UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

THE LEADERSHIP STYLES OF BASIC SCHOOL HEADS AS PERCEIVED BY THEIR SUBORDINATES: A CASE STUDY OF SUAME CIRCUIT OF THE KUMASI METROPOLITAN DIRECTORATE OF THE GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE (GES)

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Dissertation submitted to the Institute of Education of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Master of Education Degree in Educational Management

OCTOBER 2011

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Signature:…………………………….Date:……………….

Name: Agartha Abrafi

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Supervisor's Signature:…………………………Date:…………............

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ABSTRACT

This study is a descriptive survey, which sought to find out the perception of teachers about the leadership styles of male and female school heads of basic schools of the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate. It also sought to find out lessons that could be learnt from each other (male/female heads). The study further sought to find out the preference of teachers for a male or female school head, and the reasons for their preferences as well as suggestions for the improvement of the leadership styles of both the male and female heads.

A total of one hundred and twenty (120) respondents were involved in the study. The main research instrument used to collect data for the study was questionnaire. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages and cross tabulations were used to analyse the bio-data of respondents and answer the research questions.

Findings of the study showed that the respondents (teachers) perceived both male and female school heads as generally democratic in their leadership styles. The researcher recommended that appointment of heads of schools should be done devoid of gender considerations but and must be based on qualification and competence.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Gratitude, it is said, is the best of all virtues. It is in the spirit of this saying that I wish to acknowledge the assistance received from other people in the conduct of this research. First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Agyenim-Boateng sincerely, for his guidance, assistance and encouragement during the process of putting this piece of work together. I highly appreciate the time you spent on me and the enormous patience you had for me just to ensure that the work was done and done well.

I would also like to acknowledge the invaluable assistance offered by Messrs Dominic Owusu of the Department of Management Studies, School of Business, University of Cape Coast who served as a liaison between my supervisor and I, Krobea Asante-Mensa of Department of Mathematics, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, and Sarah Addai of Roman Girls Demonstration J.H.S for taking pains to type the work.

I further express my heartfelt gratitude to the Headmasters/Headmistresses and Teachers of the selected schools who offered responses to the questionnaire items. I very much appreciate and commend the readiness and willingness demonstrated in responding to the questionnaire. I also owe a debt of gratitude to the authors of all educational documents – books, journals; articles etc. which served as rich

sources of reference for this study and contributed in no small measure

towards the success of this study. Thank you all.

DEDICATION

To my daughter, Maureen Opoku-Adade of Central University College,

Accra.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

An organization is defined as a group of people working together towards the achievement of a set of goals (McShane &Von Glinow, 2000). Every organization bears two very important characteristics – it has a membership and it works towards achieving a purpose. The school as noted by Agyenim-Boateng, Atta and Baafi-Frimpong (2009) is a formal organization. It is a system of consciously constructed activities or forces of two or more persons.

The health of any organisation, be it a church, firm or school depends largely on the managerial skills of its head or manager. The leader (head) thus becomes the pivot around whom all activities are co-ordinated. Leadership, therefore, is a vital element in the social relationship of a group at work. Cole (1997) talks of leadership as a dynamic process at work in a group whereby one individual over a period of time, and in a particular organizational context, influences the other members to commit themselves freely to the achievement of group's tasks or goals. This definition encompasses several important features of leadership which include: Leadership as a dynamic process influenced by the changing requirements of the task, the group itself and the individual members.

Thus, there is no 'one best way' of leading and as such leaders need to be able to exercise a wide range of behaviour to maintain their role effectively.

Again, leadership is not necessarily confined to one person, but may be shared between members. This presupposes that no one can claim absolute superiority over leadership. Anybody at all, whether male or female can be a leader and a good leader of course. The provision of good leadership in any organization is very much dependent on the availability or presence of a good leader. A leader is regarded as a person established in a position recognized in the formal organizational chart as a post. In other words, an individual occupying a given status in an organization or holding a specific title or office , or placed in a certain position in the hierarchy, or granted special authority in formal organizational chart is considered a leader (Musaazi,1982). For example, the head of a school, the managing director of a company, a commander in the army are viewed as leaders. It should however, be noted that leadership does not necessarily take place within the managerial hierarchical structure of an organization. It can also be found in an informal work groups as some people operate as leaders without their role ever being clearly established or defined (Donnelly, Gibson & Ivancicevich, 1992; Mullins, 1993).

In the school system, heads are the leaders, managers and administrators of the school. They take charge of all administrative function such as planning, organizing, directing, staffing, and coordinating reporting and budgeting in the school. Even though they may choose to delegate some of these functions to their subordinates, they take ultimate responsibility for every administrative and

managerial function and activities in the school. They are there to solve problems, initiate innovations and link very well with their immediate community and the larger society all in attempt to work towards the successful achievement of the set goals of the school.

In Ghana, heads of educational institutions who are the instruments for the attainment of educational goals, are given titles or names, depending on the area of their jurisdiction. In the primary school, the heads of the educational institutions are known as head teachers whether male or female whilst at the junior and senior high school level they are called head masters (males) and head mistresses (females). In the colleges of education, the heads are referred to as principals (both males and females). What had accounted for such distinguishing differences in titles among heads in different levels of education is however, not known.

Ironically, in Ghana as well as some African countries, most women seem to be contended with the axiom that the woman's role (place) is at the kitchen and as such shirk top managerial positions. Though, there are some women in top managerial positions, the number is very minimal as compared to their male counterparts. The situation is even appalling when it comes to matters of the military and politics which are presumed to be the preserve of men. For example, out of the two hundred and thirty Members of Parliament in Ghana in the Fifth Parliament of the Fourth Republic only nineteen are women MPs. Similarly, to the National Women's Organizer of the ruling National Democratic Congress (NDC), out of the two hundred and seventy- nine top political positions as at

2009, only forty-eight were occupied by women, while eight out of the thirty-seven ministers of state were women (national women's organiser, NDC, 2009). Studies conducted by Asamoah (1996) and Acheampong (1999) revealed some reasons for the low participation of women in leadership and top management positions in Ghana. According to the authors, the reasons include: lack of interest; lack of appropriate qualification; fear of criticisms; male dominance and lack of confidence

Lack of interest among Ghanaian women: It was found out that most Ghanaian women do not just have the interest in occupying top leadership and management positions. They prefer to do 'feminine' jobs such as being secretaries, treasurers, being in charge of guidance and counseling centres without aspiring to the top management positions.

Traditional concept of leadership: Traditionally, it is the believed that leadership is preserved for men and domestic responsibilities are the preserve of women. Men are to lead and women are to follow. Women are supposed to remain in the kitchen and not to come out and be involved in discussions or talking about issues in public. It is this traditional socialization, drawing a line between male and female conduct in the society that had affected the psyche of women especially in Ghana to shy away from aspiring for high leadership positions.

Lack of appropriate qualification: The initial low educational level of women generally does not enable them to strive hard for higher educational attainments to qualify them to take up high leadership positions.

Fear of criticisms: Women by nature fear public ridicule and embarrassment. That is why they are always concerned about making things right and avoiding faults. They feel that taking up such high positions would mean opening themselves and their activities up for public scrutiny, and that any lapse on their part may lead to some merciless criticisms from the public, which they may not be able to bear.

Male dominance: Male domination of the available management and leadership positions has served as a blockage and disincentive to women's aspirations and ambitions to the top management position.

Lack of self confidence: Women's lack of self confidence and the tendency to underrate their own abilities have clearly inhibited them from competing with men where they feel the odds are against them (Carter, 1988).

Currently, with the creation of more awareness in women through various processes of sensitization and education on human rights, women's empowerment and affirmative action, women in Ghana have become a force to reckon with, more ambitious and assertive than ever before. This has culminated in the gradual but steady upward trend in the participation of women in leadership positions in politics, education, business and other fields.

Generally, leaders tend to show their leadership in a peculiar manner or fashion to achieve goals. Whatever approach they choose to use in the exercise of their leadership, constitute their leadership style. Sisk (1977) asserted that every leader has a particular way or set of ways of acting and reacting to issues in an organization. Such a unique way or manner by which a leader carries out

organizational tasks and relates to those who work under him or her, constitute the leadership style of that individual.

According to Shani and Lau (2000) leadership style refers to a pattern of philosophy, beliefs, attitudes, feelings and assumptions about leadership that affect the individual's behaviour when managing people. Many leadership styles have been identified by researchers and authors, as those usually used in most organizations. They include; Democratic, Autocratic, Charismatic, Transformational and Laissez-faire style. This work, however, focuses on only three of these leadership styles. These are; Democratic, Autocratic and Laissez-faire leadership styles. The democratic style of leadership emphasizes group and leader participation in the formulation of the policies that serve as guidelines for organizational operation. There is maximum participation of subordinates in decision-making in the organization. In the autocratic leadership style the leader alone determines policy and assigns tasks to members without consulting them. There is no or minimum participation of subordinates in decision-making in the organization. With the Laissez-faire style of leadership, both the leader and the subordinates portray carefree attitude towards attainment of organizational goals. It is each one for himself and as such there is no discipline in the organization.

Literature on leadership in corporate world as well as in education has recently experienced a surge of descriptions of how women leaders behave differently from men. According to Dessler (1998), studies suggest few measurable differences in the leader behaviours that women and men managers use on the job.

As women assume more visible leadership roles, many observers perceive differences in the leadership styles of the two sexes. For example, in the Ghanaian society the perception among some people is that women lead differently from men and that woman tend to be 'hard' and autocratic when they assume leadership positions. They most often become bossy and arrogant, showing all sort of dictatorial traits. For these and other reasons, some refer to some women leaders as ''Iron lady'' and ''Margaret Thatcher'' as a way of describing them in apparent reference to the hard and uncompromising stance that was associated with the former British Prime Minister. All these reinforce the axiom; women are their own enemies as many women prefer working with men leaders to working with women leaders. Some empirical evidence also exists to show that researchers have studied and continue to conduct studies into the issue of gender differences and leadership styles of leaders in organizations. For example, Asamoah (1996), and Acheampong (1999), reported findings which show that female leaders (specifically school heads) are perceived to be more autocratic and less democratic in their leadership behaviours than male leaders.

These pieces of evidence suggest that men and women do lead differently or behave differently in leadership positions. In other words, it could be deduced that men and women leaders use different leadership styles to influence and direct the activities of their subordinates towards achieving the set goals of the organization they lead.

In Ghana today, there are many organizations and institutions that have male and female heads or leaders. In the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metro

Education Directorate of the Ashanti Region of Ghana alone, there are eighteen (18) basic schools that have male and female heads. This study therefore set out to investigate the leadership styles of male and female heads of the basic schools in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metro Education Directorate to determine whether there were differences in the leadership styles of these heads.

Statement of the Problem

Currently, some females in Ghana find themselves in various top management and leadership positions in many organizations, just like their male counterparts. Women are now fully awakened, and are strongly rubbing shoulders with men in almost all spheres of human endeavours.

For example, Ghana currently has a female as a Chief Justice. Other women in leadership positions in Ghana include Ms. Joyce Aryee the Chief Executive Officer (C.E.O) of Ghana Chamber of Mines, Mrs. Rose Joyce Bamford Addo, Speaker of Parliament and Ms. Anna Bossman, Commissioner of Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ).

In the Ghana Education Service (GES), it looks like the number of women heads especially in the urban cities exceeds that of men or may be at par. Generally, women who work under female heads in most educational institutions complain that they are not treated fairly as their fellow women who work under male heads. Many believe that female heads treat their male subordinates fairer than their female subordinates. This seems to support the saying women are their own enemies. The above has led to a situation where most females prefer working under male heads whilst some males prefer to work under female heads.

The fundamental questions, therefore, which engage our attention and seek appropriate answers are, what is the situation in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metro Education Directorate of the Ashanti Region? What leadership styles do the male and female leaders of organizations in the Ashanti Region use?

Unfortunately, scientific studies on this issue of gender and leadership style of leaders in the Ashanti Region are virtually unknown. The need for undertaking a study to find out the gender and leadership style situation of leaders in the Ashanti Region of Ghana is not only imperative and appropriate but also overdue.

This study, sought to investigate and present empirical evidence on the perceived dominant leadership styles of the male and female heads (leaders) of basic public schools in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metro Education Directorate of the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the perceived leadership styles of the male and female heads   of the public basic schools in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metro Educational Directorate. Specifically the study is aimed at finding out:

1. Whether there are differences between male and female leadership styles among the heads in the basic schools in the Suame Circuit.

2. To determine the perception of staff concerning the leadership styles of both sexes (male and female) in the Suame Circuit

3. Lessons male and female leaders can learn from each other

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4.	Suggestions by teachers in improving the leadership style of male and female heads

Research Questions

Based on the research problem and the objectives of the study, the following research questions guided the study

1.	To what extent do women and men in leadership positions in educational institutions behave differently?

2.	What are the perceptions of subordinates of the leadership style of both male and female leaders in the Suame Circuit Basic Schools?

3.	What lessons can male and female leaders learn from each other? And

4.	What suggestions can teachers offer for improving the leadership style of male and female heads?

Significance of the Study

The results of the study will provide educational administrators especially those of the Suame Circuit of the Ghana Education Service(G.E.S) of the Kumasi Metropolis more insight into their dealings with their subordinates. This among other things will help educational leaders to have the opportunity to improve upon their human relationship with all manner of people they encounter in the course of discharging their duties. This includes students, teachers, parents, chiefs, educational officers as well as the non- teaching personnel.

It is also hoped that the study would provide suggestions to improve upon the leadership of heads of institutions in other to make them more effective and

efficient managers. The study also serves as a source of reference and basis for the conduct of future and further research in this and other areas of leadership.

Delimitation of the Study

Basic schools are widely spread all over the country. A research of this kind should have been done to cover all basic schools in Ghana, in order that a clear and complete nation-wide account could have been obtained on this issue of perceived dominant leadership style of male and female heads of basic schools. However, the study covered public basic schools in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate of the Ashanti Region. This became necessary, because, the sheer number of respondents that would have been dealt with in such a nation-wide research would be too much for the researcher to handle.

Also, even though many issues do exist in such areas of educational administration like, decision-making, leadership, discipline and motivation, to mention but a few, the study delimited the area of the study to only leadership .This was to ensure an in-depth study of the phenomenon and to provide interaction that will lead to the adoption of an appropriate leadership style by educational managers to ensure effective management of the basic schools in the study area.

Limitations of the study

In spite of the effort on the part of the researcher to conduct the study more thoroughly, some limitations could hardly be avoided. Among these are the following;

a)   The study was limited to schools within the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ghana Education Service

b)   Lack of time and adequate resources also hindered the research being extended to cover the whole Metropolis and even at the national level.

Despite all these limitations, the study strategically used the random sampling technique in selecting teachers and the area for the study and since all teachers and heads of institutions nation-wide are expected to exhibit the same quality and characteristics based on the mode of conduct established by the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S) for all its teachers and heads of institutions under its jurisdiction. It is expected that results should not be any different.

Organization of the Study

The study is divided into five main chapters. Chapter one which is the introductory is organized under the following headings: background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study and research questions. This chapter further outlines the significance of the study, delimitation, limitations as well as the organization of the study.

Chapter two presents the review of related literature for the study. It specifically presents such aspects of reviewed literature as, who a leader is,

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definitions and meanings of leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles as well as gender and leadership styles.

Chapter three spells out the research methodology. It identifies the research design used for the study, the population of the study, the sample and sampling procedure used. It also describes the research instrument used for data collection, pre-testing of the research instrument, data collection and data analysis procedures.

In chapter four there is the presentation of the data collected, analysis of the data collected, and discussion of the findings. Chapter five comprises the summary of the main findings, conclusions, implications as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter looks at a review of related and relevant studies and observations made by other researchers and writers. The literature review concentrates on issues such as who a leader is, the definition and explanation of the concept of leadership and basis of a leader's power. In addition, issues such as theories of leadership, leadership styles and gender and leadership styles have been discussed.

Who is a Leader?

Chambers Combined Dictionary, Thesaurus, edited by Manser and Thomson (1997), defines a leader simply as a person who organizes or is in charge of a group. Similarly, Robbins and Coulter (2005), talks of a leader as someone who can influence others and has managerial authority. Again to Hannagan (2005), the word 'leader' derives from words meaning a path or road and suggests the importance of guidance on a journey. Both the word itself and the role of a leader are about looking forward, identifying the way ahead or steering others towards agreed objectives. This process means that leaders need to have followers and to share common goals with their followers.

Every group, be it a family, city, church, nation, association or a school fulfills its purposes and harnesses its potentials based on the type of leadership put in place. Thus, the success or failure of any organization depends on the caliber of leadership it employs for its day to day administration.

Definition and Explanation of the Concept of Leadership

Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in managerial operations. It is a phenomenon, which is seen in almost every aspect of human undertakings. It is seen in the home (family), groups, organization, institutions, nations and alliances of nations. Many writers and researchers have given various interpretations to leadership.

Available literature suggests that leadership can be defined from three dimensions namely – 'as a process', 'as a status' and 'as a characteristic of a person'. For example, Tead (1935: 81) defines leadership as "a process of helping others to discover themselves in the achieving of aims which have been intrinsic to them" Katz and Khan (1978: 30) looked at leadership from the point of view of characteristics of a person. According to them, leadership appears in social science literature with the major meanings, as the attribute of a position, as the characteristics of a person and as a category of behaviour"

To Fiedler (1967), leadership is an inter-personal relation in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviours of others to a greater extent than they control him or her. On the part of Stoner and Freeman (1992), leadership is the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. Mulllins (1993) saw leadership as a relationship through which one person influences the behaviour of other people. Similarly, Wright and Noe (1996), believe that, leadership is the process of inspiring and empowering others to voluntarily commit themselves to achieving the leader's vision. Thus, leadership is an

"elusive concept "and a leader should have the ability to induce subordinates to work with confidence and zeal (Mc Forland, 1997; Koontz & O'Donnel, 1976). It is a process by which people are directed, guided and influenced in choosing and achieving goals. In other words, it is the art of influencing and inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, completely and enthusiastically for the achievement of group objectives. Thus, it is a process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey, 1982; Chandan, 1978). Leadership is also seen as getting others to follow or getting people to do things willingly or interpreted more specifically the use of authority in decision-making (Mullins, 1996). One therefore has to agree with Mullins (1996) that it is difficult to make a firm generalization about leadership as it is essentially a relationship through which one person influences the behaviour or action of other people.

Jago (as cited in Randy and David, 1998) sees leadership as the use of non-coercive influence to direct and co-ordinate the activities of a group towards accomplishing a goal. Chapman and O'Neil (2000) also define leadership as the ability to influence others especially in getting others to reach challenging heights. Thus, leadership is part of management but not all of it. It is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. In other words it is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goals (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1992). Management activities such as planning, organizing and decision-making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them toward goals. This is

what Williams and Coughlin (1997) seem to say when they defined leadership as the element of management that makes it possible for managers to harness the talents and energies of their subordinates to achieve the goals of the organization.

In the view of George and Jones (1996), leadership is the exercise of influence by one member of a group, or organization, over other members to help the group or organization achieve its goals. Robbins (1998) defines leadership as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals.

Cole (1997) on his part sees leadership as a dynamic process at work in a group whereby one individual over a particular period of time and in a particular organizational context, influences the other group members to commit themselves freely to the achievement of group tasks or goals. From this definition it could be deduced that; Leadership is a dynamic process, which is influenced by the changing requirement of the task, the group itself and the individual members. Thus, there is no one best way of leading and as such, leaders need to be able to exercise a range of behaviours to maintain their role effectively. Leadership is not necessarily confined to one person but may be shared between group members. The leader's principal role is to influence the group towards the achievement of group goals

From the aforementioned definitions, it could be deduced that principally, leadership involves other people (followers), the use of influences, it is a process, that is, an on- going activity engaged in by certain individuals in an organization. The leadership process involves an unequal distribution of power among leaders and group members.

According to Agyenim–Boateng et al (2009) leadership comes about in three ways;

1.   By appointment , for example ministers of state

2.   By election, for example the president and

3.   Emerging by popular choice, for instance one who automatically emerges as a leader through acclamation.

Bases of Leader's Power

Influence which is the key element in leadership can be defined as the control that a person possesses and can exercise on others. Generally the ability to influence, persuade and motivate others is based largely upon the perceived power of the leader.

Agyenim-Boateng et al (2009) have identified five bases or sources of a leader's power and influence which are;

1.   **Reward Power**: This is based on the ability of the administrator to control and administer rewards to those who comply with his or her directives or complete task satisfactorily. Such rewards take the form of increase in pay, promotions, recognition or praise.

2.   **Coercive Power**: This is based on fear or the ability of the leader to use punishment (reprimands, suspension without pay, termination) for non-compliance with his orders or directives.

3.   **Legitimate Power**: This can be considered simply as the power of lawful or formal authority. This type of power is derived from an individual's

position or role in the organizational hierarchy. For example, Managing Director of organization.

4. **Expert Power** : This power is derived from superior competence or special ability, skills or knowledge that the subordinates perceive the leader as having relevant expertise and believe it exceeds their own They therefore see him as more capable of analyzing, implementing and controlling those tasks with which the group have been charged.

5. **Referent Power**: This refers to power based on the attractiveness and appeal of the leader. This type of power is commonly associated with charismatic leaders. The leader is said to have charisma to inspire and attract followers and the follower often desire to be with him.

Leadership Theories

Considerable volume of theory and research has been made concerning leadership. The three traditional theories to studying leadership include the trait theory, behavioral theory and situational theory.

Trait Theory

The trait theory is the oldest leadership perspective and was dominant for several decades. It focuses on individual leaders and attempts to determine the personal characteristics (traits) that great leaders share. Early studies of leadership sought to identify enduring personal characteristics and traits that distinguish leaders from followers and effective from ineffective leaders. Traits are distinctive internal qualities or characteristics of individuals such as physical characteristics (for example, height, weight, appearance), personality

characteristics (for example, dominance, originality) skills and abilities (such as intelligence, knowledge), and social factors (such as interpersonal skills, sociability).

By mid-1970s, a new generation of leadership experts began to argue that the earlier studies focused too much on the abstract personality traits and physical appearance of leaders. The recent literature on leadership indicates that although no traits ensured leadership success, certain characteristics are potentially useful. It further indicated that some personality characteristics, many of which a person needs not be born with but can strive to acquire, do distinguish effective leaders from other people. McShane and Von Glinow (2000) identified the following competencies that are characteristics of effective leaders. They are; drive, Leadership motivation, Integrity, Intelligence and Knowledge of the business.

Drive refers to the inner motivation that leaders possess to pursue their goals. It also refers to a set of characteristics that reflect a high level of effort. Drive includes high need for achievement, constant striving for improvement, ambition, energy, tenacity (persistence in the face of obstacles) and initiative.

Leadership motivation stems from the fact that leaders want to lead. They have a strong need for power because they want to influence others to accomplish goals that benefit the team or organisation. Integrity has to do with the correspondence between actions and words, honesty and credibility. It refers to the leader's truthfulness and tendency to translate words into action. Leaders will only have followers when trust is maintained through the leader's integrity.

Leaders believe in their leadership skills and ability to achieve objectives. The leadership role is challenging and setbacks are inevitable. Self-confidence allows a leader to overcome obstacles, make decisions despite uncertainty and instill confidence in others.

Effective leaders need to have a high level knowledge about their industries, companies, technical matters and the general business environment in which they operate. A recent summary of research in the area of leadership traits cited in Shani and Lau (2000) drew the following conclusions:

1.   That the traits of physical energy, intelligence greater than the average intelligence of followers, self-confidence and achievement motivation and the motives of the leader were found to consistently differentiate leaders from one another.

2.   That the effects of the traits on leader behaviour and leader effectiveness are enhanced to a great extent by the relevance of the traits to the situation in which the leader functions.

Behaviour Theory

The trait theory was later found to be characterized by some limitations. Researchers started as far back as in the 1940s to include a focus on the way leaders behave or what leaders actually do. This is the behaviour theory or behavioural approach to management. Instead of categorizing people as leaders or followers, the behavioural approach seeks to identify a pattern of behaviour associated with effective leadership. Many management experts believe that

performance is more closely related to the things leaders actually do than to the traits they possess.

Some well-known studies have been conducted in connection with the behavioural approach, prominent among them being the Ohio and Michigan studies in 1950. The behaviour approach seeks to identify leader behaviours that help individuals, groups and organizations achieve their multiple goals.

Situational / Contingency Theories

Although researchers have attempted to identify effective leader's behaviours that would work in every situation the various researchers pursuing the behavioural view of leadership eventually found that leader behaviours that worked well in one situation were often not as effective in another situation. This implies that different situations require different styles and that the effectiveness of a style depends upon the situation in which it was used (Owens, 1970). This realization led to emergence of theories that took into consideration important situational factors. These approaches are called situational/contingency theories because of their situational emphasis. They advocate that leaders understand their own behaviour, the behaviour of their subordinates, and the situation before utilizing a particular leadership style. They are also often called contingency theories of leadership because they hold that appropriate leadership traits or behaviours are contingent or dependent on relevant situational characteristic. There are potentially many situational factors that could influence the effectiveness of leaders, hence the evolution of several different situational approaches. Prominent among these situational approaches are Fielder's

Contingency Theory, the Vroom and Yetton (Normative leadership) model, Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, the Path-goal theory and the Leader – Member Exchange theory.

Feilder's Contingency Theory posits that leaders differ in the degrees of their orientation towards the task versus that toward the people (Bartol & Martin, 1994). These differences make leaders more effective in some types of situations than in others. According to this model, leader effectiveness depends on whether the person's natural leadership style is appropriately matched to the situation. In other words, leader effectiveness is determined by both the personal characteristics of leaders and by the situation in which leaders find themselves.

Bartol and Martin (1994), also describe the Vroom and Yetton (Normative leadership) model. They said it is a model that helps leaders assess critical situational factors that affect the extent to which they should involve subordinates in particular decisions. George and Jones (1996) added that it is a model that describes the different ways in which leaders can make decisions and guide leaders in determining the extent to which subordinates should participate in decision-making. The model seeks to select the amount of group decision-making participation needed in a variety of problem situations. The model suggests that the amount of subordinate participation depends on the leader's skills and knowledge, whether a quality decision is needed, the extent to which the problem is structured, and whether acceptance by subordinates is needed to implement the decision (George & Jones, 1996).

Another widely known contingency theory is the Situational leadership theory. This theory asserts that there is no one correct style of leadership with a single set of accompanying behaviours. A leader must, therefore, respond to the environmental stimulus with appropriate set of task and relationship behaviours based on followers' behaviour and environmental context. McShane and Von Glinow (2000) noted that the situational leadership theory as developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) states that, leadership should tell, sell, participate or delegate depending on the readiness of followers. By telling, the leader defines the roles needed to do the job and tells followers what, where, how and when to do the tasks. By selling the leader, provide followers with structured instructions, but is also supportive. Participating is about the leader and followers sharing in decisions about how best to complete a high-quality job. Delegating on the other hand, is about the leader providing little specific, closed direction or personal support to followers. That is telling-instructing and supervising; Selling − explaining and clarifying; Participating−sharing and facilitating and Delegating− coaching and assisting. Managers can choose from among these four styles to determine followers' readiness level.

The Hersey and Blanchard (1988) situational leadership theory was also noted by Bartol and Martin (1994), as a theory based on the premise that leaders need to alter their behaviours depending on one major situational factor – the readiness of followers. Readiness here refers to the employees' (followers') ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task or take responsibility for

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directing their own behaviour. Willingness here also refers to the employees' (followers') self-motivation and commitment to perform the assigned task.

The Path-goal theory according to George and Jones (1996), describes how leaders can motivate their followers to achieve group and organizational goals and the kind of behaviours leaders can engage in to motivate followers. Bartol and Martin (1994) say the Path-goal theory is a theory that attempts to explain how a leader's behaviour can positively influence the motivation and job satisfaction of subordinates.

The Leader-Member Exchange theory according to George and Jones (1996), describes the different kinds of relationship that may develop between a leader and a follower and what the leader and the follower give to and receive back from the relationship. This theory was developed against the background that leaders do not treat all of their subordinates in exactly the same way and may develop different types of relationship with different subordinates.

As a result of more researches being conducted into the concept leadership, new ideas and theories continue to emerge to expand the scope of knowledge in leadership that supplement the well-known traditional theories. Among the recent theories proposed by researchers on leadership are the Transformational leadership, Charismatic leadership and Transactional leadership.

McShane and Von Glinow (2000) described transformational leadership as a perspective that explains how leaders change teams or organizations by creating, communicating and modeling a vision for the organization or work unit and inspiring employees to strive for that vision. George and Jones (1996) added that

transformational leadership is leadership that inspires followers to trust the leader, perform behaviours that contribute to the achievement of organizational goals and perform at a high level. Yukle (1989) also described transformational leadership as the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of the organization's members and building commitment for the organization's mission or objectives. Transformational leadership is about leading– changing the organization's strategies and culture so that they have a better fit with surrounding environment.

Bartol and Martin (1994) therefore see transformational leaders as leaders who motivate individuals to perform beyond normal expectations by inspiring subordinates to focus on broader missions that transcends their own immediate self-interest, to concentrate on intrinsic higher-level goals rather than extrinsic lower-level goals and to have confidence in their abilities to achieve the extraordinary missions articulated by the leader. Transformational leaders according to Bateman and Snell (1999) are leaders who transform a vision into reality and motivate people to transcend their personal interest for the good of the group. Transformational leaders are agents of change who energize and direct employees to a new set of corporate values and behaviours. Without transformational leaders, organizations stagnate and eventually become seriously misaligned with their environments.

According to Bass (1998), transformational leadership occurs when a leader transforms or changes his or her followers in three important ways that together result in followers trusting the leader, performing behaviours that

contribute to achievement of organizational goals and being motivated to perform at high level. He went on to make the following observations about transformational leaders:

1. They increase subordinates awareness of the importance of their tasks and the importance of performing them well.

2. They make subordinates aware of their need for personal growth, development and accomplishment.

3. They motivate their subordinates to work for the good of the organization rather than exclusively for their own personal gain or benefit.

Within the several descriptions of transformational leadership are inherent some four important elements. These elements include creating a strategic vision, communicating the vision, modeling the vision and building commitment toward the vision.

Even though most researchers tend to agree that transformational leaders have charisma and are therefore charismatic leaders. McShane and Von Glinow (2000) noted that charismatic leadership differs from transformational leadership. Charisma is a leadership factor that comprises the leader's ability to inspire pride, faith and respect to recognize what is really important and to articulate effectively a sense of vision that inspires followers. Charisma is a form of interpersonal attraction whereby followers develop a respect for and trust in the charismatic individual. A charismatic leader has been described as a self-confident, enthusiastic leader, able to win followers' respect and support for his or her vision of how good things could be. A charismatic leader was described by Bateman and

Snell (1999) as a person who is dominant, self-confident, convinced of the moral righteousness of his or her beliefs and able to arouse a sense of excitement and adventure in subordinates. Charismatic leader has a vision of how good things will be in an organization, clearly communicate this vision to their followers and through their own excitement and enthusiasm induce their followers to enthusiastically support this vision.

Transformational leaders with the help of the charisma they possess are able to easily influence their followers to bring about changes in their organizations. It had been noted that charismatic leadership extends beyond behaviours to personal traits that provide referent power over followers, while transformational leadership is mainly about behaviours that people use to lead the change process.

Transactional leadership as explained by McShane and Von Glinow (2000) is that type of leadership that helps organizations achieve their current objectives more effectively by linking job performance to valued rewards and ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done.

On their parts George and Jones (1996) explain transactional leadership as the leadership that motivates followers by exchanging rewards for high performance and noticing and reprimanding subordinates for mistakes and substandard performance. Transactional leadership in the view of Wright and Noe (1996) is inspiring commitment to achieve objectives in exchange for something of value.

Bartol and Martin (1994) describe transactional leaders as leaders who motivate subordinates to perform at expected levels by helping them recognize task responsibilities, identifying goals, acquire confidence about meeting desired performance levels and understand how their needs and rewards that they desire are linked to goal achievement.

The concept of transactional leadership, as observed by Bateman and Snell (1999) views management as a series of business transactions in which leaders use their legitimate, reward and coercive powers to give commands and exchange rewards for services rendered. The contingency and behavioural theories described earlier adopt the transactional perspective because they focus on leader behaviours that improve employee performance and satisfaction.

It is very important to note that transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership. It is a supplemental form of leadership with an add-on effect, that is, performance beyond expectations. The logic is that even the most successful transformational leaders need transactional skills as well to manage effectively the day-to-day events that form the basis of the broader mission. This suggests that transformational leaders may also engage in transactional leadership (for example, by rewarding high performers with high salaries). Organizations thus need both transactional and transformational leaders. Transactional leadership improves organizational efficiency, whereas transformational leadership steers organizations on to better course of action.

Researches are still on-going on the concept of leadership especially on the new and modern theories that have come up. It is hoped that new findings may emerge in due course to widen the frontiers of knowledge on the concept.

Leadership styles

Leadership varies from one organization to another. It is therefore essential to point out that no two leaders administer and lead their organizations in the same way.

To this extent, leaders tend to adopt different styles to lead. Isherwood (1985: 209) describes leadership style simply as "the leader's preferred way of acting". Mullins (1993) describes leadership style as the way in which the functions of leadership are carried out, the way in which the manager typically behaves towards members of the group. Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1996), also stated that leadership styles are various patterns of behaviour exhibited by leaders during the process of directing and influencing workers. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), the leadership style of an individual is the behaviour pattern that a person exhibits while attempting to influence the activities of others. In other words, the conduct of a person in a leadership position geared towards the realization of organizational goals may be described as a person's leadership style (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1992).

Leadership style, therefore, describes the pattern of behaviour that a manager or a supervisor uses in relationship with others, particularly subordinates. It is about what leaders do rather than what they are. Since no one particular leadership style is appropriate and effective in each or all situations, many

different leadership styles have been identified and used over the years. All leaders are characterized by one style or the other.

Lewin and Lippitt (1938) of the University of Iowa conducted the earliest experimental studies on leadership styles. They attempted to scientifically identify the leader behaviours that are most effective. In the studies, they identified and concentrated on three leadership styles. These styles are Autocratic, Democratic and Laissez-fair.

The autocratic leadership involves a situation where the leader exercises authority over members of the group and claims to be the master of all things. He or she takes decisions alone with little regard for the views of subordinates. He or she always resists attempts to challenge his authority and controls the knowledge and task accomplishment of the group. His most effective technique for maintaining his position is by withholding information from the group regarding task accomplishment. Members of the group depend on him or her for goal achievement. This results in a situation where the absence of a leader often brings the organization's operations to the halt. Autocratic style thus, is the type in which leaders tend to make unilateral decisions, dictate work methods, limit worker knowledge about goals to just the next step to be performed and sometimes give feedback that is punitive.

The democratic leadership style involves the distribution of responsibilities among members of the organization rather than concentrating on the individual leader. The leader delegates responsibilities and ensures that the views of all subordinates are considered in decision making. There is free flow of

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communication and members of the organization are kept aware of the progress they make towards the goals set for the organization. Under the democratic leader, the organization tends to function effectively whether the leader is present or not. The democratic leadership style thus, is the one in which leaders tend to involve the group in decision making, let the group determine work methods, make overall goals known and use feedback as an opportunity for helpful coaching.

The Laissez-faire leadership style refers to the leadership situation where a leader who exercises little control over his or her subordinates and allows his staff to do things as they wish. Here, his or her members are made to solve their own problems as they could, often at the detriment of organizational task accomplishment. The Laissez-faire leadership style thus, is the type in which leaders generally give the group complete freedom, provide necessary materials, participate only to answer questions and avoid giving feedback.

Regarding job performance in connection with the leadership styles identified, later research produced mixed results. Democratic leadership sometimes produces higher performance than did autocratic leadership, but at other times produces performance that was lower than or merely equal to that under the autocratic style.

In addition to the three styles identified by Lewin and Lippitt (that is autocratic, democratic and laissez-fair), Owens, (1970) identified two other styles to make the number of leadership styles five. The two he added are Bureaucratic and Charismatic styles. According to him, the bureaucratic leadership style combines characteristics of autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles of

leadership whilst the Charismatic leadership style describes a leader who radically challenges established practices by going to the root of the matter. The leader who uses this style demands obedience on the basis of the mission he or she is called upon to fulfill in the organization.

Getzels and Guba, as cited in Halpin (1958) also developed another set of words considered more useful in describing leadership styles. They are Nomothetic, Idiographic and Transactional. In Nomothetic leadership, leaders concentrate on the organizational tasks alone, ignoring individual needs and regarding people as simply "units of production". In Idiographic leadership, leaders look after people's need and value friendly relationship more than productivity. In Transactional leadership, leaders balance people and productivity. It shows a compromise position where the leader sees to the needs and welfare of the people at the same time ensuring that organizational tasks and targets are not ignored.

Reddin (1970) on his part described eight (8) leadership styles. They include the Executive, Compromiser, Benevolent Autocrat, Autocrat, Developer, Missionary, Bureaucratic and Deserter. The Executive sees his job as getting the best out of others. He sets high standards for production and performance but recognizes that he would have to treat everyone a little differently. His commitment to both tasks and relationship is evident to all around him and this sets an example to all- this style gives a great deal of concern to both task and people. A manager using this style is a good motivator, sets high standards, recognizes individual differences and utilizes team management.

The compromiser was described as one who recognizes the advantages of being oriented to both task and relationship. That is, he gives a great deal of concern to both task and people in a situation that requires only emphasis on one or neither. He tries to minimize immediate problems rather maximize long term production. The compromiser is permissive and does not do anything well. This type of manager is a poor decision maker; the pressures affect him too much.

The benevolent autocrat gives maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to people. A manager using this style knows exactly what he or she wants and how to get it without causing any resentment. The benevolent autocrat's main skill is in getting other people to do what he wants them to do without creating undue resentment.

The autocratic gives maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to the people where such behaviour is inappropriate- he puts the immediate task before all other considerations. This manager pays no attention to relationships, has no confidence in others, is unpleasant and is interested only in the immediate job.

The developer gives maximum concern to people and minimum concern to tasks. He places implicit trust in people and sees his task as fundamentally concerned with developing the talents of others. His job function is seen by all as very pleasant because there are usually so much cooperation, commitment and output in his own and associated departments. He spends a lot of time with his subordinates and gives them as many responsibilities as he could.

The missionary gives maximum concern to people and minimum concern to the task where such behaviour is inappropriate. This manager is typically the "do gooder" who values harmony as an end in itself. The missionary is described as a kindly soul who places happy relationships above everything else.

The bureaucrat gives minimum concern to both task and people- he is not interested in either task or relationships. A manager using this style will, however, be effective because he will be mainly interested in and follows the managerial rules; and will wants to maintain and control the situation by using rules but is seen as conscientious. He/she will maintain an air of interest in the organization and gets less personally involved with personal problems of the employees.

The deserter gives maximum concern to task and people in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate. The deserter, like the bureaucrat demonstrates a lack of interests in both task and relationship. He is ineffective and hinders the performance of others. This manager is uninvolved and passive.

Reddin (1970) describes the deserter, missionary, autocrat and compromiser as less effective leaders. On the other hand, the bureaucrat, the developer, the benevolent autocrat and the executive styles were described as more effective.

McShane and von Glinow (2000), just like many other authors, have observed that the path-goal theory suggests that leaders motivate and satisfy employees in a particular situation by adopting one or more of four leadership styles described as follows; Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement-oriented.

In the directive leadership style, the leader clarifies performance goals, the means to reach those goals and the standards against which performance will be judged. It also includes judicious use of rewards and disciplinary actions. Directive leadership is the same as task-oriented leadership.

The Supportive leadership is friendly and approachable, makes the work more pleasant, treats employees with equal respect and shows concern for the status, need and well-being of employees. Supportive leadership is the same as people-oriented leadership.

Participative leadership encourages and facilities subordinate involvement in decisions beyond their normal work activities. The leader consults with employees, asks for their suggestions and takes these ideas into serious consideration before making a decision.

An achievement-oriented leader encourages employees to reach their peak performance. The leader sets challenging goals expects employees to perform at their highest level, continuously seeks improvement in employee performance and shows a high degree of confidence that employees will assume responsibility and accomplish challenging goals.

It is worth noting that path-goal theory contends that effective leaders are capable of selecting the most appropriate behavioural (or leadership) styles(s) for a particular situation. Leaders might also use more than one style at a time. For example, they might be supportive and participative in a specific situation.

Gender and Leadership Style

Given that women are assuming more and more leadership positions in organizations, it is important to understand whether and why women might somehow be different from men when it comes to styles. In other words, it will be appropriate to ask the question do women lead differently from men?

Since 1990, there has been this rapidly growing debate about whether successful women leaders behave in the same way as successful men leaders. Rosener (1990) in a study of 456 women business executives reports that women leaders behaved very differently and in fact used very different leadership style from male leaders in similar positions. The author found out that women used more democratic leadership style than men did. In addition, the author reported that men emphasized a command-and-control which involves rational decision-making, relishing personal power, giving orders, appealing to the self interest of followers, whereas women tended to work more interactively by sharing information and power, enhancing other people's worth, sensitivity to feeling of others, promoting empowerment of followers, motivating people by appeals to organizational ideas and a shared vision of the future.

Eagly, Karau and Johnson (1990) also presented a meta-analysis of 50 studies that compared the leadership style of principals of public schools and found some evidence for differences between the sexes. For example, the largest evidence for sex difference was realized in the tendency of using a democratic or autocratic leadership style. It was found out that female principals adopted a more democratic or participative style than the male principals. Again, Gray and Shein

(as cited in Asamoah, 1996) presented a study, which showed that, women in leadership positions were more democratic and willing to share while male executives were more autocratic and directive.

Helgensin (1990) also observed that the behaviour of women was not only different from that of men, but more effective as well. She argued that men tended to think in linear fashion, leaned towards hierarchical organization, emphasized logic, sought power for themselves, were uncomfortable with ambiguity and were goal oriented, whereas women tend to think in more global connections rather than straight lines, emphasized human interaction process rather than hierarchy, had no great interest in personal power, were easily able to tolerate ambiguity and were process oriented. These she believed were marked differences in thinking and organization behaviour between men and women.

According to McShane and Von Glinow (2000), several writers argue that women have an interactive style that includes more people-oriented participative leadership. They suggest that women are more relationship oriented, cooperative, nurturing and emotional in their leadership roles. There is also this sex role stereotype that men tend to be more task oriented whereas women are people oriented.

Leadership studies have generally found that male and female leaders do not differ in the level of task-oriented leadership. The main explanation why men and women do not differ in this style is that real-world jobs require similar behaviour from male and female job incumbents. Scholars have explained that women are possibly more participative because of their up-bringing has made

them more egalitarian and less status oriented. They have also identified the fact that, there is also some evidence that women have somewhat better interpersonal skills than men, and this translates into their relatively greater use of the participative leadership style.

Gilligan (1982), also conducted a study which has widely influenced the subsequent development of women's psychology and the contemporary feminist perspective on organizational behaviour. As part of her study, Gilligan (1982) tested two 11-year-old kids – a boy and a girl with the well-known Heinz dilemma, one of the moral dilemma that psychologists commonly use, to reveal how people think and reason. From the study, Gilligan (1982) concluded that males and females tend to view and think about the world in different ways that there are psychological differences related to gender, that there is a psychology of women. The important inference is, of course, that gender is the most influential factor in determining one's view of the world and how one responds what is perceived. This view, however, contrasts sharply with, and seeks to compete with, the more widely accepted idea that one's behaviour is basically influenced by one's temperament.

According to Logan (as cited in Acheampong, 1990), women traditionally have been stereotyped as more people-oriented and collaborative. This according to him is a management style of a democratic leader which depends on inter-personal democratic approach and shared decision-making in discharging her administrative duties.

George and Jones (1996), also noted that one common stereotype in organization is that women are supportive, nurturing and generally good at managing interpersonal relations. The male counterpart, to the stereotype of the relationship-oriented women, is the notion that men are directive and focus on getting the job done, in other words, that men tend to be task-oriented. Judging from these stereotypes, one might expect that gender would have an effect on leadership, for example that female leaders engage in more consideration behaviours than men do and male leaders engage in more initiating structure behaviours than women do.

But research conducted on this issue suggests that when men and women have leadership positions in organizations, they tend to behave in a similar manner. Men do not engage in more initiating structure nor do engage in more consideration. One difference, however, did emerge in the ways that men and women lead their subordinates. That is, women tended to lead in a more democratic style, and men tended to lead in a more autocratic style. George and Jones (1996) further put forward some two reasons why women tend to be more democratic than men in organizations.

Firstly, they said that women's interpersonal skills (expertise in interacting with and relating to other people) tend to be better than men's. In order to be democratic or participative, a leader needs to have good interpersonal skills. Women, therefore, may be more democratic as leaders than men simply because they are more skilled interpersonally. Secondly, women in leadership positions encounter more resistance from subordinates than men do in leadership positions.

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Gender stereotypes may lead members of an organization to readily accept men in leadership positions but resist women taking on these same roles.

Other evidence also exists to show that it is not always the case that women are found to be more democratic in their leadership style than men. For example, Asamoah (1996) and Acheampong (1999) conducted two separate studies on "Women and Educational Leadership in the Volta Region' and "Women Management of Educational Institutions in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana" respectively. The findings of these studies indicate that women in leadership positions tend to be arrogant and bossy over their subordinates. They do not cooperate with subordinates   as the male heads do. They are also not as approachable and accommodating as their male counterparts. Asamoah (1996) explains that women heads are suspicious of men and are always looking over their shoulders to see whether they are being considered weak or not. This definitely makes them defensive and repulsive to the male dominated world, and sometimes become arrogant and bossy leaders. He concluded that in their bid to prove their toughness against common allegation of weakness and maladministration, women may over-react and become bossy and arrogant.

As a result of this experience, some people prefer to work under male leaders rather than female leaders. They tend to express some kind of comfort and confidence in male leadership than in female leadership. For example, Gullup (as cited in Acheampong, 1999), noted that many people, given the chance will express a preference for a male boss. Sutton and More as cited in Acheampong (1999) also made the observation that although the glass ceiling may be cracking

whereby more women are now being involved in many leadership positions and roles, some skepticism about women's ability to lead remains especially among male executives.

The question then arises as to what could be the underlying reasons why some people tend to prefer a male or female leadership. In the studies conducted by Asamoah (1996) and Acheampong (1999), the respondents were asked to give reasons for their preference for male or female school head. The following were captured as some of the reasons offered by respondents to back their preferences.

In Asamoah (1996), the respondents who preferred male heads stated among others that male heads were more accommodating, flexible, and sympathetic, and interacted easily with their subordinates.

Asamoah (1996) and Acheampong (1999) continued that male heads were physically stronger and therefore were more hardworking and supervised work more effectively than their female counterparts. Those who dwelt on the negative attitude of female heads were too bossy and arrogant. According to them, female heads were too vindictive and would hold on for far too long a small misunderstanding between them and others. They claimed most female heads were influenced by envy and petty jealousies in the handling of their subordinates. However, some respondents also perceive female heads to be very duty conscious and more liberal than their male counterparts. They were also seen to be good managers of the school's finances and generally morally upright than male heads-behaviours which endeared them (the respondent) to female leadership.

The findings from Acheampong (1999), also indicated the following reasons adduced by the respondent to back their preference for a male or female head. They noted among others that male heads were very co-operative and accommodating, hardworking, disciplined, frank and innovative. They also said male heads usually had the flair for administrative work and were prompt in decision-making. Among the main reasons given by respondents in showing preference for a female head were that they were financially accountable and very careful in the discharge of their duties. "They were also said to be responsive to the needs of their subordinates and were also careful in taking administrative decisions.

Undoubtedly, the issue of understanding the role of gender in leadership emerged as a hot topic by the 1990s and will continue to be so in the future. Feminist scholarship has already contributed richly to a better understanding of the different ways that men and women approach leading.

Summary

Leadership is an age-old concept, which up till now defies a universally accepted definition. However, it is basically seen as the process of influencing the behaviour of a group towards the achievement of set goals. Every leader needs some measure of power, in any form to be able to lead successfully, for example reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, expert power and information power. Many different theories have been propounded over the years to give some meaning to the concept of leadership (for example, the trait, behaviour, situational, transformational, transactional and charismatic theories).

Some interesting studies have also been conducted into the leadership style associated with male and female leaders; which include the autocratic and democratic leadership styles.

Studies conducted by some researchers reveal that women leaders tend to be more democratic in their leadership styles than their male counterparts. They are seen to offer very interactive, people-oriented and participative leadership. However, some other studies especially those conducted in Ghana indicate that female leaders are arrogant, bossy and directive creating perceived autocratic conditions around them. In the light of this, many subordinates prefer to work under male heads rather than female heads.

The next chapter describes the research methodology that was used in collecting data for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology used for the study. It discusses issues such as the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure and the instrument used in collecting data for the study. It also comprises a presentation of the pretest of the research instrument and the data analysis procedure.

Research Design

The research design that was used for this study was descriptive survey. Descriptive survey is a research design which involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses and answer questions concerning the current status of the subjects of study. It interprets, synthesizes and integrates data collected and points to implications as well as inter-relationship (Osuala, 1991). Descriptive survey identifies present conditions and describes a situation as it currently exists. In other words, it determines and reports the way things are (Gay, 1992). Descriptive survey thus deals basically with collecting data on variables, interpreting the relationship among variables and describing their relationships as they are.

The use of descriptive survey usually comes along with some few difficulties such as, getting respondents to answer questions thoughtfully and honestly and ensuring that a sufficient number of the questionnaires are completed and returned so that meaningful analysis could be made.

The choice of this design for the study was, however, influenced by the knowledge of the fact that, it is one of the convenient and widely used educational

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research designs that could easily help in properly assessing the issue being studied, for appropriate conclusions and generalizations to be made. The study also considered the fact that due to the large population size involved, the use of descriptive survey would enable the study to present and discuss conditions that prevailed on the field as accurately as they exist. Descriptive survey, it was believed, would again help in providing the relevant data for the study of such human attitudes and behaviours as the leadership style of male and female school heads, which this study sought to investigate.

Population

The population of a study according to Polit and Hungler (1996), is the entire aggregation of cases that meet the designated set of criteria. It comprises the entire aggregation of elements in which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions.

In studies of this nature, the target population as well as accessible population need to be clearly identified. A target population is the aggregate of cases about which the researcher would like to make generalizations while the accessible population according to Ary, Jacobs and Razaviah (1985), is the group from which the researcher takes the sample for a study.

The target population of this study was made up of all the teachers of public basic schools within the Kumasi Metropolis. The accessible population comprise of all the teachers of eight public basic schools in the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate of the Ashanti Region. The eight schools were selected in order to have an equal number of schools that have male

and female heads in the Suame Circuit. The total population of teachers in the circuit numbered 319.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a subset of the population. It comprises some members selected from the population. In other words, a sample refers to some but not all elements of the population. The object of the study was to conduct an in-depth study into the research problem on limited scale.

Since it was costly, time consuming and impracticable to study the whole population within the limited time and resources at the disposal of the researcher (Gomm, 2004, Best & Khan, 1989), a sample was selected from the target population. In selecting the main sample for the study, attempt was made to ensure that the sample was a representative of the total sampling population, mirrored the characteristics of the population and was large enough to inspire confidence in results (Gomm, 2004). As stated earlier, the teachers in Suame Circuit which numbered 319 (Ghana Education Service, 2004) therefore constituted the sample frame of the study. The population was stratified into male and female heads. The male heads numbered 136 and the female heads numbered 183 (Ghana Education Service, 2004) constituting 43 and 57 percent respectively.

An ideal sample is one that provides a perfect representation of a population, with all the relevant features of the population included in the sample proportions (Blackie, 2003). Since, this is seldomly achieved: stratified random sampling procedure was used as the population was hetrogeneous. The simple random sampling was then used in selecting the respondents for the study. Out of

the total population enumerated above, 120 were selected for the study which comprised of 52 males and 68 females representing 43 and 57 percent respectively. There was much likelihood that random selection would provide a representative sample (Kerlinger, 1986).

Research Instrument

Questionnaire was the main instrument that was used to collect data for this study. A questionnaire is a written or printed list of questions to be answered by a number of people for the purpose of collecting statistical data for study as part of a survey (Hornby, 1989). Kerlinger (1973) observed that the questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational research because it is very effective for securing factual information about practices and conditions and for enquiring into the opinions and attitudes of the subjects.

The questionnaire for this study comprised of open-ended and close-ended items. In the case of the open ended items, respondents were required to use their own words to express their views or opinions on issues raised in the questions while for the close ended items, respondents were provided with options from which they were to select appropriate responds to the items.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections. Section A asked respondents to provide their bio-data, such as age, gender, highest professional qualification and number of years spent in their schools among others. Section B related to the perception of the leadership style of the circuit supervisor on a Likert type scale in descending order of 4,3,2,1 where: 4 - Strongly agree, 3 –

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Agree, 2 – Disagree, 1 – Strongly disagree. In all 14 questions were asked under section B.

Section C of the questionnaire comprised of 15 items that sought to find out the perception of the leadership styles of male and female heads in general. Under Section D, 10 items were formulated to solicit views on lessons that female heads could learn from their male counterparts. Section E also related to questions that male heads could learn from their female counterparts and there were 10 items. Answers to these questions were provided on the Likert type scale in descending order of 4,3,2,1 as above. There were four major open-ended questions and sub-questions for respondents to indicate their preference for working under male/female heads. The respondents were also given the opportunity to provide suggestions for improving the leadership styles of male/female heads of institutions.

The use of questionnaire as research instrument has some limitations. For example, it does not offer motivation to respondents to participate in the survey. It also does not provide an opportunity to collect additional information through observation, probing, prompting and clarification of questions while they are being completed.

However, among the many reasons that informed the choice of the use of questionnaire for this study was that, the questionnaire afforded the respondents the chance to provide the necessary information for the study at their own convenience and in their own privacy. It also afforded them greater assurance of anonymity to enable them feel very free to provide the much needed data,

especially those bothering on their school heads. The use of questionnaire also made it possible for a large number of respondents to be covered at the same time. This did not only save a lot of time but also made it possible for all the respondents to answer the same questions which were uniform and consistent.

Pilot Study

To ensure the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted. Teachers of St. Joseph's R/C Junior High School, numbering twenty-five were chosen for the pilot study as they had the same characteristics as the studied population. The pilot study helped the researcher to revise and edit the questionnaire for use in the main study to make more specific and effective in eliciting the needed responses. It also helped to check and try the planned statistical procedures and to test the reliability of the questionnaire. The corrected questionnaires were later used to solicit responses from the respondents after they had been approved by the researcher's supervisor for the face and content validity. The result of the pilot study is presented in table 1.

Table 1: Pilot Study: Categories of Respondents

Category	Number	Percentage
Male	15	60
Female	10	40
Total	25	100

Source: Field data, 2009

Administration of Research Instrument

The instruments for the data collection were administered personally by the researcher at the various schools. At each school, the participants were briefed on the objectives of the study and assured of their confidentiality before giving them the questionnaire to complete. In addition, one teacher who was not a participant of the study was selected to assist in retrieving the completed questionnaire from the participants. The participants took four weeks to complete the questionnaire. All the twenty five people that were selected for the pilot study all returned their completed questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The data collected were processed and analyzed using the statistical package for service and solutions (SPSS Version 11.5) software. First, the completed questionnaires were edited for consistency. For the open-ended items, a short list grouped into general themes was prepared from the master list of responses in order to get the key responses that were provided by the respondents (Mason, 1994). The whole set of data were then coded and the coding pre-tested before data entry using SPSS software. The SPSS software was used because it was considered as one of the most effective methods of summarizing and analyzing data from questionnaire and experiment.

The next chapter analyses and discusses the data that were collected for the study

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative and the qualitative analysis of the data collected for the study. It contains the presentation, analysis and discussion of the responses (data) obtained from the respondents who were involved in the study. It specifically presents analysis and discusses the biographic data of the respondents, as well as the research findings of the entire study.

Personal Characteristics of Respondents

Part I of the questionnaire used for the study collected the biographic data on all the respondents. Data were gathered on the name as well as the District and its Director of Education, respondents' gender, age, highest professional qualification and the number of years spent in the Circuit.

The District under discussion is the Kumasi Metropolitan Directorate of Education of the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S). The District was being headed by a woman (female) at the time of data collection.

Table 2 shows a distribution of the category of respondents involved in the study.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Sex	Number of Respondents	Percentage of People Interviewed
Male	51	42.5
Female	69	57.5
Total	120	100

Source: Field data, 2009.

It could be deduced from Table 2 that, female teachers dominated their male counterparts in the Suame Circuit. This may not auger well for the Circuit's development as the tendency for maternity leave and excuse duty may be high. Table 3, presents the distribution of teachers by their age

Table 3: Distribution of Teachers by their Age

Age of people Interviewed	Number of People Interviewed	Percentage of People Interviewed
20 – 29	15	12.50
30 – 39	54	45.00
40 – 49	35	29.17
50-59	16	13.33
Total	120	100.00

Source: Field data, 2009.

Table 3 indicates that the ages of teachers in the study range from twenty to fifty- nine years. The largest number being fifty-four representing 45% fell

within the 30 and 39 year group. A smaller number of teachers constituting a total

of 15 representing 12.5% could be found within the 20 and 29 years age bracket.

Table 4 presents the distribution of teachers by qualification.

Table 4: Distribution of Teachers by Qualification

Qualification	Number	Percentage
1ST Degree	25	20.8
Diploma	39	32.5
Post Graduate Diploma in Education	0	0
Specialist	5	4.2
Cert A 4yr	10	8.3
Cert A Postsec	41	34.2
Others	0	0
Total	120	100

Source: Field data, 2009

In Table 4, the predominant qualification of teachers within the Suame

Circuit was Cert 'A' Post-secondary (41) accounting for 34.2% of the total

number of respondents (teachers). The Circuit was also equally endowed with

quite a significant number of Diplomats who constituted about 32.5% (39

teachers). There were 25 (20.8%) 1st Degree Holders in the Circuit whilst there

were few Cert A 4yr and Specialist teachers working in the Circuit – 10 (8.3%)

and 5 (4.2%) respectively.

Table 5 presents the distribution of teachers by the number of years spent in the Suame Circuit.

Table 5: Distribution of Teachers by the Number of Years Spent in the Circuit

Number of Years	Number of Teachers	Percentage
2 – 4	35	29.17
5 – 7	40	33.33
8 – 10	25	20.83
11 – 13	17	14.17
14 – 16	3	2.5

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 5 shows the distribution of teachers by the number of years spent in present Circuit and indicates that teachers in the study had stayed in the Circuit for between 2 years and 16 years. Forty (40) respondents representing 33.33% of the total teacher respondents had stayed in the Circuit for between 5 years and 7years, whiles 35 representing 29.17% had stayed in the Circuit between 2 years and 4years. The remaining 45 teachers had been in the Circuit for 8 years to 16 years. The table indicates that at least every teacher had taught for two or more years in the circuit. This implies that the teachers may have some exposure to the leadership style of one or more heads of their schools, about whom they can share their opinion.

Table 6 presents the perception of the leadership styles of male heads.

Table 6: Teachers' Perception of the Leadership Styles of Male Heads

Item	SA	A	SD	D
1. Male heads are usually more autocratic than females.	15	20	35	50
2. male heads are more task-orientated	15	25	45	35
3. Male heads are able to maintain discipline better than their female counterparts.	20	30	40	30
4. Male heads are more democratic than their female counterparts.	45	30	25	20
5. Male heads are often not concerned about the welfare of their subordinates as their females do.	20	30	35	35
6. Male heads usually tend to have laissez-faire attitude as compared to the female heads.	45	35	20	20
7. The style of balancing personal needs with organizational demands within a given situation is notable among male heads rather than female heads,	35	35	30	20
8. Male heads are able to promote job satisfaction among workers than female heads.	30	40	20	30
9. Male heads are able to motivate subordinates to work more than female heads.	15	30	30	45
10. Male heads are often insensitive to the plight of their subordinates more than the female heads.	15	20	45	40

Table 6 Cont.

11. The male heads often tend to delegate authority more than their male counterparts.	25	30	35	30
12. Male heads involve their subordinates in the decision-making process.	45	40	20	15
13. There is free flow of information in the female headed organisation.	10	20	45	45
14. Male heads tend to respect competence and intelligence of their subordinates.	50	40	15	15

Source: field data, 2009.

To make the analysis of Table 6 easier and comprehensible, like items were grouped together under the following subheadings:

1. Teachers perception of their heads' on the three dominant leadership styles.

2. Teachers' perception about female heads' attitude towards maintenance of discipline, delegation of authority etc.

3. Teachers perception about male head attitude towards them.

4. Teachers perception about the female head attitude towards work.

The responses are presented in Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10 respectively.

Table 7: Teachers' Perception of the Male Head on the Three Dominant Leadership Styles

Leadership Style	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
1. Autocratic	17	14.16	20	16.67	32	26.67	51	42.5	120	100
2. Democratic	46	38.3	30	25.0	26	21.7	18	15.0	120	100
3. Laissez-faire	40	33.3	21	17.5	21	17.5	30	25.0	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 7 deals with the three most dominant leadership styles. On autocratic leadership, 37 respondents representing 30.83% strongly agreed and agreed that male heads were autocratic, 83 representing 68.87% strongly disagreed and disargreed with the assertion that male heads were autocratic. It could therefore be deduced that male heads are not autocratic.

On Democratic leadership, 76 teachers representing 63.3% agreed that male heads were democratic, whiles 44 respondents representing 36.7% disagreed on the notion that they were democratic. It could therefore be deduced that male heads are democratic.

On whether male heads exhibit laissez-faire tendencies, the results were as follows 61 teachers, representing 50.8% agreed to the assertion, 51 also representing 42.5% disagreed.

**Table 8: Teachers' Perception of Male Heads Attitude towards Maintenance
of Discipline, Delegation of Authority etc**

Item	SA		A		D		SD		TOTAL	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
3.Maintenance of discipline	22	18.33	28	23.33	39	32.51	31	25.83	120	100
11. Delegation of authority	26	21.7	28	23.33	34	28.3	32	26.7	120	100
12. Decision-making	44	36.7	38	31.7	22	18.3	16	13.3	120	100
13. free flow of information	12	10	20	16.67	45	37.5	43	35.83	120	100

Source: Field data, 2009.

Table 8 gives the ratings of the male heads on some key elements of a school administration. On the maintenance of discipline, 50 teachers agreed that male heads were able to maintain discipline in their school representing 41.66%. However, 70 representing 58.34% disagreed with the statement. From the above figures, maintenance of discipline in a school under a male head might not be all that strong.

On delegation of authority, the results indicated that 28 respondents strongly agreed with a percentage rating of 21.7% whiles 28 with a 23.3% rating also agreed that male heads delegated authority. On the other hand, 34 teachers, representing 28.3% disagreed with the statement whereas 32, totaling 26.7% strongly disagreed to the statement. With a total number of 66 disagreeing; one is

tempted to say that delegation of authority to subordinates by the male heads in the Suame Circuit were not all that strong and might not augur well for the smooth running of the institution. On decision-making another key component of the school process, the results showed that 44 respondents representing 36.7% strongly agreed that male heads involve their subordinates in the decision-making process. Another 38 representing 31.7% indicated that teachers were involved in the decision-making process. On the contrary, 22 representing 18.3% disagreed whilst 16 teachers representing 13.3% strongly disagreed. One can conveniently say that teachers are involved in the decision-making process in a male headed institution, as many as 82 (44+38) confirmed it. On whether information freely flew in male headed schools, it realized that 12 teachers representing 10% strongly agreed. Twenty (20) teachers, representing 16.67% agreed that information flew in a male school. Forty-five (45) teachers representing 37.5% disagreed and another 43 representing 35.83% strongly disagreed. What this therefore means is that information does not freely flow in a male headed school. Teachers were unaware of what goes on in the schools headed by males in the Suame Circuit.

Table 9: Teachers' Perception of Male Heads Attitude towards them

Item	SA		A		D		SD		TOTAL	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
1. Unconcerned about subordinates welfare	23	19.2	29	24.2	32	26.6	36	30	120	100
2. Motivation of subordinates	16	13.3	29	15.83	31	25.8	44	36.7	120	100
3. Insensitive to subordinates plight	15	12.5	19	15.8	45	37.5	41	34.2	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 9 presents teachers' views on how their heads treat them at the work place. About their welfare, 23 teachers representing 19.2% strongly agreed that their male heads showed concern about their welfare. 29 representing 24.2% also agreed to the assertion. However, 32 teachers representing 26.6% disagreed whilst 36 representing 30% strongly disagreed with the statement. It therefore presupposes that though male heads showed some concern however there were still much to be desired.

On motivation, another key element of success, the results obtained indicated that 16 respondents representing13.3% said they were strongly motivated, 29 teachers making 24.2% agreed that they were motivated while 31 teachers representing 25.8% disagreed and as many as 44 teachers representing 36.7% strongly disagreed. What this means is that teachers were demotivated in a male headed school and the end results would be apathy and low performance. Again on whether male heads are often insensitive to the plight of subordinates, the results showed that 15 teachers representing 12.5% strongly agreed, 19

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(15.8%) agreed whiles 45 representing 37.5 % disagreed with another 41 representing 34.2% strongly disagreeing. From the above scenario, though teachers might not be motivated in a male headed school, yet, the male head might not after all be demonic as teachers have confirmed that they were sensitive to their plight.

Table 10: Teachers' Perception about the Male Heads Attitude towards Work

Item	SA		A		D		SD		TOTAL	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
2. Are more task-oriented	19	15.8	26	21.7	41	34.2	34	28.3	120	100
7. Ability to balance personal needs with organizational demands	53	29.2	38	31.6	29	24.2	18	15.0	120	100
8. Ability to promote job satisfaction	28	23.3	42	35.0	23	19.2	27	22.5	120	100
10. Respect competence and intelligence of subordinates	50	41.7	39	32.5	16	13.3	15	12.5	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 10 takes a look at teachers' perception about the male heads' attitude towards work. On whether male heads were more task-oriented than the female, the results indicated that 19 respondents representing 15.8% strongly agreed whilst 26, representing 21.7% agreed. Similarly, 41 teachers, representing 34.2% disagreed and another 34 respondents, making 28.3% strongly disagreeing. Combining the total number of respondents against the notion (41+24 = 75) it is

evident that male heads were not more task-oriented. Again, on whether male heads had the ability to balance personal needs with organizational demand, the results showed that 35 respondents, representing 29.2% strongly agreed, 38 (31.6%) agreed whereas 29 teachers representing 24.2% disagreed whilst 18 teachers also representing15% strongly disagreed. From the respondents' view point, the male heads were capable of balancing personal needs with organizational demands. Similarly, on the male heads' ability to promote job satisfaction, 28 respondents making 23.3% strongly agreed whilst 42 teachers representing 35% also agreed. Conversely, 23 respondents, representing 19.2% and another 27 representing 22.5% strongly disagreed. Again, a critical look at the results revealed the acceptance of respondents on the notion as many of the respondents (28+42 = 70) either strongly agreed or agreed. Last but not least, on whether male heads respected competence and intelligence of subordinates, as many as 50 teachers representing 41.7% strongly agreed whereas 39 representing 32.5% also agreed. On the other hand, 16 and 15 representing 13.3% and 12.5% respectively also disagreed and strong disagreed. This suggests that male heads respected the competence and intelligence levels of their subordinates and encourages them to use them for the betterment of their institutions.

Table 11: Teachers' Perception of the Leadership Styles of Female Heads

Item	SA	A	D	SD
Female heads are usually more autocratic than males	60	25	15	20
Female heads are more task-orientated	55	35	15	15
Female heads are able to maintain discipline better than their male counterparts	40	45	23	12
Female heads are more democratic than their male counterparts.	25	20	45	30
Female heads are often not concerned about the welfare of their subordinates as their males do.	25	30	35	25
Female heads usually tend to have laissez-faire attitude as compared to the male heads.	20	30	30	40
The style of balancing personal needs with organizational demands within a given situation is notable among female heads rather than male heads.	25	30	30	35
Female heads are able to promote job satisfaction among workers than male heads.	35	25	40	20
Female heads are able to motivate subordinates to work more than male heads.	40	35	20	25
Female heads are often insensitive to the plight of their subordinates more than the male heads.	35	35	30	20
The female heads often tend to delegate authority more than their male counterparts.	40	35	25	20
Female heads involve their subordinates in the decision-making process.	30	35	35	20
There is free flow of information in the female headed organisation.	50	40	20	10
Female heads tend to respect competence and intelligence of their subordinates.	40	45	20	15

Source: field data, 2009.

Again to make the analysis of Table 11 easier and comprehensible, the same procedure as adopted for the analysis of Table 6 – 9 was employed by grouping like items under the following sub-headings:

1. Teachers perception of their heads on the three dominant leadership styles.

2. Teachers' perception about male heads attitude towards maintenance of discipline, delegation of authority etc.

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3.   Teachers' perception about male heads attitude towards them.

4.   Teachers' perception about the male heads attitude towards work.

The responses are presented in Tables 12, 13, 14 and 15 respectively.

Table 12: Teachers' Perception of the Female Head on the Three Dominant Leadership Styles

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
Autocratic	43	35.8	28	23.3	29	24.2	20	16.7	120	100
Democratic	28	23.3	31	25.8	32	26.7	39	24.2	120	100
Laissez-faire	20	16.7	24	20.0	36	30.0	40	33.3	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

From Table 12, teachers' perceived the female heads to be autocratic. Forty-three respondents, representing 35.8% strongly agreed whiles 28 teachers making 23.3% also agreed. Twenty nine teachers representing 24.2% however, disagreed whereas another 20 representing 16.7% also strongly disagreed. On whether the female heads were democratic, 28 respondents representing 23.3% strongly agreed whereas 31 making 25.8% also agreed. On the other hand, 32 respondents representing 26.7% disagreed with the notion whilst 29 teachers representing 24.2% strongly disagreed. Here again, there was a slight difference in those who disagreed as against those who agreed. This might confirm the earlier assertion that they were autocratic. Again, on whether female heads exhibited laissez-faire attitude towards work, the results indicated that only 20 teachers strongly agreed and another 24 agreed giving a total percentage of 36.7% (16.7+20.0) respectively.

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However, 36 respondents representing 30% disagreed while 40 representing 33.3% strongly disagreed. This means that the female heads did not joke with their work even though they were autocratic.

Table 13: Teachers' Perception of Female Heads Attitude towards Maintenance of Discipline, Delegation of Authority, etc

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Totals	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
Able to maintain discipline	42	35.0	43	35.8	23	19.2	12	10.0	120	100
Delegation of authority	40	33.3	35	29.2	25	20.8	20	16.7	120	100
Involve subordinates in decision-making	17	14.2	36	30.0	33	27.5	31	25.8	120	100
Allows free flow of information	44	34.2	32	26.7	23	19.2	21	17.5	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Discipline is a key ingredient to the success of any organization. The results in Table 13indicated that the female heads were able to maintain discipline in their schools. For example, out of the 120 teachers sampled, 42 representing 35.0% strongly agreed to the assertion whilst another 43 representing 35.8% also agreed. Thus, in all, about 70% of the respondents were in favour of the assertion as against about 30% who were not in favour. Again, the study sought to determine whether female heads involved their teachers in the day to day tasks of

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the school by delegating some of their duties. The results indicated that 40
teachers representing 33.3% strongly said their female heads delegated authority
to them whilst another 35, representing 29.2% agreed. Twenty-five (25) teachers
representing 20.8% disagreed and another 20 making 16.7% disagreed strongly.
Similarly, Teachers views were sort on whether the female heads involved them
in the decision making process. Indications from the responses revealed that only
17 teachers representing 14.2% were strongly in favour and another 36
representing 30% agreed. Thirty-three (33) and 31 teachers, representing 27.5%
and 25.8% respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed. This confirms the
earlier assertion that they were autocratic.

Table 14: Teachers Perception of Female Heads Attitude towards Them

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Totals	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
They are concerned about their subordinates welfare	30	25.0	34	28.3	35	29.2	21	17.5	120	100
Have ability to motivate subordinates	40	33.3	35	29.2	21	17.5	24	20.0	120	100
Are insensitive to the plight of their subordinates	35	29.2	38	31.6	27	22.5	20	16.7	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 14 also takes a critical look at teachers' perception of the female
heads' attitudes towards teachers' welfare. The results demonstrated that 30
respondents representing 25.0% strongly agreed that their female heads show

concern about their welfare with another 34 representing 28.3% agreeing with the statement. Thirty-five (35) teachers making 29.2% as well as 21 representing 17.5% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. On motivation, the results showed clearly that the female heads motivated their subordinates, as many as 75 teachers representing about 62.5% testified to this. Forty-five (45) respondents resenting 37.5% however disagreed. Again, on whether female heads were often insensitive to the plight of their subordinates, the answers showed that 35 teachers representing 29.2% strongly agreed, another 38 representing 31.6% agreed whilst 27 teachers resenting 22.5% disagreed with another 20 representing 16.7% strongly disagreed. Though the female head might be autocratic, yet, they saw to the welfare needs of their subordinates

Table 15: Teachers Perception about Female Heads Attitude towards Work

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Totals	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
Female head are more task-oriented	55	45.83	31	25.83	19	15.83	15	12.51	120	100
Ability to balance personal seeds with organizational demand	20	16.7	24	20.0	36	30.0	40	33.3	120	100
Ability to promote job satisfaction	37	30.8	23	19.2	40	33.3	20	16.7	120	100
Respect competence and intelligence of subordinates	40	33.3	45	37.5	20	16.7	15	12.5	120	100

Source: Field data, 2009.

Table 15 also takes a critical look at teachers' perception about the female heads' attitude towards work. As to whether the female heads were more task-

oriented than the male head, this revealed that 55 teachers representing 45.83% strongly agreed to suggestion whereas another 31 respondents making 25.83% also agreed. Nineteen (19) teachers 15.83% however disagreed with another 15 representing 12.51 % strongly disagreed. One can therefore, based on this outcome conveniently conclude that the female heads were very much task-oriented. On whether the female heads had the ability to balance personal needs with organizational demands, it was realized that 25 teachers, representing 20.83% strongly agreed whilst another 30 representing 25.0% agreed. On the other hand, 32 respondents giving a percentage total of 26.66% disagreed with an equally 33 teachers representing 27.51% strongly disagreeing. Though the margin between those for and against might not all that be great, there is still the need for the female heads to learn how to balance personal needs with organizational demands. Again, on whether the female head had the ability to promote job satisfaction, 37 respondents representing 30.8% were strongly in favour whilst another 23 making 19.2% agreed. However, 40 representing 33.3% disagreed whereas another 20 teachers representing 16.7% also strongly agreed. It was a 50-50 game as the numbers for and against were equal (37+23) and (40+20). Teachers' views were also sought on whether the female heads respected their competence and intelligence. Forty (40) teachers representing 34.2% strongly agreed with another 45 (37.5) agreeing to the statement. Nineteen (19) teachers, making 15.8% however, disagreed and 15 of the respondents representing 12.5% strongly disagreed. It can be deduced that the female heads had some regards for the competence and intelligence levels of their subordinates.

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Table 16: Lessons that Female Heads can learn from their Male Counterparts

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Totals	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
They should learn to be more friendly	45	37.5	35	29.2	16	13.3	24	20.0	120	100
They should be more flexible	40	33.3	60	50.0	12	10.0	8	6.7	120	100
They should be more concerned about subordinates Welfare	30	25.0	56	46.7	18	15.0	16	13.3	120	100
They should not be too task-oriented	23	19.2	34	28.3	46	38.3	17	14.2	120	100
They must learn to satisfy subordinates needs	30	25.0	55	45.8	24	20.0	11	9.2	120	100
They must learn to be fair and firm	33	27.5	57	47.5	20	16.7	10	8.3	120	100
They must learn to instill discipline	32	26.7	59	49.1	18	15.0	11	9.2	120	100
They must learn to be prudent in their financial management	38	31.7	60	50.0	12	10.0	10	8.3	120	100

Source: Field data, 2009.

From Table 16, 80 respondents, representing a total percentage of 66.7 that female heads should learn to be more friendly whiles 40 with a total percentage of 33.3 were in disagreement with the statement. Female heads were therefore to learn from their male counterparts how to be friendly with their subordinates. On flexibility, the results showed that 40 teachers representing 33.3% strongly agreed whiles another huge number 60 representing 50.0% agreed with a minute figure of 20 (12+8) representing a total of 16.7% disagreeing. What

this means is that the female heads should learn from the male heads on how to be flexible in their dealings with their subordinates. On whether they should learn to be more concerned about the welfare of their subordinates, 30 teachers representing 25.0% strongly agreed, 56 representing 46.7% agreed, 18 representing 15.0% disagreed. This confirms the assertion that female heads did not show concern about their subordinates' welfare. Twenty-three 23 teachers representing 19.2% strongly agreed that the female heads should learn not to be too task-oriented whilst 34 representing 28.3% agreed. Forty-six (46) teachers, representing 38.3% however, disagreed with another 17 giving 14.2% strongly disagreed. If organizational objectives are to be met, then, it is good heads are task-oriented. Thirty (30) teachers representing 25.0% strongly disagreed that the female heads should learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates, whilst another 55 representing 45.8% agreed. An insignificant number 35 (24+11) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with a grand percentage total of only 29.2%. Female heads according to their subordinates should therefore learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates. On whether they must learn to be fair and firm 33 teachers representing 27.5% were in agreement strongly with another 57 teachers with a percentage of 47.5% in agreement with just 20 (16.7%) disagreeing another 10 (8.3%) strongly disagreeing. Again, on whether there was the need for female head to learn to instill discipline at the workplace, 32 representing 26.7% strongly agreed while 59 representing 49.1% agreed, 18 (15.0%) and 11 (9.25) disagreed. From the above statistics teachers were of the view saying that discipline was a

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key component of ensuring attainment of organizational goals and should be employed at the workplace.

Similarly, on whether the female heads should learn to be prudent in her financial management 38 teachers representing 31.7% strongly agreed and another 60 teachers representing 50.0% were in agreement with the suggestion. However 22 representing 18.3% disagreed. The findings of the study indicate that the female heads use monies for the betterment and attainment of organizational needs and not on frivolous ideas.

Table 17: Lessons that Male Heads can learn from their Female Counterparts

Item	SA		A		D		SD		Totals	
	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%	№	%
They must learn to be fair and firm	30	25.0	60	50.0	25	20.8	5	4.2	120	100
They must learn to instill discipline	32	26.7	55	45.8	20	16.7	13	10.8	120	100
They must to more task-oriented	33	27.5	58	48.3	17	14.2	12	10.0	120	100
They learn to be prudent in their financial management	46	38.3	35	29.2	22	18.3	17	14.2	120	100
They should learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates	31	25.8	59	49.2	16	13.3	14	11.7	120	100
They should learn to respect their subordinates	28	23.3	62	51.7	21	17.5	9	7.5	120	100
They should learn to be more concerned about the needs of their subordinates	34	28.3	54	45.0	20	16.7	12	10.0	120	100
They learn to be more friendly	53	44.2	37	30.8	19	15.8	11	9.2	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 17 deals with lessons that the male heads can learn from their female counterparts. On whether they should learn to be fair and firm the responses showed that 75% of the teachers strongly agreed while 25% agreed. From the above data, one can conveniently say that about two-thirds of the total respondents supported the notion that the male head should learn to be fair and firm in their dealings with their subordinates.

Again, on whether female heads must learn to instill discipline in their teachers, 72% strongly agreed and agreed whilst 28% strongly disagreed and agreed to the preposition. Again, on whether they should learn to be more task-oriented, 75.8% of the teachers were in favour of the proposition whilst 24.2% disagreed with the preposition. What this implies is that teachers are of the view that the male heads should learn from the female head to be more task-oriented.

Similarly, 67.5% of the respondents agreed that male heads should learn from their female counterparts to be prudent in their financial management whilst 32.55% disagreed with the statement. Financial management has being a bone of contention between subordinates and their superiors so if the male heads learn to be prudent in their financial management, the better it would be.

Also, on whether the male heads should learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates the results was phenomenal as, as many as 90 teachers, (31+59) agreed, giving a total percentage of 75.0, with only 30 (16+14) representing a percentage total of 25. On whether the female heads should learn to respect their subordinates, the results indicated that 75% of the teachers agreed whilst 25% disagreed with the preposition. Then, on whether the male heads should learn to

be more concerned about the welfare of their subordinates, the results indicated that,73.3% of the teachers agreed to the statement whilst 26.7% disagreed and last but not least on whether the male heads should learn from the female heads to be more friendly, 75% of the respondents agreed to the preposition whilst 25% of the respondents disagreed with the preposition.

Table 18: Percentage Distribution of Responses of Teachers for the Gender of their Preferred School Head

Gender of Preferred Head	Frequency	Percentage
Male Head	84	70
Female Head	36	30
Total	120	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table18 shows that as many as 84 teachers out of a total of 120 representing 70% indicated their preference for a male heads, while 36 out of the 120, representing 30% indicated their preference for a female heads. This result also suggested that teachers in the Suame Circuit in the Kumasi Metropolis preferred to have and work with a male heads rather than female heads. This may further mean that teachers in these selected schools tended to feel more comfortable and strongly attracted to the leadership style of male heads.

The findings from the above table fall in line with the findings of Asamoah (1996) and Acheampong (1999). The authors in their studies found that majority of their respondents (teachers) preferred to work under male heads rather than female

heads. For example, in Acheanpong (1999) out of a total of 314 respondents, 233 (74.2%) preferred to work under male heads whilst only 81(25.8%) preferred to work under female heads. One interesting revelation of their study was that majority of their female respondents even preferred to work under male heads rather than under their own colleague female heads.

The large preference for male heads rather than female head by teachers in this study also confirms to the views of Shein (1975). According to Shein (1975), "in our culture, leadership positions typically are considered to be male in character and not surprising societal stereotypes about women and men depicts women as having far fewer of the qualities that compromise effective leadership" (p.10). The crux of his view is that most people in our society today still think that leadership position is considered a masculine dominated and not a field for women. They therefore, always prefer to be by male rather than female or give leadership positions to male rather than females.

Table 19: Teachers' Reasons for their Preference for Male Heads

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
They are humble, approachable and co-operative	56	35
They respect subordinates views in decision-making	35	21.86
They are firm and firm	23	14.39
They are task-oriented and duty conscious	12	7.5
They are appreciative and encourage subordinates		
to aspire higher	10	6.25
They seek to the welfare of subordinates	20	12.5
Other	4	2.5
Total	160	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 19 shows the percentage distribution of the reasons given by teachers for their preference for a male school heads. The teachers were asked to give two reasons for the preference they had made.

A total of 160 reasons were given by the teachers who preferred male school heads. As is characteristic of open ended questionnaire items, the reasons given by teachers were diverse and individualized. But a close look at the reasons showed that they could be put into various categories depending on the common idea which ran through them. To this end, the reasons were coded and put into seven categories. The reason that dominated were that male heads are humble, approachable and co-operative. As many as 56 of these reasons, representing 35% of the total number of the reasons given by teachers supported this. Thirty-five 35

(21.86%) of the total number of reasons given also showed that male heads were preferred on the ground that they respected subordinates views in decision-making.

Table 20: Teacher's reasons for their Preference for Female Heads

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
They are transparent	25	31.25
They are task-oriented	19	23.75
They are fair and firm in their decisions	13	16.25
They considerate and disciplined	11	13.75
They respect subordinates	10	12.50
Others	2	2.50
Total	80	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 20 shows the percentage distribution of the reasons given by teachers for the preference they made for a female head. The teachers were requested to give two reasons for the preference they had made. A total of 80 reasons were given by the teachers who preferred female school heads. The reasons given by these groups of teachers also varied. However, looking at the common ideas that ran through them, the reasons given were also coded and put into six categories. The reason that dominated was that, female heads were transparent. Twenty-five of these reasons were given, representing 31.25% of the total number of reasons given. Female heads are also seen by their subordinates as

task-oriented. Nineteen (19) reasons, representing 23.75% were assigned by teachers. Another dominant reason given was that they were fair and firm. Thirteen (13) of the reasons accounting for 16.25% given also supported that assertion. Eleven reasons representing 13.75% were also given by respondents on their preference for a female head because the females are considerate and disciplined. They respected subordinates was another reason assigned by the teachers. Ten (10) reasons accounting for 12.5% were given in support of this assertion. Other reasons given aside the categorized ones totaled two representing 2.5% of the total number of reasons given.

Table 21: Teachers' Suggestions for the Improvement of Female Heads of Institutions

Suggestions	Frequency	Percentage
They should not be too bossy	32	13.3
They should respect their subordinates	60	25.0
They should be considerate and approachable	28	11.7
They should be democratic	20	8.3
They should be self confident	14	5.8
They should be friendly and flexible	40	16.7
They should not be too task oriented	17	7.1
They should see to the welfare of subordinates	15	6.3
They should be fair and firm	14	5.8
Totals	240	100

Source: field data, 2009.

Table 21 above shows the percentage distribution of teachers' suggestions for the improvement of female heads of institutions. Teachers were asked to give two suggestions each, thus a total of 240 suggestions were given and those with common ideas and intentions were grouped together. In all, nine major suggestions were deemed prominent and appropriate.

The most dominant suggestion with the highest frequency 60 representing 25.0% was that female heads should respect their subordinates. Again, it was suggested by 40 teachers, representing 16.7% that they should be friendly and flexible. Thirty-two (32) teachers representing 13.3% also suggested they should not be too bossy. They should be considerate and approachable was another prominent suggestion. Twenty-eight (28) teachers (11.7%) made this suggestion. Twenty (20) teachers (8.3%) also suggested that they should be democratic. Another suggestion was that they should be self confident. This suggestion was given by 14 teachers representing 5.8%. Again, it was suggested by 17 teachers (7.1%) that they should not be too-task oriented. They should see to the welfare of subordinates was another suggestion given by 15 teachers accounting for 6.3% of total number of respondents. It was suggested by 14 teachers representing 5.8% that they should be fair and firm in their dealings with their subordinates. A careful look of the dominant suggestions tended to give credence to the earlier reasons given by teachers that female heads are arrogant, disrespectful and "bossy". Asamoah (1996) also give credence to this assertion that female heads are arrogant, disrespectful and bossy and further explains why female heads tend to behave that way.

Table 22: Teachers' Suggestions for the Improvement of Male Heads of Institutions

Suggestions	Frequency	Percentage
They should be accountable and transparent	54	22.5
They should be fair and firm in decision-making	30	12.5
They should be task-oriented	32	13.33
They should allow free flow of information	14	5.8
They should respect their subordinates	16	6.76
They should be more friendly	22	9.17
They must delegate powers	16	6.76
They should be active	22	9.17
They should be approachable	9	3.75
They should up-grade themselves	25	10.41
Totals	240	100

Source: field data, 2009.

In Table 22, Teachers were again asked to give two suggestions each for the improvement of male heads of institutions. Two hundred and forty (240) suggestions were provided by the 120 respondents. These, like as was done for the female heads were also grouped or paired according to the common idea or theme as in the table 20.The most prominent or dominant suggestion from 54

teachers, representing 22.5% was that they should be accountable and transparent. Another 30 (12.5%) also suggested they should be fair and firm in their decision-making process. 32 teachers representing 13.33% also suggested they should be task-oriented. They should allow free flow of information in their institutions was another suggested from the teachers, who numbered 14, accounting for 5.8%. Again, 16 teachers representing 6.67% also suggested that male heads should respect their subordinates whilst another 16 respondents (6.67%) suggested they should delegate some of their powers to their subordinates to perform. Similarly, 22 teachers, representing 9.17% suggested they should be active, whereas 25 representing 10.41% also suggested they should up-grade themselves. Last but not least, 9 respondents representing just 3.75% suggested they should be approachable.

It is the belief of the researcher that if both male and female heads could accept the suggestions given by their subordinates in good faith and change some of their attitudes and behaviours, the school would not only be a conducive place for the teachers but the students as well.

The next chapter provides summary of the findings of the study and provide recommendations for practice and future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of the study, the conclusions and implications drawn from the study as well as the recommendations for practice and for future research.

Overview of Research Problems and Methodology

For a very long time now, the question as to whether male and female heads differed in their leadership style had engaged the attention of many educational researchers. In some of the studies carried out by these researchers elsewhere, it was revealed that men and women did differ in their leadership styles.

There is, however, no known study, which had dealt into this issue of gender and leadership styles of leaders in the Ashanti region of Ghana. This study, a descriptive survey, was therefore undertaken with the main purpose of finding out the perceived dominant leadership style of the male and female heads (leaders) of basic public schools in the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ashanti region of Ghana.

The study among others, tried to find out the general perception of teachers about the dominant leadership style of male and female heads; identify the leadership style of the male and female heads of ten public basic schools in the Kumasi Metropolis, find out teachers' preference for a male or a female school head, as well as find out the reasons for those preferences.

The main research instrument used to collect data for the study was questionnaire. The questionnaire contained a total of 55 items. It comprised open-ended and close-ended items, and was divided into 4 sections A – D. The questionnaire was pre-tested at St. Joseph's R/C J.H.S in the Suame Circuit and it yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.72. In the analysis of the data, cross tabulation and frequencies were used; percentages were also calculated and compared as part of the attempt to answer the research questions.

Summary of Main Findings

Analysis of the data obtained from the respondents (teachers) in this study, concerning their perceptions about the dominant leadership style of male and female school heads revealed the following:

1. Teachers of the ten public basic schools involved in the study had the perception that   both male and female school heads were generally democratic rather than autocratic in their leadership style.

2. Female teachers perceived male heads to be more democratic in their leadership style than their female counterparts; while male teachers perceived female heads to be more democratic in their leadership style than their female counterparts.

3. Teachers of the ten public basic schools involved in the study perceived both the male and female heads of these selected schools to be generally democratic in their leadership style rather than autocratic. However, the female heads of these selected institutions were perceived by the

respondents to be more autocratic and "bossy" than their male counterparts.

4. On the issue of discipline in the organization, respondents perceived the female heads to be able to maintain discipline better than their male counterparts.

5. Female heads were perceived to be more concerned with the welfare of their subordinates as compared to that of their male counterparts.

6. The study also revealed that among female and male heads, the female heads were more task oriented than their male counterparts.

7. Teachers showed their preference for a male head than for female head. In other words, majority of the teachers involved in the study preferred or wished to work under a male head rather than under a female head.

8. Some of the reasons given by teachers for preferring male heads are that they were humble, sympathetic, flexible, more accommodating and prompt in decision-making.

9. Some of the reason given by teachers and for preferring female heads were that they were disciplined, duty conscious, financially accountable, and morally upright in dealing with their subordinates and responsive to their needs.

10. There was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of teachers about the autocratic leadership style of male heads.

11. There was a statistically significant difference between the perceptions of teachers about the autocratic style of female heads.

12. It was seen that most of the teachers indicated their superiors did not reward them for their achievements could mean that teachers may be de-motivated to achieve greater goals.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that:

1. Both male and female school heads were generally democratic in their leadership style rather than autocratic. However, female school heads showed more autocratic tendencies in their leadership style than their male counterparts

2. Both male and female heads of public basic schools within the Kumasi Metropolis did not differ in the leadership style they used to administer their various schools. They were all generally democratic in their leadership style rather than autocratic.

3. Subordinates, specifically, teachers within the school system were more comfortable with and ready to work with a male head rather than a female head. In other words, teachers preferred male school heads to female school heads. Teachers had varied and diverse reasons regarding the gender of head they wish to work with.

Implications

The findings of this study imply the following:

Both male and female school heads used virtually the same dominant leadership style (democratic style) to lead their schools for that matter there is likely not to be any significant changes in the style of leadership of a school if the

head is a male or female. In other words, there is likely not to be any significant change in the style of leadership of a school if a male head is removed and replaced with a female head with the intention of effecting a change in the style of the administration of that school. Except that a little more of autocratic tendencies are expected under a female head than under a male head.

Also, male school heads are more likely to enjoy good support, cooperation and acceptance from their subordinates (teachers) female school heads. This is because many teachers have strongly indicated their preference and readiness to work with a male school head rather than a female school head.

Recommendations for Practice

Findings of this study have shown that heads of public basic schools irrespective of their gender used the same leadership style (democratic style) in the administration of their schools. It is therefore being recommended that appointment of heads of schools should be done devoid of gender considerations but rather based on qualification and competence. This is because gender, as had been found out, may not after all have any direct influence or effect on the kind of leadership style a newly appointed head will use in the administration of his or her school.

It is also being recommended that teachers are made aware of the findings of this study through educational journal and workshops to enable them know that female school heads are not as "hard", bossy and autocratic as they are generally thought by many to be. This will help change the perception and attitude of teachers in accepting postings to schools which have female heads.

Recommendation for Future Research

It is recommended that, this study be replicated in schools in other regions of Ghana, to find out if findings from those studies will be consistent with what have been found in this study. This will make for easy generalization of the findings concerning the issue of Gender and Leadership Styles of school heads for the whole nation.

It is further being recommended that in future studies of this nature, researchers should use more research instruments such as observation and interviews in addition to the use of questionnaire in order that a more detailed data are collected for analysis.

It is finally being recommended that other researchers on this issue in the future should endeavour to do some correlation analysis to find out if there is any relationship between the gender of school heads and the leadership style they use. They should further do a regression analysis of the data to find out if the gender of a school head could be used to predict the kind of the leadership style which that head is likely to use.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PERSONNEL OF SUAME CIRCUIT OF THE KUMASI METROPOLIS OF THE GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE (G.E.S) ON LEADERSHIP STYLES OF MALE AND FEMALE SCHOOL HEADS.

You have been chosen to participate in this study because of your important role as personnel of the Suame Circuit of the Kumasi Metropolis. Please, respond to this questionnaire in terms of your most sincere beliefs and feelings. There are no right or wrong answers. This is purposely for research and your confidentiality is assured.

PART I

BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Please, indicate your answer to the following questions by ticking (   ) the appropriate answer or by completing the spaces provided.

1). Name of District:………………………………………………………

2). Gender of District Director of Education

Male (   )   Female (   )

3). Your Gender: Male (   )   Female (   )

4). Your Age: ……………………………

5). Your highest professional qualification

a). 1st Degree (   )

b). Diploma (   )

c). P.G.D.E (   )

d). Specialist(   )

e). Cert 'A' 4yr (   )

f). Cert 'A' Post – Sec (   )

g). others (specify)…………………………………………..

6). How long have you been working here in the Circuit?

a). 2 – 4yrs (   )   b).5 – 7yrs (   )   c). 8 – 10yrs

d). 11 – 13yrs   e). 14 – 16yrs

PART II

SECTION A

95

TEACHERS PERCEPTION OF THE LEADERSHIP STYLES OF

MALE AND FEMALE SCHOOL HEADS

Please, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to the statements below

4 – Strongly Agree

3 – Agree

2 – Disagree

1 – Strongly Disagree

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF MALE SCHOOL HEADS

As far as I know, male school heads are mostly associated with the following leadership behaviours. They:-

	SA	A	D	SD
7). are usually more autocratic than females	☐	☐	☐	☐
8). are more task – oriented than females	☐	☐	☐	☐
9). are able to maintain discipline better than females	☐	☐	☐	☐
10). are more democratic than females	☐	☐	☐	☐
11). are often not concerned about the welfare of their subordinates as their females do	☐	☐	☐	☐
12). usually tend to have laissez - faire attitude	☐	☐	☐	☐
13). are able to balance personal needs with organisational demands within a given situation	☐	☐	☐	☐
14). are able to promote job satisfaction among workers more	☐	☐	☐	☐

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than the females

15).   are able to motivate subordinates to work more   □ □ □ □

than female heads

16).   are often insensitive to the plight of their subordinates   □ □ □ □

17).   delegates authority more than female heads   □ □ □ □

18).   involve their subordinates in the decision making process   □ □ □ □

19).   there is free flow of information in the male headed   □ □ □ □

organization

20).   tend to respect the competence and intelligence of their   □ □ □ □

subordinates

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF FEMALE HEADS

They:

    □ □ □ □

21).   are usually more autocratic than their males

22).   are more task – oriented than their males   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

23).   are able to maintain discipline better   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

24).   are more democratic than their male heads   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

25).   are often not concerned about the welfare of

      their subordinates   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

26).   usually tend to have laissez-faire attitude   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

27).   are able to balance personal needs with   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

      organisational demands within a given situation   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

28).   are able to promote job satisfaction among workers ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

      more than males

29).   are able to motivate subordinates to work   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

      more than the male heads

30).   are often insensitive to the plight of their subordinates ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

31).   delegates authority more than male heads do   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

32).   involve their subordinates in the decision making process ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

33).   there is free flow of information in the female   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

      headed institution

34).   tend to respect the competence and intelligence   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

      of subordinates

SECTION B

98

The following statements relate to lessons that female heads can learn from their male counterparts. Tick (   ) in the appropriate box.

35.	Female heads should learn to be more friendly	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
36).	Female heads should learn to be more flexible	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
37).	They should be more concerned about the welfare of their subordinates	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
38).	They should not be too – task oriented	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
39).	They must learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
40).	They must learn to be fair and firm	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
41).	They must learn to be prudent in their financial management	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

The following statements relate to lessons that male heads can learn from their female counterparts. Tick ⌐( ) in the appropriate box

42).	Male heads should learn to be fair and firm	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
44).	Male heads should learn to instill discipline	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
45).	They should learn to be more task – oriented	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
46).	They should be prudent in their financial management	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
47).	They should learn to satisfy the needs of their subordinates	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
48).	They should learn to respect their subordinates	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
49).	They should be more concerned about the welfare of their subordinates	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

50). Male heads should learn to be more friendly.

SECTION C

100

TEACHERS' PREFERENCE FOR THE TYPE OF HEAD THEY WOULD

LIKE TO WORK WITH

Please tick ⌐/ (   ) the appropriate response in the following item

51).   Under which of the following heads would you prefer to work?

Male head ⌐/(   )   Female Head (   )

52).   Please, give reasons for your preference of 51 above.

1).   …………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

2)..……………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………

3).   …………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………

SECTION D

53).   What suggestions do you have for improving the leadership style of male
heads.

      1).   …………………………………………………………………

      …………………………………………………………………

      ………………………………………………………………

      2).   …………………………………………………………………

      …………………………………………………………………

      …………………………………………………………………

      3).   …………………………………………………………………

      …………………………………………………………………

      ………………………………………………………………

54).   What suggestions do you have for improving the leadership style of
female heads

      1).   ………………………………………………………………

      2).   ………………………………………………………………

      ..………………………………………………………………

      3).   ………………………………………………………………