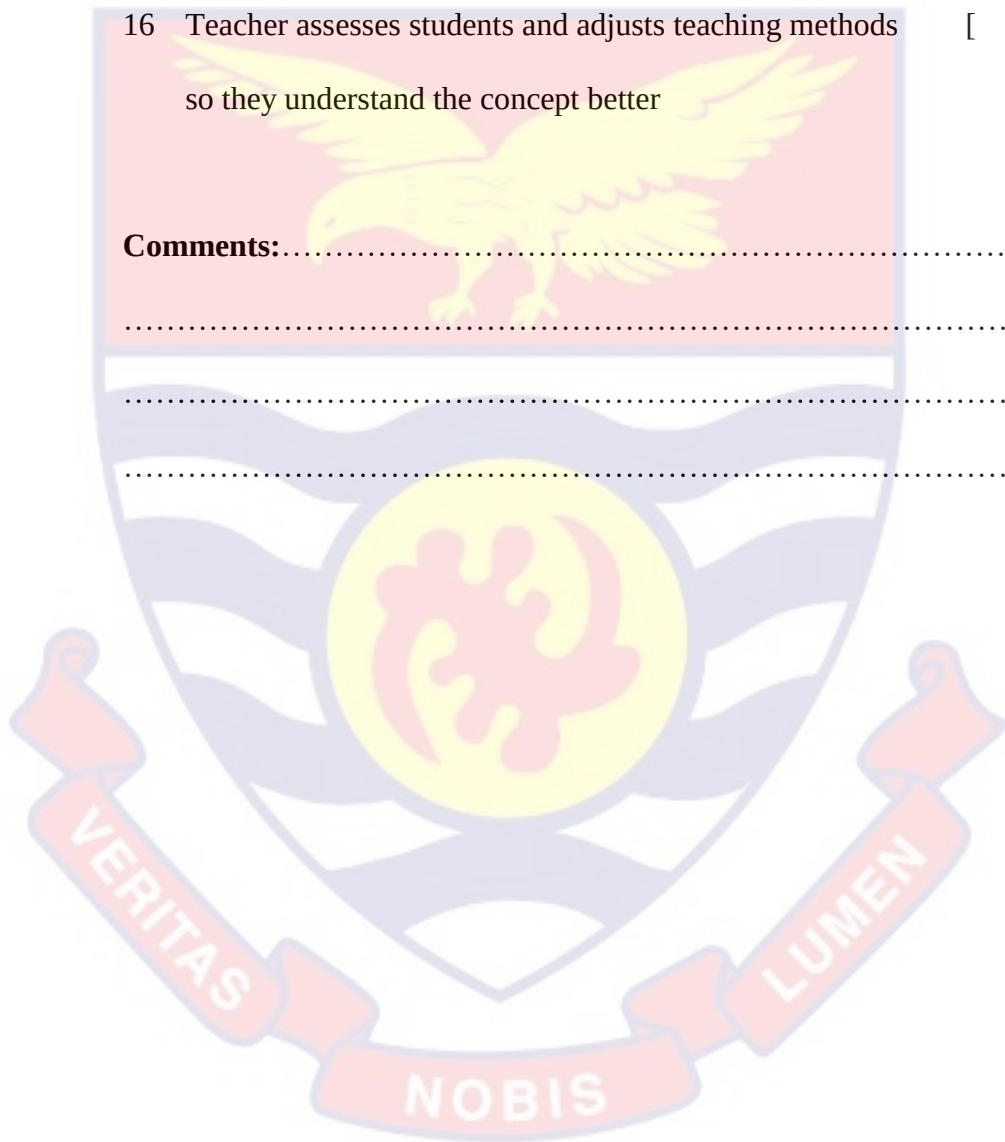
14 Teacher gives other explanation for students in case the [] []
initial explanation is not understood.

15 teacher finds out from students if they understood what [] []
was taught

16 Teacher assesses students and adjusts teaching methods [] []
so they understand the concept better

Comments:.....

.....
.....
.....



Appendix G

Interview Guide for Teachers

Introduction

1. Could you please identify yourself?
2. Who supervises your instruction?
3. How many years have you been teaching Economics?
4. What is your highest educational qualification?

Part 1: Instructional practice

1. What sort of instructional activities do you often engage in when teaching your students?
2. a. Do you find your instructional practice student-centred or teacher-centred?
b. What reasons, explain your answer?

Part 2: Instructional Supervision

1. What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done?
 - a. Just mention them (as many they can be)
 - b. Briefly describe problems you face in supervision (those you mentioned)?
2. How do these problems affect your instructional practice/student learning?
 - a. Your teaching (instructional practice)
 - b. Your student (students' learning)
 - c. Your school

3. What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

Closure

1. What support/services can be put in place for instructional supervision in your school?
2. Which other information would you like to share with me on this subject?



Appendix H

Interview Transcripts

Profile of Interview Participants

Three male teachers were interviewed from three participating schools selected from the three categories of schools. One participant from each of the schools. The average years of teaching Economics for the participating teachers was 9 years and the average educational qualification is Bachelor of Education. For the confidentiality reasons, DET, OET and YET were used to designate the identity of the participants.

INTERVIEWEE 1 (DET)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: Who supervises your instruction?

RESP: My head of department does it but sometimes both the headmaster and the assistant headmaster comes around too.

INTERVIEWER: What is your highest educational qualification?

RESP: I am doing an M.Ed. now, hoping to complete next year. But I did my B.Ed. at UCC.

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you being teaching Economics?

RESP: I have being teaching for ten years now, this year is my 11th year in teaching.

Part 1: Instructional practice

INTERVIEWER: What instructional activities do you often use in when teaching your students?

RESP: Ermmm...my teaching activities in class is delivering lessons and giving notes to students. I try to involve them through discussion and questioning. When it's possible, I give them some exercises to do.

INTERVIEWER: Why did you say if it is possible?

RESP: Sometimes there are a lot to cover for a particular topic and the class can delay because of some school programmes and holidays. I have to make sure the class catches up with the periods lost. I really want to always give my students class exercises but they are too many. It will be too much work on me when marking those exercises. But I engage them while teaching to make sure they understand what I teach.

INTERVIEWER: Do you find your instructional practice student-centred or teacher-centred?

RESP: My instructional practice is both because there are times I use teachercentred and there are days I use student-centred. So I can't categorically say my instructional practice is any of the two.

Part 2: Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done?

RESP: Oh they don't even come around for the supervision at all. The day you will see them around is to only check attendance or exchange pleasantries and walk away. The HoD only inquires how things are going but do not come to sit in my lessons”.

INTERVIEWER: Are there any other you would want to talk about?

RESP: Supervision is more like monitoring whether we come to class or not.

The problems are a lot but they don't come for the supervision so it's even difficult pointing all of them out. But there are problems.

INTERVIEWER: How does these problems affect your instructional practice/student learning?

RESP: Hmmn. It affects the way I teach because if I'm doing something that is not helping the students, supervision will make me aware so that I can cease it. Supervision ensures standard practice in teaching.

INTERVIEWER: What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

RESP: Instructional supervision must be well coordinated so that both teachers and the supervisors are engaged to ensure it is done. Head teachers appear too busy to combine the supervision to their administrative duties. Something should be done about it.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: What support/services can be put in place for instructional supervision in your school?

RESP: GES needs to ensure that supervisors appointed in the schools for the job are up and doing. I'm not sure if GES finds out if the head teacher/assistants are really performing their duties as instructional supervisors. Some workshops can be organised for them GES to equip them and encourage them to take supervision more serious.

INTERVIEWEE 2 (OET)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: Who supervises your instruction?

RESP: Headmaster or HoD... I think he is the one responsible for that...

INTERVIEWER: You sound as though you are not sure of who supervises your lesson, why?

RESP: oh... it is the HoD who comes around once in a while to check on us. Is that part of the supervision? The HoD only inquires how things are going

but do not come to sit in my lessons”.

INTERVIEWER: So what is your highest educational qualification?

RESP: I have Bachelor of Education...

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you being teaching Economics?

RESP: I have being teaching for 9 years in this school

Part 1: Instructional practice

INTERVIEWER: What instructional activities do you often use in when teaching your students?

RESP: In class, it's all about how to get my students to understand the content I'm teaching. So you will only find me doing what will help them get the content. I use discussion, note taking, lecturing, as long as it helps in teaching the topic.

INTERVIEWER: Do you find your instructional practice student-centred or teacher-centred?

RESP: I know the importance of using student-centred practice but I can't always use that. When I have to use it, I do but there are times I cannot use it. Generally, I use both teacher-centred and student-centred practices in almost every lesson.

INTERVIEWER: Do you mean you employ both in your teaching?

RESP: For me I don't think that's what matters. What really matters is teaching the topic and making sure my students understand what I taught. So if it is teacher-centred practice that will get my student to understand what I'm teaching, why not! If it is student-centered that will help them understand that topic I go with it. I just use what works for me and my students.

INTERVIEWER: So how do you tell when to use any of them?

RESP: I have been teaching for some time now. I know what works for me and my students and that's what I use in my teaching. In my previous school, the class size was small so I could have more interactive time with students.

But here, I can't do that because it will delay my class. So I have to curtail some of their comments so I can meet the scheme of work for the term.

Part 2: Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done?

RESP: Intimidation by some supervisors... I have observed that when they have an issue with you, then they will be hard on you with supervision just to victimize you. In the process, my students feel intimidated. For me, I don't have an issue if you try to victimize me but the impact is on the students

INTERVIEWER: Are you saying there is victimisation sometimes of teachers?

RESP: oh... you don't know about that! There is victimization paaa...

INTERVIEWER: How does these problems affect your instructional practice/student learning?

RESP: Sometimes the students feel intimidated by the presence of the headmaster in the class. For us, the headmaster is a bit strict so the students feel uncomfortable when he passes by the class. Students most at times are reluctant to contribute in class when a supervisor is around.

INTERVIEWER: What do you mean by students feeling intimidated?

RESP: It makes the class a bit non-interactive when the students feel intimidated by the presence of the headmaster. Especially for the students who are not very good, they will not talk in the class at all.

INTERVIEWER: What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

RESP: I think that the HOD needs to be motivated. He can do it but I think because the motivation is not there, he just comes without doing the supervision.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: What support/services can be put in place for instructional supervision in your school?

RESP: I have raised this issue before that the personality of the teacher and how it goes a long way in affecting student learning. It all comes back to inservice training workshops for supervisors to address intimidation and issues of victimization.

INTERVIEWEE 3 (YET)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: Who supervises your instruction?

RESP: The headmaster and the assistant headmaster academic are responsible...I guess

INTERVIEWER: What is your highest educational qualification?

RESP: I have Bachelor of Education...

INTERVIEWER: how many years have you being teaching Economics?

RESP: I have being teaching for 9 years in this school

Part 1: Instructional practice

INTERVIEWER: What instructional activities do you often use in when teaching your students?

RESP: I use the lecture method and note-taking most of the time especially when I'm not introducing a topic or assessing students. When I use the lecture method, my student seem to follow the lesson easily then when I use the student-centred method.

INTERVIEWER: Do you find your instructional practice student-centred or teacher-centred?

RESP: I prefer teacher-centred to student-centred because the student-centred appears to be a distraction and drags the class. When I'm not accessing them and I'm teaching, I prefer using the lecture method with note-taking. I do this because it works for my students and the entire class.

INTERVIEWER: How do confirm if it works for your students and the entire class?

RESP: I know it does. You were in the class when I was teaching, find out from them if they understood what I taught. When I evaluate my lessons during and after the lesson, it's always positive.

Part 2: Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done for you?

RESP: It is a problem when the assistant headmaster supervising me is not an economics teacher. Because he wanted me to use a particular method I feel it won't help my students. He teaches history but I think if he was an Economics teacher he would have appreciated what I was saying.

INTERVIEWER: How do these problems affect your instructional practice/student learning?

RESP: So I think when the supervisor is also not in the subject area it makes things a bit difficult. As a result, he doesn't come to my class again, maybe he felt I was also opposing him.

INTERVIEWER: What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

RESP: I think that the HoDs appear best for instructional supervision because they are in the subject area and have been teaching the subject for years now. They need to be appointed as supervisors and be well motivated financially for the task. They can do it but I think because the motivation is not there.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: What support/services can be put in place for instructional supervision in your school?

RESP: Heads of department of Economics need to be financially incentivised for the work because they are subject area teachers who can do a better job than head teachers who are not in the subject area. My headmaster is not an

Economics teacher, so he does not really understand why I teach the way I do.

INTERVIEWEE 4 (Supervisor 1)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you been in this position?

RESP: about 4 years here but I was an assistant for about 8 years before

INTERVIEWER: Have been able to conduct any instructional supervision for any Economics teacher?

RESP: I don't think so...

Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done for you?

RESP: Hmm... the problem with instructional supervision for me is time. Time is a big problem. You know, we have a lot of work to do in the position and sometimes I don't even get in the time to go around to check their lesson note. It's not they don't want to bring their lesson notes but I just don't get the time to check it.

INTERVIEWER: Is it that instructional supervision will take all your time?

RESP: Not that but just time for it...even when I'm available and I start, I will be pulled out of the classroom one administrative issue or the other.

INTERVIEWER: What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

RESP: That system of over-burdening us with a lot external activities and other administrative issues must be reconsidered by GES. It help us make more time for internal instructional activities.

INTERVIEWER: How does these problems affect your instructional supervision?

RESP: I realized that some of their lessons end up being with me for a longer time. So they use that as an excuse for not preparing lesson notes. Time is the challenge we have.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: Do you think the internal supervisors for instructional supervision?

RESP: They can also use internal people who are not head teachers to do it. The problem with that can be they may not have a lot of power on the teachers because they are their colleagues. Some teachers can be very difficult when it's their colleagues supervising them.

INTERVIEWEE 5 (Supervisor 2)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you been in this position?

RESP: ohh...you as head of department? I was for about 5 and I handed over to another colleague and was appointed to it again.

INTERVIEWER: Have been able to conduct any instructional supervision for any Economics teacher?

RESP: Ermmmh...I have inspected their lesson notes before but not frequently and I do go round to see them in their classrooms. I have sat in their lessons a couple of times even.

Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done for you?

RESP: It's not frequent but I try and check up on my colleagues when they are in class. And I periodically ask for their lesson notes as well.

INTERVIEWER: In some schools the headmaster are responsible for it but it seems it not so here?

RESP: I do it because the currently the assistant headmaster academic is very engaged so he told us to help him with that. I have been doing for the past 3years.

RESP: I don't sit through the classroom during the supervision...sometimes I just spend some few minutes so that the students can enjoy their teacher. Some of the students will be wondering why I'm in the classroom because they know I'm a colleague of their teacher and not the headmaster. I just don't want them to know I'm there to supervision their teacher.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: Don't you see the need for the headmaster to be responsible for it?

RESP: This is a system we have in the various schools. Headmasters hardly have any free time for internal instructional activities. The external meetings and duties are too many.

INTERVIEWER: Do you have any ideas for addressing these issues?

RESP: If they would need to bring external people to come and do this why not. I am for it. It happens at the basic level so they can get external people to come and do it periodically.

INTERVIEWEE 6 (Supervisor 3)

INTERVIEWER: Can you please identify yourself?

RESP: I'm

INTERVIEWER: How many years have you been in this position?

RESP: I have been here for 5 years now.

INTERVIEWER: Have been able to conduct any instructional supervision for any Economics teacher?

RESP: only Economics teachers? Oh...ermmm...I not sure if I have because I do round to some of the classroom sometimes.

Instructional Supervision

INTERVIEWER: What problems do you find with the way instructional supervision is done for you?

RESP: Supervision! I wonder if any of my colleague head teachers really are able do it. Because the kind of work we do alongside other duties as head teachers and assistant head teachers I wonder if anybody can really do supervision.

INTERVIEWER: So what have been the practice possible for you? RESP: You can just go around and inspect whether teachers are in class, or find out how things are. But a full time sitting in the classroom for supervision...I don't know if it happens anywhere for headmasters.

Closure

INTERVIEWER: What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

RESP: GES should look at it because if we have to do it then some of the engagement have to be reconsidered.

