Influence of Head Teachers’ Instructional Supervisory Practices on Teacher Retention, And Gender on Their Supervisory Practices: A Study of Public Basic Schools in Swedru Circuit ‘A’, Agona West Municipality, Ghana

Abstract: The study had two-fold purposes: to determine the relationship between the supervisory practices head teachers and teacher retention in the public basic schools in Swedru Circuit ‘A’, Agona West municipality of Central region, Ghana; and to find out whether the gender of the head teachers influence their supervisory styles. This was a quantitative research, underpinned by positivism. Specifically, a descriptive survey design was employed for the study. A structured questionnaire was distributed to 9 head teachers and 67 teachers, comprising 38 females and 29 males, but, in all, 61 of them responded to the instrument. Census frame was used to involve all the head teachers in the study, while the teachers were selected through stratified and simple random sampling techniques. The data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and inferential statistics such as t-test, one-way ANOVA and Multiple Regression. The study discovered that the head teachers’ supervisory practices included lesson observation, checking teacher’s record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality and regularity, and orientation of new staff, but most of these did not enhance retention of teachers in the Circuit. Also, the study showed statistically significance difference between gender and supervisory practices with regard to lesson observation, provision of in-service training, and orientation of new staff. It also was established that the head teachers’ gender was crucial in carrying out their supervisory roles and responsibilities, which suggests that attention should be directed to this variable. The researchers, therefore, recommended that Agona West Education Directorate should consider gender in the appointment of head teachers if it desires that head teachers should practice supervisory styles needed to promote teacher retention.

Keywords: Supervision, instructional supervision, head teachers, supervision, teacher retention, Circuit

1. Introduction

Education has been earmarked as the greatest weapon that is instrumental in the socio-economic advancement of a society. Practitioners such as Kieleko (2015) and Esia-Donkoh (2014) argued that education is an indispensable catalyst that strongly influences the development and economic fortunes of a nation and the quality of life of its people. Accordingly, many countries around the globe, including Ghana, have committed themselves to global education policies such as Education for All, Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education, and Free Senior High School.

In the quest to provide quality education, educators, administrators, and researchers have recognised the role of instructional supervision in achieving education success worldwide. Instructional supervision has been explained as the process through which the head of a school tries to work with teachers and other staff members in a co-operative manner to improve teaching and learning in the school (Afolabi&Loto, 2008). According to Wanzare (2012), instructional supervision encompasses all activities that are directed specifically toward establishment, maintenance, and improvement of teaching and learning process in schools. Instructional supervisors are, therefore, the individuals who are in supervisory positions in schools to provide leadership to teachers, and who have the basic responsibility to work with teachers to improve the quality of instruction to enhance quality learning on the part of students. Such people include school inspectors, headteachers, assistant headteachers, departmental heads and curriculum specialists (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004).
Ayeni (2012) notes that instructional supervision ensures quality assurance in education, which aims at the efficient management, monitoring, evaluation and reviews of the resource inputs and transformation process (teaching and learning) to produce quality outputs (students) that meet set standards and expectations of the society. Olagboye (2004), and Adetula (2005) substantiate that the aim of instructional supervision is to monitor the implementation of curricular and ensure desirable increase in teachers’ capabilities, upgrade their conceptual knowledge and teaching skills, give them support in their work to facilitate better performance in teachers’ pedagogical practices and students’ learning outcomes in school settings.

Instructional supervision activities foster teacher motivation, inspiration, and trust, and help to improve teaching performance (Retrig, 2000; Thobega & Miller, 2003). These researchers further argued that a positive relationship exist between certain aspects of instructional supervision and teachers’ job satisfaction, and their intention to remain in teaching. In furtherance of fostering teacher motivation, Ayeni (2012) maintains that instructional supervision ensures enforcement of discipline to ensure peaceful atmosphere, capacity building of teachers for effective service delivery and provision of instructional facilities and materials to enhance quality teaching-learning processes and reduce turnover intentions. Therefore, teacher commitment and peaceful co-existence in the school is a by-product of instructional supervision.

Besides, studies have revealed that instructional supervision is an important variable in understanding and addressing what some consider to be the most significant issue facing teachers’ retention (Syngenta, 2002; Thobega, 2003). Shantz and Ward (2005) indicated that headteachers instructional supervisory style was the most prominent teacher retention factor. According to Long and Thean (2011), instructional supervisory styles of headteachers establish significant negative relationships with employee retention. Kleinman (2013) concludes in his study that effective supervisory practices promote staff retention in organizations.

Education research has consistently proven that an effective teacher is the single most important factor of student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Marzano, 2007). However, studies have consistently revealed that teachers around the globe are quitting teaching at an alarming rate (Hanushek, Kaine & Rivkin, 2007; Ingersoll, & Smith, 2003). In the Ghanaian context, report has shown that about 10,000 teachers leave the schools yearly for various reasons (GNAT-TEWU, 2010). This situation is not different in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’, the context of the study. It has been observed by the researchers, who are educationists and reside close to the Circuit, that some teachers who are posted to the place hardly spend three years in the schools that they are posted to. Informal discussions with some of the teachers revealed that their intent to leave the teaching profession is based on some of the reasons, including the nature of instructional supervision carried out in the schools. A number of researchers, including Boyd, Lankford, Loeb and Wyckoff (2007), and Hirsch and Emerick (2007), also found unfavourable instructional supervisory practices as a major factor that influences teacher retention. According to Vigoda-Gadot and Ben-Zion (2004), of the many factors underlying teacher turnover, school supervision seems to be playing a precarious role. Consistent with this revelation, Hirsch and Emerick (2007) unveils lack of situational support for novice teachers, negative school climates and stress exerted on teachers by headteachers as supervision related factors that influence teacher turnover. Thus, extant literature in the field of education seem to suggest headteachers’ supervisory practices influence teacher retention and turnover. Is this general assertion true in Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit?

Moreover, an informal discussion between the researchers and some teachers in the context of the study suggested that teachers who work under male headteachers turn to leave the schools more frequently than teachers who work under male headteachers, suggesting that the gender of the head teachers influence their supervisory practices. Extant literature in the field of educational leadership and management also reveal gender differences in instructional leadership. For example, a meta-analytic study conducted by Hallinger, Li and Wang (2016) revealed a small, but significant effect of gender on instructional leadership or supervision. A study conducted in Israel in 2018 by Shaked, Glanz and Gross also pointed out that female principals promote collaboration and interpersonal relationship during instructional supervision than their male counterparts.

Thus, researchers have found that there is a relationship between instructional supervisory practices of heads of schools and teacher retention, as well as gender differences in instructional supervision. However, such studies were conducted outside Ghana, and it appears none of such studies has been conducted on the phenomenon in Swedru Circuit ‘A’, the context of this current study. This current study attends to these issues.

2. Research Questions

- What is the nature of instructional supervision carried out by the headteachers of basic schools in Swedru Circuit ‘A’ in Agona West municipality?
- Is there any statistically relationship between the supervisory practices of the headteachers and teacher retention in the schools?
- Is there any statistically significant relationship between the male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices?

3. Hypotheses

- $H_0$: There is no statistically significant relationship between headteachers’ supervisory practices and teacher retention in the public basic schools in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.
- $H_1$: There is significant relationship between headteachers’ supervisory practices and teacher retention in the public basic schools in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.
• **H02:** There is no statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.

• **H12:** There is a statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’ Education Circuit.

This study is significant in diverse ways. Firstly, the findings of the study draw the attention of the headteachers to the nature of their instructional supervision and, based on that, make improvement decisions. The results will inform the headteachers on their supervisory practices, and how such practices influence teacher retention in the Circuit. With this knowledge, the headteachers will carry out supervisory practices that enhance teacher retention in the Circuit. Last, but not least, the study will help stakeholders to determine whether sex (being male or female headteacher) makes a difference in supervisory practices, which could form the basis of local policy on supervision and recruitment of headteachers.

### 3.1. The Concept of Supervision

Supervision has been defined differently by so many people. However, from the educational perspective, it is seen as a strategy that emphasizes on offering professional assistance with the aim of improving instruction. It is thus argued by Kochhar (2005) that supervision includes those activities which are primarily and directly concerned with studying and improving the conditions which surround the learning and growth of pupils. According to Beach and Reinhardt (2000), supervision is a complex process that involves working with teachers and other educators in a collegial, collaborative relationship to enhance the quality of teaching and learning within schools and that promotes the career long development of teachers.

For Nolan and Hoover (2004), supervision is seen as an organizational function concerned with promoting teacher growth, which in turn leads to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning. They continued that the basic purpose of supervision is to enhance the educational experiences and learning of all students. Similarly, Glickman et al. (2004) view supervision is a common vision of what teaching and learning can and should be, developed collaboratively by formally designated supervisors, teachers, and other members of the school community. Supervision is also defined as a school-based or college-based activity, practice, or process that engages teachers in meaningful, non-judgmental and on-going instructional dialogue and reflection for the purpose of improving teaching and learning (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

Supervision is any programme which helps teachers achieve both qualitative and quantitative instructional delivery (Eya & Chukwu, 2012). This is corroborated by Burton, Carper and Wilburn (2011) who take supervision to include, efforts taken by the principal to support teachers and provide resources, including professional development, to facilitate teacher improvement. From the foregoing definitions, it is apparent that supervision consists of all those activities leading to the improvement of instruction. It is the process through which teachers and supervisors work together to remove any obstacles to student learning in the classroom. Such improvement and development rely on a supervisory system that is dedicated to helping teachers to be successful in their classrooms. Its emphasis is on the development or improvement of professional techniques and procedures.

The various definitions given on supervision suggest that there are many definitions in literature and each of them is unique in its focus and purpose, and it also ranges from a custodial orientation to a humanistic orientation (Wanzare& Da Costa, 2000). From the custodial perspective, supervision implies overseeing and controlling, managing, administering, evaluating, or any activity in which the headteacher undertakes in the process of running the school. This is why De Grauwe (2007) argues that the custodial orientation is not targeted to help teachers but to discover their weaknesses; eliminate and isolate them; and replace them with teachers who could do better. According to Mahad (2014), supervision has gone through several gradual processes to change from inspectorial character to instructional improvement character. Custodial orientation, according to De Grauwe (2007), focuses on the traditional conception of supervision whereby the supervisor emphasizes the teachers’ faults. It often shows the rule of the supervisor as a superior telling the teacher what needs to be changed and how to change it. Mahad (2014) contends that the custodial orientation produces teachers who cannot operate unless directed by someone. On the other hand, the humanistic approach sees instructional supervision as a multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilization, and professional development (Wanzare& Da Costa, 2000). This approach assumes that teachers possess the drive and personal resources to solve their problems, and this mostly produces a self-directed teacher.

### 3.2. Types of Supervision

Mankoe (2007) points out that there are two types of school supervision: The District-based supervision which is external, and the school-based supervision, which is internal and conducted by headteachers. External supervision is the supervision carried out by officers who are not part of the particular institution and whose work is to compliment the role and duties of the internal supervisor(s) by providing professional advice and guidance to the supervisees (Ministry of Education, 2002). Internal supervision, on the other hand, is the one conducted by a member of the team responsible for planning and implementing particular programme being supervised or evaluated (Adentwi, 2000). This study focuses on internal supervision carried out by headteachers, which is often referred to as instructional supervision.
3.3. The Concept of Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision, as key functions performed by heads of schools, has a plethora of definitions. Instructional supervision, according to Cochran-Smith and Power (2010), is the school function that improves instruction through various practices such as assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum, and action research. It could be defined as all those activities, which are designed to improve instruction at all levels of school systems (Oghuvbu, 2001). It is seen as standardised practices officially designed by educational institutions that directly affect teachers’ conduct and enhances pupil learning and achievement of other educational goals. Thus, supervision of instruction is intended to bring about an improvement of teaching and learning process for the utmost benefit of the child and to improve educational outcomes. The focus of instructional supervision is to offer teachers information about their work so as to enable them develop sufficient skills to improve performance.

Instructional supervision helps to interpret and put into practice the latest findings of educational research. This is because it is assumed that teachers have the potential, which are to be tapped, and it is the function of the supervision to help discover these for the ultimate benefit of the child. Essentially, supervision is concerned with problem-solving aimed at assisting the teacher to know their problems and find the best solution to them (De-Grauw, 2001).

3.4. Models of Supervision

Literature in educational leadership and management highlight several models of supervision. To Gebhard (1984), supervisory roles or functions fall into one or more of these categories: directing or guiding the supervisees, offering suggestions to supervisees, modelling supervisees’ activities, advising supervisees and evaluating supervisees. Based on these categorisations, he pointed out that within the context of educational supervision, a superior can make five main choices in a supervisory relationship. These are directive, collaborative, non-directive, creative and alternative. These also lead to five main types of supervision styles.

The direct model of supervision is the one which most educators express as their idea of what supervision is. In directive supervision, the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the supervisees, model supervisees’ behaviours, and evaluate the supervisees’ assigned behaviours (Gebhard, 1984). The problems which are reported to be associated with the directive supervision related to how the supervisor defines good behaviour and what supervisees consider as good behaviours; negative consequences that may arise from using a directive supervision; and who is ultimately responsible for what goes on in the field (Adeel, 2010; Gebhard, 1984). Directive supervision choice is sometimes called the traditional mode of supervision. This image of supervision stands for dictatorial type of supervision. Sergiovanni and Starrat (1983) describe this image as being autocratic in nature. The supervisor dictates what is to be done, how and when it should be done. In this image the teacher must follow what the supervisor does.

With regard to collaborative supervision choice, the supervisor’s role is to work with supervisees but not to direct them. The supervisor actively participates with the supervisees in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship with them. In this sense, the supervisor and the supervisees work together in a cooperative manner without show of punitive power. The main problem which has been found to be associated with this kind of supervisory choice is that the reality sometimes makes collaboration very difficult or unlikely (Adeel, 2010)

While collaborative supervision places the supervisor and the supervisees in a cooperative or sharing relationship, the non-directive supervision does not. The non-directive supervision does not also prescribe or suggest (non-prescriptive) alternatives. Cogan (1973) believes that what a non-directive supervision entails is that the supervisor allows the supervisees to come up with their own solutions to problems. This means that in the non-directive supervision, supervisors give rooms to the supervisees to develop their own ideas and implement them. This kind of supervision is also referred to as self-directed model of supervision (Cogan, 1973; Adeel, 2010).

With regard to the alternative supervision model, the supervisor works with the assumptions that some supervisees (especially new ones), due to lack of experience may want to be told what to do. This might be attributed to their insecurity in facing their new job without having the skills to cope with that situation. In alternative supervision model, the supervisor’s role is to suggest a variety of alternatives to what the supervisees will have to do on the job. This limits the number of choices for supervisees, and it can reduce anxiety over not knowing what to do next. However, it still keeps the responsibility for decision making with the supervisees. The alternative supervision is also referred to as the informal supervision type (Gebhard, 1984; Tanner & Tanner, 1987).

Unlike the other models, the creative supervision model allows freedom to become creative not only in the use of the models presented, but also in other behaviours we may care to generate and test in our supervisory efforts. According to Tanner and Tanner (1987), there are, at least, three ways the creative model can be used. It can allow for a combination of models or a combination of supervisory behaviours from different models, a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources, and an application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the model (Tanner & Tanner, 1987).

4. Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded by the differentiated supervision theory. Sergiovanni (2009) posits that “a differentiated system of supervision which is more in tune with growth levels, personality characteristics, needs and interests, and professional commitments of teachers is needed” (p. 281). Glathorne (2000) further explains that differentiated supervision is an approach to supervision where teachers are given options on the kinds of supervisory methods they would like to adopt. This model assumes that all teachers should involve themselves in teacher evaluation, staff
development and informal observations to improve instruction, regardless of their experience and competence. From the description of differentiated supervision, it could be said that it is not a different type of supervision model, but rather the use of an approach based on the preferences of the supervisee and its appropriateness. Therefore, Glathorne (2000) states that this model involves clinical supervision, cooperative development and self-directed development aimed at working towards teacher’s growth.

The differentiated supervision is considered for the study because the researcher recognizes the diversity of the teachers, so a one-size-fit-all approach to supervision might not be appropriate. The teachers have different levels of experience, personal traits, academic background, and work in varied social contexts. With this understanding, it is pertinent that the teachers are provided an opportunity to choose from a number of approaches that could be effective in their peculiar setting and situations. The researcher concludes that all models of supervision are relevant in particular situations, so the supervisor (head teacher) needs to be abreast with each model so that they could be adopted when the need arises.

4.1. Meaning of Employee Retention

The term retention has been explained variously by different authors. Retention is a voluntary move by an organization to create an environment which engages employees for long term (Michael, 2008). This definition implies that employee retention demands a conscious effort from the organisation to keep its employees for a long time. By inference, employee retention does not occur by chance, but rather through a planned and coordinated activities which builds a congenial working atmosphere and boosts employees desire to remain part of the organisation.

Retention of employees refers to the attempts to ensure that employees stay in the organisation and that voluntary turnover will be minimised. The main purpose of retention is to prevent competent employees from leaving the organisation as this could have adverse effects on productivity and service delivery (Chiboiwa, 2010). This author has reiterated that employee retention attempts are focused on proficient employees that are critical for quality productivity or service. Retaining all the employees may not be the desire of every business. Most organisations are concerned with retaining the high performers, those who possess key skills and knowledge needed to run the organisation and those who are difficult to be replaced.

Greenberg and Sweeney (2010) also emphasize that organisations should make efforts to keep their best talent despite difficult times. They further argue that it is the top performers that distinguish one business from another. Intuitively, organisations may have employees who might not be regarded as assets, hence should not be maintained in the organisation for long. In retention, therefore, organisations ought to identify employees they consider as valuable, and target them to be retained in the organisations for long.

Employee retention could be viewed as the strategies put in place by an organisation to retain its employees and reduce turnover (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). The rate of retention is the inverse of the rate of employee turnover and expectedly if a relatively high number of employees stayed at post within a specified period then the retention rate is high and the turnover rate is low. Based on the above discussion, the conclusion drawn from the literature is that employee retention is the policies and plans employed by organisations to maintain their valued employees for long.

4.2. Instructional Supervisory Practices of Headteachers

A review of literature has revealed several supervisory practices of the headteacher. Okumbe (1999) identified lesson observation as one of the major supervisory practices of the headteacher. He adds that instructional practices involve such activities as helping in the formulation and implementation of schemes of work, evaluating and overseeing modification of instructional programs and delivering instructional resources. However, Gaziel (2007) established that majority of principals neither make visits to classrooms to observe teachers’ lessons or give feedback to teachers after class observations.

In their study in Kenya, Musungu and Nasongo (2008) found out that headteachers instructional practices included checking lesson books, schemes of work, records of work covered, and attendance. Samoei (2014) discovered that most of the principals check schemes of work, teachers’ record of work and protect student’s instructional time through punctuality. Besides, the findings of Sabitul and Ayandoja (2012) revealed that principals check teachers’ punctuality, and check and keep teachers’ instructional records. Southworth (2002) supports this when he stated that checking records deals with headteachers’ weekly plans and pupil’s work, and reviewing test data, and he observed that the headteacher can facilitate change through checking school records by providing legitimate, descriptive feedback for the teacher to consider and reflect upon. Panigrahi (2012) also found that headteachers focused more on work records than on practical work done by teachers.

In-service training is one of the supervisory practices of headteachers. In-service training in the form of workshops, conferences, and symposia, as well as distributing literature about instruction equips teachers with expertise as a form of professional development (Kramer, Blake & Alba, 2005). It is, therefore, the responsibility of supervisors to provide teachers with in-service training sessions as well as encourage them to attend workshops and conferences to bring them abreast with time in their instructional practices (Kramer et. al., 2005). These scholars found that headteachers mostly carry out in-service training in their schools. According to McNeil and Dull (2005), the major supervisory practices are assistance to individual teachers in determining more appropriate instructional objectives for the pupils in a specific classroom so as to improve the curriculum, planning and implementing a well-established in-service training programme; aiding in goal definitions and selections at local, state and federal level; and working closely with administrators to
establish roles that are expected of consultant who are outside the school. Among these practices, the above researchers discovered that in-service training dominated headteachers supervisory practices.

4.3. Effects of Headteachers’ Supervisory Practices on Teacher Retention

The connection between headteachers supervisory practices and teacher retention has been examined by researchers. Some researchers have found a positive relationship between the supervisory practices and employee teacher retention (Ekpoh & Eze, 2015; Nakpodia, 2010; Osika, 2002). Ekpoh and Eze (2015) argued that when headteachers ensure the utilization of various supervisory techniques for teachers, it results in improved teaching capabilities of teachers, retention and their overall work performance in the school. In a study of teacher motivation in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, Bennell and Akyaempong (2007) found a positive effect of headteachers supervisory practices on teacher retention. Nakpodia (2010) examined the effect of instructional supervisory functions on teacher retention and found that supervisory practices of headteachers were an important determinant of their intentions to stay in the teaching profession.

Osika (2002) investigated the relationship between principal instructional supervision and teacher job performance in Nigeria and found that there is a positive relationship between the variables. The instructional supervisory practices of headteachers stand out as one of the most important variables for improvement in the quality of teachers’ job performance that will result in teacher retention and improved students’ academic achievement (Saka, 2010). Although the evidence instructional supervisory practices are linked with employee retention, other studies have demonstrated that the relationship between many of these variables have not been consistent over time (Saiti, 2014; Somech, 2008).

4.4. Relationship between Gender and Instructional Supervision

The connection between gender and instructional supervision has been examined by many researchers. Earlier studies conducted by researchers, including Shakeshaft, Nowell and Perry (1991) showed no gender differences in instructional supervision. However, a meta-analytic research conducted by Hallinger, Li and Wang (2016) examined if principals and teachers perceive male and female principals as employing different patterns of instructional leadership. The study revealed a small but significant influence of gender on instructional leadership. The study suggested that the female principals exhibited more active instructional leadership than their male counterparts. According to Shaked, Glanz and Gross (2018), female principals pay attention to interpersonal collaboration, and promote professional learning community, where teachers work collaboratively to address issues of concern to them. Male principals, on the other hand, hardly maintain good relationship teachers in carrying out their instructional leadership role. The findings of these researchers presented two main differences between male and female principals’ instructional leadership and these were the source authority nurturing the instructional leadership, and the integration of instructional leadership with principal-teacher relationships.

4.5. Conceptual Framework

Based on the review of theoretical literature that guides the study, the conceptual framework for the study is presented in Figure 1.0.

![Conceptual Framework](image)

**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**

*Source: Designed by Researchers, 2017*

The study investigated three variables as shown in Figure 1.1. Supervisory practices and personal factors constitute the independent variables while retention is the dependent variable. The supervisory practices consisted of checking teachers’ record of work, monitoring punctuality and regularity, orientation of new teaching staff, lesson observation, and provision of in-service training, while the personal factors include sex. From Figure 1, the researchers
intended to investigate the effect of headteachers' supervisory practices and teacher retention, and teacher retention, and the extent to which personal factors such as sex, and experience affect teacher retention and supervisory practices.

5. Methodology

This was a quantitative research, underpinned by the positivist paradigm. Specifically, a descriptive survey design was employed for the study. The design involves the collection of data in order to answer questions concerning the present status of the subjects of the study (Orodho, 2009). A descriptive survey design was used because it allows the use of a sample from a large population thus making data collection faster and less costly, produce greater accuracy of results and have greater scope and adaptability (Seidu, 2007). Moreover, it ensures ease in understanding the current status with insight and ideas about the area of study (Creswell, 2008).

The target population of the study was 9 public basic school headteachers and 151 full-time teachers who teach in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’ Education Circuit in the Agona West District in 2017/2018 academic year. All the 9 headteachers and 67 teachers constituted the sample for the study. This sample size was based on Nwana (1992: 72) recommendation that “if the population is a few hundred, a 40% or more sample size will do for descriptive survey”. Therefore, about 50% of the target population was considered for the study.

Census frame was employed to involve all the 9 headteachers in the study, while stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed to select the teacher respondents. The teacher population was put into two strata by sex (male and female teachers), and a simpler random sampling procedure was used to select teachers proportionally from each stratum so that the sample resembles the population. The female population was 38 representing 56%, while the male teachers 29 constituting 44% of the sample. Stratified random sampling is one in which the population is divided into subgroups or ‘strata,’ and a random sample is then selected from each subgroup (Fink, 1995).

The instrument used for data collection was a structured questionnaire. A questionnaire was used because it provides an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample. It also provides respondents with options of responding to, standardized questions which make it easier to score and code for analysis (Yin 2009). The questionnaire, which was made up of closed-ended items made respondents to rate each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale as: Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Not Sure (3); Disagree (2); Strongly Disagree (1). The questionnaire was made up of three sections. The first section covered items on supervisory practices of the headteachers; the second section items on influence of supervisory practices of headteachers on teacher retention, while the third section focused on gender and supervisory practices.

Validity refers to whether an instrument (a questionnaire) is measuring what it purports to measure. The questionnaire was subjected to face and content validation. Face validity was established by giving the questionnaire to some colleague lecturers at the Department of Educational Administration and Management, University of Education, Ghana for their comment on it. The views of the lecturers were considered in improving the items in the questionnaire. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) suggest that content validity of an instrument is guaranteed through expert judgment. Content validity of the instrument was established by experts in the field of educational leadership and management at the University.

According to Jack and Clarke (1998), reliability refers to the repeatability, stability or internal consistency of a questionnaire. To establish the reliability of the instrument, it was pre-tested. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), pre-testing a research instrument enabled the researcher to modify items that were difficult to understand, reduce ambiguities and incorporate new categories of responses that were identified as relevant to the study. The pre-test was carried out in public basic schools in the Gomoa East Education Directorate because headteachers and teachers in the district were considered to have similar characteristics as the headteachers and teachers of public basic schools in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’, the context of the study. Forty (40) respondents, consisting of 3 headteachers and 37 teachers from 3 public basic schools who had spent at least one year in their schools in the Gomoa East education Directorate were involved in the pre-test of the instrument. The data gathered was imputed to SPSS Version 22 and the internal consistency of the various items in the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach alpha. The choice of Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient was made on the merit of views of Mitchell (1996), who contended that Cronbach alpha is used when measures have multi-scored items. The closer Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability (Sekaran, 2006). A coefficient of 0.7 is recommended for a newly developed questionnaire. All the variables had a Cronbach alpha of above 0.7 and thus reliability was attained. Data analysis is a process where a researcher continually reflects on collected data for thorough understanding of the data, and deriving an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data (Creswell, 2003). To collect data for the study, a structured questionnaire was distributed to 9 head teachers and 67 teachers, but, in all, 61 of them responded to the instrument. The data collected was cleaned, coded and entered into Version 22 of SPSS. The data was explored to identify missing data and outliers. It was then analysed by using descriptive statistics such mean and standard deviation, and inferential statistics such as an independent sample t-test and one way between group analysis of variance.

5.1. Presentation of Results

An aspect of the questionnaire gathered data on the supervisory practices of the head teachers in the Swedru Circuit “An” Education Circuit and the relevant data is presented in Table 1.
The data in Table 1 reveals that the head teachers carried out various forms of instructional supervision. It could be observed that the head teachers ranked highest on the checking of teacher record of work (M=4.34, SD=0.60) followed by monitoring punctuality (M=3.62, SD=0.59), orientation of new staff (M=3.26, SD=1.06), lesson observation (M=3.16, SD=0.82), and provision of in-service training(M=3.03, SD=0.76). Based on the 5-point Likert scale used for the data where the mean is 3.0, it could be noticed that all the supervisory practices were above the mean which implies that all them were common in the schools. However, checking teacher's record of work was dominant among the head teachers, while the provision of in-service training was least of the supervisory practices carried in the schools.

5.1.1. Hypothesis

- Ho: There is no statistically significant relationship between head teachers’ supervisory practices and teacher retention in the public basic schools in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’ Education Circuit.
- H1: There is significant relationship between headteachers’ supervisory practices and teacher retention in the public basic schools in the Swedru Circuit ‘A’ Education Circuit.

5.2. Effect of the Head Teachers’ Supervisory Practices on Teacher Retention in the Public Basic Schools in the Swedru Circuit “An” Education Circuit

Another aspect of the questionnaire gathered data on the effect of head teachers’ supervisory practices on teacher retention where multiple regression involving lesson observation, checking teacher record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality and regularity, and orientation of new staff were used as predictors of teacher retention. The results are presented in Table 2.

The multiple regression results as in Table 2 point out that the head teachers’ supervisory practices collectively accounted for 10.9% in teacher retention which was assessed not to be statistically significant [F (4, 57) =1.342, p=0.260] at 0.05 alpha level. It could be understood from the results that head teachers supervisory practices do not matter in the discussion of teacher retention in the study area and that other factors not included in this study could contribute 89.1% in teacher retention.

| Supervisory Practices | N    | Minimum | Maximum | Mean  | Std. Deviation |
|------------------------|------|---------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Checking teacher's record of work | 61   | 3       | 5       | 4.34  | 0.60           |
| Monitoring punctuality and regularity | 61   | 2       | 5       | 3.62  | 0.59           |
| Orientation of new Staff | 61   | 1       | 5       | 3.26  | 1.06           |
| Lesson observation | 61   | 1       | 5       | 3.16  | 0.82           |
| Provision of In-service Training | 61   | 1       | 4       | 3.03  | 0.76           |

Table 1: Supervisory Practices of Head Teachers in Swedru Circuit “An” Education Circuit
Source: Field Data, 2017

| Model | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|---------------|----|-------------|---|------|
| 1     | Regression    | 5.668 | 4 | 1.134 | 1.342 | 0.260 |
|       | Residual      | 46.454 | 57 | 0.845 |      |      |
|       | Total         | 52.122 | 61 |      |      |      |
| R     | 3.330         |      |      |      |      |      |
| R Square | 0.109 |      |      |      |      |      |
| Adjusted R Square | 0.028 |      |      |      |      |      |
| Std. Error of the Estimate | 0.919 |      |      |      |      |      |

Table 2: Multiple Regression and ANOVA Results for Head teachers’ Supervisory Practices and Teacher Retention
Source: Field Data, 2017
The results in Table 3 shows that all the headteachers’ supervisory practices did not contribute significantly to teacher retention. Indeed, the results indicated that lesson observation \((\beta=0.167, t=1.119, p=0.268)\), checking teachers’ record of work \((\beta=-0.177, t=-1.365, p=0.178)\), provision of in-service training \((\beta=-0.276, t=-1.881, p=0.065)\), monitoring punctuality and regularity \((\beta=-0.057, t=-0.362, p=0.719)\), and orientation of new staff \((\beta=0.051, t=0.371, p=0.712)\), all do not matter in the discussion of teacher retention in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.

5.2.1. Hypothesis 2

- \(H_{02}\): There is no statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.

- \(H_{22}\): There is a statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit.

To test this hypothesis, the independent samples t-test was used and the results as shown in Table 4.

| Variables                     | Gender | Mean | Std. Deviation | T    | df | P-value |
|-------------------------------|--------|------|----------------|------|----|---------|
| Lesson Observation            | Male   | 3.33 | 0.00           | 2.861| 7  | 0.024   |
|                               | Female | 2.38 | 0.45           |      |    |         |
| Checking Teachers’ Work       | Male   | 4.00 | 0.00           | 0.187| 7  | 0.857   |
|                               | Female | 3.90 | 0.69           |      |    |         |
| Provision of In-service Training | Male   | 3.33 | 0.00           | 2.861| 7  | 0.024   |
|                               | Female | 2.38 | 0.45           |      |    |         |
| Monitoring Punctuality and Regularity | Male   | 4.00 | 0.00           | 1.283| 7  | 0.240   |
|                               | Female | 3.71 | 0.30           |      |    |         |
| Orientation of New Staff      | Male   | 3.00 | 0.00           | -2.694| 7  | 0.031   |
|                               | Female | 4.33 | 0.67           |      |    |         |

Table 4: Mean, Standard Deviation and T-Test Results for Sex and Supervisory Practices

Source: Field Data, 2017

The independent sample t-test results in Table 4 disclosed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers on checking teachers’ record of work \([t (7) = -0.362, p=0.719]\), and monitoring punctuality and regularity \([t (7) = 1.283, p=0.240, 2\text{-tailed}]\). However, the results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers on lesson observation \([t (7) = 2.861, p=0.024, 2\text{-tailed}]\), provision of in-service training \([t (7) = -2.691, p=0.024, 2\text{-tailed}]\), and orientation of new staff \([t (13) = -2.694, p=0.031, 2\text{-tailed}]\), at 0.05. These results implied that male and female headteachers differ in their supervisory practices. Hence, the null hypothesis that “There is no statistically significant difference between male and female headteachers in their supervisory practices in the Swedru Circuit “A” Education Circuit” is rejected, while the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

5.3. Analysis and Discussion of Results

The study revealed that the headteachers practiced all the supervisory tasks above average. However, the study indicated that respondents rated highest on the ‘checking teachers record of work’ \((M=4.34, SD=0.60)\) followed by ‘monitoring punctuality and regularity’ \((M=3.62, SD=0.59)\), ‘orientation of new staff’ \((M=3.26, SD=1.06)\), ‘lesson observation’ \((M=3.16, SD=0.82)\), and ‘provision of in-service training’ \((M=3.03, SD=0.76)\). Based on these results, the study concluded that ‘checking teachers' record of work’ was dominant among the headteachers, while the provision of in-service training was least instructional leadership activity in the schools. The findings of this study agree with Sabitul and Ayandoja (2012), and Samoei’s (2014) results that checking teachers record of work was a foremost in the supervisory practices of the headteachers. The findings, however, contradict that of Gaziel (2007), which established that majority of principals neither make visits to classrooms to observe teachers’ lessons. The findings of the study further disagree with Samoei (2014)’s that orientation of new teaching staff in their schools was dominant among headteachers.

Moreover, the study established that gender \([t (59) = 0.724, p=0.472, 2\text{-tailed}]\) did not significantly affect teacher retention. This finding is in agreement with Strydom, Nortje, Beukes, Esterhuyse, and Westhuizen (2012)’s and Stinebrickner (2002)’s, but also disagrees with Efanga’s (2017) and Efanga’s (2007) findings that gender does not affect the retention of teachers. However, the study disclosed that age \([F (3, 57) = 5.281, p=0.003]\) of the headteachers significantly affected teacher retention. This finding agrees with Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight, and George (2007), who found a statistically significant difference between gender and retention intentions of employees. Contrarily, Crossman and Harris (2006), George, Louw, and Badenhorst (2008) found no significant difference between personal characteristics such as gender and teacher retention. The study, therefore, concluded that these personal factors such as gender do not matter in discussing the stay intentions of teachers.

The study also revealed that even though supervisory practices of headteachers accounted for 10.9% in variance to teacher retention, it did not significantly influence teacher retention. The findings of this study disagree with previous...
findings (Ekpohe&Eze, 2015; Nakpodia, 2010; Osika, 2002), which indicated that supervision impacts teacher retention. Interesting to this study was that all the supervisory practices did not influence teacher retention. Indeed, it was discovered that lesson observation ($\beta=0.167$, $t=1.119$, $p=0.268$), checking teacher’s record of work ($\beta=-0.177$, $t=-1.365$, $p=0.178$), provision of in-service training ($\beta=-0.276$, $t=-1.881$, $p=0.065$), monitoring punctuality and regularity ($\beta=-0.057$, $t=-0.362$, $p=0.719$), and orientation of new staff ($\beta=0.051$, $t=0.371$, $p=0.712$) had no impact on teacher retention. Therefore, head teachers need to determine which styles may be appropriate in specific situations. Finally, the test of the hypotheses established that the headteachers’ personal characteristics such as gender was crucial in carrying out their supervisory practices.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study concluded that the headteachers’ supervisory practices such as lesson observation, checking teacher record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality and regularity, and orientation of new staff did not enhanced retention of teachers in the Circuit. With this revelation, it is essential that the headteachers adopt appropriate supervisory practices that have the potential to increase the retention of the teachers. The study, therefore, recommends that the Agona West Education Directorate should organize refresher courses for the headteachers to equip them with relevant knowledge and skills to effectively balance and practice the supervisory tasks that are most likely to enhance teacher retention in the Circuit.

The study showed statistically significance difference between gender and supervisory practices with regard to lesson observation, provision of in-service training, and orientation of new staff. The study also established that the gender of the headteachers was crucial in carrying out their supervisory roles and responsibilities, which suggest that attention should be directed to this variable. The study recommends that Agona West Education Directorate should consider sex in the appointment of headteachers if it desires that headteachers should practice supervisory styles needed to promote teacher retention.

7. Limitations of the Study

Like any other empirical studies, this particular study had some limitations. First, the sample size was not representative of all headteachers and teachers in the Agona West Municipality in which ’Circuit A’, the context of the study, was located. Therefore, the findings could not be generalised beyond the headteachers and teachers in the setting of the study. Secondly, only a structured questionnaire was employed to gather data for the study. This did not provide the researchers opportunity to explore some key quantitative results in-depth.

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