

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS
IN RELATION TO PERFORMANCE OF PUPILS IN BECE IN THE
ASOUGYAMAN DISTRICT

BY

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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: Joyce Dogenereba

Supervisors' Declaration

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

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ABSTRACT

Leadership at the various levels of education is considered as a critical input in the academic achievement of students. Hence, stakeholders in education always endeavour to appoint or recruit the right people with effective leadership skills as headteachers to manage their educational institutions. This study therefore investigated the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE in the Asuogyaman District of Education in the Eastern Region. A cross-sectional descriptive survey was adopted with 32 headteachers from Junior High Schools (JHSs) who responded to a structured questionnaire. Also, a data extraction form was designed to collate the BECE results for the respective headteachers during the past five years of their stay. Data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistical tools including the factor and correlation analyses. The results revealed that headteachers were most likely to practice the structural leadership style than the symbolic, human resource and political styles. The main factors that influenced the choice of leadership styles among the headteachers were stakeholder involvement, personal experiences, vision for school, policy directives and teacher-pupil attitudes. Meanwhile, the structural and political leadership styles were found to have positively and significantly correlated with the academic performance of pupils. It is recommended that the Ghana Education Service should regularly organise workshops for headteachers on leadership, leadership choices and their ultimate impact on academic performance in their schools. Also, headteachers must have the free hand to run their respective schools with less interference.

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Mr. Francis Garti-Adjornor and my sons, Sedem, Setor,
Elorm and Eyram.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Over the years, there have been a lot of concerns over the effectiveness of leadership in the various educational institutions in Ghana. Today, this has become more crucial than before as stakeholders of education have developed keen interest in the administration and leadership of educational institutions. This has resulted in the establishment of supervisory bodies like the Parent-Teacher Association, School Management Committees, Boards of Governors, District Education Oversight Committees, National Inspectorate Board and even Alumni Associations at all levels of education, particularly basic school level, nationwide.

Education is considered as the key to national development. Indeed as Reboire (2001) noted while reiterating a statement by Harbison (1973) as saying, human resources form the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. A country without well-trained human resources has a bleak future. It is, therefore, the arduous task of heads of educational institutions to see to it that the educational aims and objectives of the country are achieved so as to produce the needed manpower for her industrialisation purposes.

The headteacher is the executive head of an educational institution and therefore the success or failure of the institution largely depends on the leadership behaviour and other mechanisms that he or she displays. Dinham and Scott (2010, p. 23) states that, “leadership is vitally important in developing effective, innovative schools and in facilitating quality teaching and learning ...” to show the indispensable nature of the heads role in any

educational institution. Knezevich (1984) postulated that the headteacher is the educational leader and executive of the management team at the building level, who influences, to a large degree how well teachers perform, how well students learn, and how easily and rapidly innovations are introduced into the college. Yukl (2002) stated that different people and organisations interpret effective leadership in different ways to mean different things.

Teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals for our nation's future. Therefore, it is disturbing to find that many of today's teachers are dissatisfied with their jobs. Many factors have been examined in an attempt to find which ones promote teacher motivation. It seems, however, that many headteachers have not considered their supervisory skills and styles of leadership as determinants of teachers' and pupils' performance in their respective schools. Hence, some of them seem to find it difficult to effectively administer their schools (Adeyemi, 2010).

The issue of job satisfaction among workers is not only a factor in industry and business, but it is also a concern among headteachers and teachers alike. Satisfaction has been described as an effective state that is influenced by interactions between workers' personal characteristics, values and expectations of employees, and organisational environment (Muellar & McCloskey, 1990). It is no longer news that job satisfaction anchors employee performance. One of the most important goals of an organisation is to maximise employee performance in order to accomplish those goals (Butler & Rose, 2011). In doing this, the organisation needs not only highly motivated, but also satisfied and psychologically balanced employees to increase performance and productivity in the organisation. Headteachers' satisfaction,

performance and retention have always been very important issues in Educational Human Resource Management literature especially in developing countries like Ghana.

In the educational system, indicators of effective leadership include rate of staff turnover, good academic performance of students, students comportment, and head-staff relationships and how diligent teachers and students work toward the achievement of institutional goals required in today's complex educational organisations (Knezevich, 1984). There seems to be a general concern by the entire society on the mediocre type of results that are produced in recent years at the Basic School level. To a very great extent, the performance of pupils may be attributed to so many factors. It is worth asking a rhetorical question that, can one of these factors be as a result of the kind of influence that the culture of the school has on them? If that is so, then the culture of the school is also as a result of the kind of leadership being practiced by the head of the institution. According to the Review of Teaching in Teacher Education (2003), the role of leadership has been found to be particularly important in creating positive, innovative and productive learning cultures and the facilitation of quality teaching and learning.

Leadership is, therefore, the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds a group together and motivates it towards goals. It is, indeed, the ultimate act that brings to success all the potentials that are in an organisation and its people (French, Kast & Rosenzeig, 1985). Thus, leadership is the process of influencing the activities and behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards goals achievement in a given situation (Musaazi, 1982). It is both a science and an

art which is an interactive process between the leader and members of the group. The type of interaction between them is responsible for the success or failure of the organisation. Leadership as a science, develops concepts, principles and processes to guide the everyday practices of leaders to generate expected results while these processes do not in themselves offer solution to an organisation's problems, they provide a logical and analytical approach to planning, decision-making and problem-solving. Leaders who go by these principles and processes are at an advantage when it comes to problem solving. The art of leadership, on the other hand, lays great stress on the skill of leadership such as how knowledge and experiences are applied to achieve desired results.

Lussier (1999) asserted that leadership qualities can propel a person to a successful and bright career. He adds that job satisfaction stems from the leadership skills of the employee's manager. Strong leadership is needed in educational institutions because of the nature of work that the head particularly does. The job of the headteacher has conflicting goals, objectives, purposes and expectations. Teachers expect that the head should be fair and firm, students expect that the headteacher ensures that teaching and learning go on well in conducive atmosphere, while parents and the entire society expect the head to see to the proper development of students for the achievement of national goals and objectives. Non-teaching staff want fair treatment from the head, the old students want to see their alma mater growing from strength to strength in terms of academic and disciplinary matters, while the officials of the District Education Office, Regional Education Office,

Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Education demand total compliance with the laid down rules and regulations.

The different expectations from these groups call for the tactical running of the school by the head and this automatically leads to the kind of leadership style that may be adopted by the head and how effective the style might be in the running of the institution. Since these leadership styles are presumably linked to the academic performance of pupils, it is worth investigating into.

Statement of the Problem

There are divergent views about the influence of leadership style on pupils' academic performance. Headteachers are perceived to have different strategies of steering the affairs of their respective educational set ups. Some stakeholders have accused headteachers of relying on the traditional styles of leadership, which include autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire, hence resulting in poor organisation and consequently the poor academic performance of pupils.

Whiles the researcher believes there is a strong correlation between the two variables, others including Ross and Gray (2006) and Kruger, Witziers and Slegers (2007) disagree. According to Ross and Gray (2006), school leadership has a minimal direct impact on students' achievement. Kruger et al. (2007) supported this view that leadership is no longer proposed as having a direct influence on academic achievements of students. At the school level, leadership is a central theme in the literature of Organisational Improvement and Educational Reform. The critical nature of leadership has brought about

diverse ideas about what leadership must involve and not involve, who is and who is not a leader.

The position of the researcher was informed by her experience as the Asuogyaman District School Health Education Programme Co-ordinator. For example, a school which consistently scored almost zero percent in the Basic Education Certificate Examinations conducted by the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) had its performance turned around when the headteacher was changed. Stakeholders in the district therefore attributed this situation to the leadership style of the headteacher.

Therefore, this study aims at investigating the leadership styles of Junior High School headteachers in relation to performance of pupils in Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE) in the Asuogyaman District of Education in the Eastern Region of Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE in the Asuogyaman District of Education in the Eastern Region. Specifically, the study sought to;

1. find out the type of leadership styles adopted by the headteachers of Junior High Schools in the District;
2. determine the factors that influence their choice of leadership styles;
3. establish the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE; and
4. find out if there is any statistically significant difference in the average academic performance of schools based on the gender of headteachers.

Research Questions

This study answers the following questions:

1. What are the leadership styles of headteachers in Junior High Schools in the Asuogyaman District of Education?
2. What are the underlying factors that influence choice of leadership styles by the headteachers?
3. Is there any significant relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE?
4. Is there any significant difference in the average academic performance of schools based on the gender of headteachers?

Significance of the Study

The study would be of significance in the following ways. First, it would constitute an excellent supplementary guide to headteachers and potential headteachers of educational institutions especially at the basic education level. This is because leadership styles, which are considered desirable for the attainment of good academic performance of students, would be outlined in this study. Second, the study would inform them on how their leadership styles affect the general performance of pupils so as to make them know their contribution to the realisation of the ultimate goal of the institution. Furthermore, it is believed to induce self-awareness and reflection in headteachers concerning their headship practices. Finally, the findings of this study would serve as a basis for further studies related to leadership styles of the headteachers to be conducted in other educational institutions in the country.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was limited to the choice of leadership style of headteachers. Also, the study was restricted to the headteachers in Junior High Schools in the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region.

Limitations of the Study

Like any other study, this work also had its own limitations. Some headteachers were afraid to complete the questionnaire with the view that their responses would be used against them knowing that the researcher is the District School Health Education Programme Co-ordinator. However, the researcher assured them that the study was purely academic and therefore its findings would not be used for any punitive/rewards purposes. The collection of secondary data from the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) was difficult and time wasting.

Organisation of the Study

The entire study comprise five chapters. Chapter one presents the introduction to the study. It also includes sub-headings like background, statement of the problem, purpose, objectives and research questions, significance, delimitation as well as the limitations of the study. Chapter two which is the review of related literature would examine the concept of leadership, leadership frames including structural, human resource, political and symbolic leadership styles, factors that influence the choice of leadership, leadership and the school including leadership and students' academic performance, factors affecting students' academic performance. Chapter three would present the research design, the population, sample and sampling

procedure, research instruments, pilot-testing of instruments, data collection and data analyses procedures. Chapter four would present, analyse and discuss the data, while Chapter five would present the summary, conclusions and recommendation for the entire study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between headteachers' leadership style and decision-making processes (Kirby, Paradise & King, 1992; Koh, Steers & Terborg, 1995) and headteacher/ teacher efficacy (Hipp, 1997). However, a crucial factor which has not been incorporated in these investigations is how their leadership styles correlates with the academic performance of their pupils. The review of literature is organised into the following sub-headings:

1. Concept of leadership;
2. Types of leadership styles;
3. Factors that influence choice of leadership styles;
4. Relationship between leadership styles and pupils' academic performance; and
5. Find out if there is any statistically significant difference in the average academic performance of schools based on the gender of headteachers.

Concept of Leadership

Leadership remains one of the most relevant aspects of organisation context. However, defining leadership has been challenging and definitions vary depending on given situations. Bass (cited in Effah, 2003) is reported to have reviewed and summarised more than 300 works on leadership. Also, Bass (1990) declares that the appearance of the word "leader" in the English language goes back as early as the year 1300 and the word "leadership" did

not appear until the first half of the nineteenth century. Furthermore, he claims that it did not reveal itself in most other modern languages until recent times.

MacBeath (2004) indicates that leadership is a sophisticated concept which is 'full of ambiguity and a range of interpretations'. According to him the meaning of leadership depends on the kind of institution in which it is found. Musaaazi (1982), buttresses the above stated phenomena, however he further his assertion by stating a common element that leadership is concerned with, and that is the implementation of the policies and decisions, which assist in directing the activities of the organisation towards its specified goals. Hence defines leadership as the process of influencing the activities and behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation. Basically, it is the use of authority in decision-making.

Luthans (cited Richardson, 2004) states that current theorists have "narrowed their focus" to distinguishing the differences between a manager and a leader as a way of definition. A typical example is Bennis (2007), and states that there are many definitions of leadership, but leadership differs from managing. He continues that a manager administers, maintains, focuses on systems, and controls. A leader on the other hand, innovates, develops, focuses on people, inspires trust, and views the horizon.

There is one basic fact that groups need leaders and leaders need followers. Each leader has a leadership style that he or she feels comfortable with. What followers must realise is that, there are different styles of leadership that are required for different situations.

For ages people have been looking for direction, purpose and meaning to guide their collective activities. "Leadership is needed to foster purpose,

direction, imagination, and passion, especially in times of crisis or rapid change. At such times, people look to leaders for hope, inspiration, and a pathway which will lead them to somewhere more desirable” (Bolman & Deal, 1994).

Although the term leadership is mostly associated with industry and business, it is of great importance to education as well. First, this section will provide a historical background to theories of leadership as rooted in business and industry. Second, it will focus on the recent approaches to leadership one of which is the primary concern of this study, namely leadership frames. It continues to explore the educational leadership in Ghana, gender related issues of leadership are also discussed. Finally, it will end by elaborating on the influence of leadership on academic performance of students.

Leadership Theories

As mentioned before, especially within the past century influential theories for leadership have been developed. The Trait Approach that endured up to the late 1940’s claimed that leadership ability is inborn. In the late 1940’s to late 1960’s Behavioural Approach became dominant advocating that effectiveness in leadership has to do with how the leader behaves. In the late 1960s to the early 1980s the Contingency Approach became popular suggesting that effective leadership is dependent upon the situation (Bryman, 1993). Recent approaches to leadership focus on vision and charisma, the term used by sociologist Max Weber to describe leaders who can lead, but who do not hold a “sanctioned office” (English, 1992). Later, Burns (cited in Deluga, 1995) introduced the concepts of transactional and transformational

leadership. In 1991, Bolman and Deal categorised leadership into four frames: the structural, human resource, political and symbolic frame.

Trait Theories of Leadership

The study of special traits of leaders emerged from the belief that leadership and abilities such as intelligence were inherited. In addition to intelligence other factors such as birth order, status and liberal parents highly correlate with leadership abilities (Carlson, 1996).

This approach dominated the study of leadership up to the 1950's. It tried to define any distinguishing physical or psychological characteristics of the individual that explains the behaviour of leaders (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). It claims that leadership ability is inborn. As the distinguished philosopher Aristotle (cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991) enunciates that "from the hour of birth, some are marked out for subjection, others for rule" (p. 34).

However, some shortcomings of this approach were identified. Firstly, it is not clarified which of the traits are most important and which are not. Secondly, some traits overlap. For example, tact, judgement, and common sense are listed as separate traits but the last one covers the preceding ones. Third, trait studies do not distinguish between traits helping to become a leader and those enabling it to be maintained. Fourth, most trait studies are descriptive. There is an assumption that the leader's traits existed prior to leadership and most of them have failed to approach the study of personality as an organised whole (Gouldner, 1995). Several studies were conducted to identify leader traits. Mann's later reviews suggested 750 findings about the personality traits of the leaders. However, many of the traits found in one study undermined or were found to be unimportant in others. Gibb (cited in

Campell, Corbally & Ramseyer, 1966) argues that failure to outline leadership traits should not be accounted for their absence, but for lack of measurement and comparability of data from different kinds of research.

Recent trait studies utilised measurement procedures focusing on managers and administrators. Yukl (2002) emphasised leader effectiveness rather than leader traits based on the assumption that becoming a leader and becoming an effective leader are different tasks (Hoy & Miskel, 1991), hence a lot of divergent criticisms.

Behavioural Theories of Leadership

The failure of tracing “gold” in the trait “mines” urged researchers to examine the behaviours that specific leaders exhibited. Behavioural studies of leadership aim to identify behaviours that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Robbins, 1998). Behavioural theories of leadership support that a set of particular behaviours can be named as a style of leadership. Leadership style refers to a distinctive behaviour adopted by persons in formal positions of leadership (Campell et al., 1966) and several studies were conducted to identify those.

The Managerial Grid

Another behavioural theory based model is the Managerial Grid or recently known as The Leadership Grid. It was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1982 as a framework to classify leadership styles that focus on a leader’s concern for task accomplishment and people at the same time. Concern for production involves results, the bottom line, performance,

mission, and profits. Concern for people involves group members and co-workers.

A matrix formed by the intersection of two dimensions of leader behaviour (see Figure 1). On the horizontal axis is “concern for production”. “Concern for people” is on the vertical axis (Krietner & Kinicki, 2001). Each of these concerns is in varying degrees along a continuum from 1 to 9. Leaders can integrate their concerns for people with production to be opportunistic or paternalistic.

The opportunistic leader moves to any Grid style needed to achieve personal gain and self-promotion, but the paternalistic adopts the high 9 level of concern from 9,1 and 1,9 in order to create a combined style of monitoring parent-like behaviour. On the Grid, a 9,9 style (team management) is desirable in that it results in high productivity, satisfaction, and creativity (DuBrin, 1997).

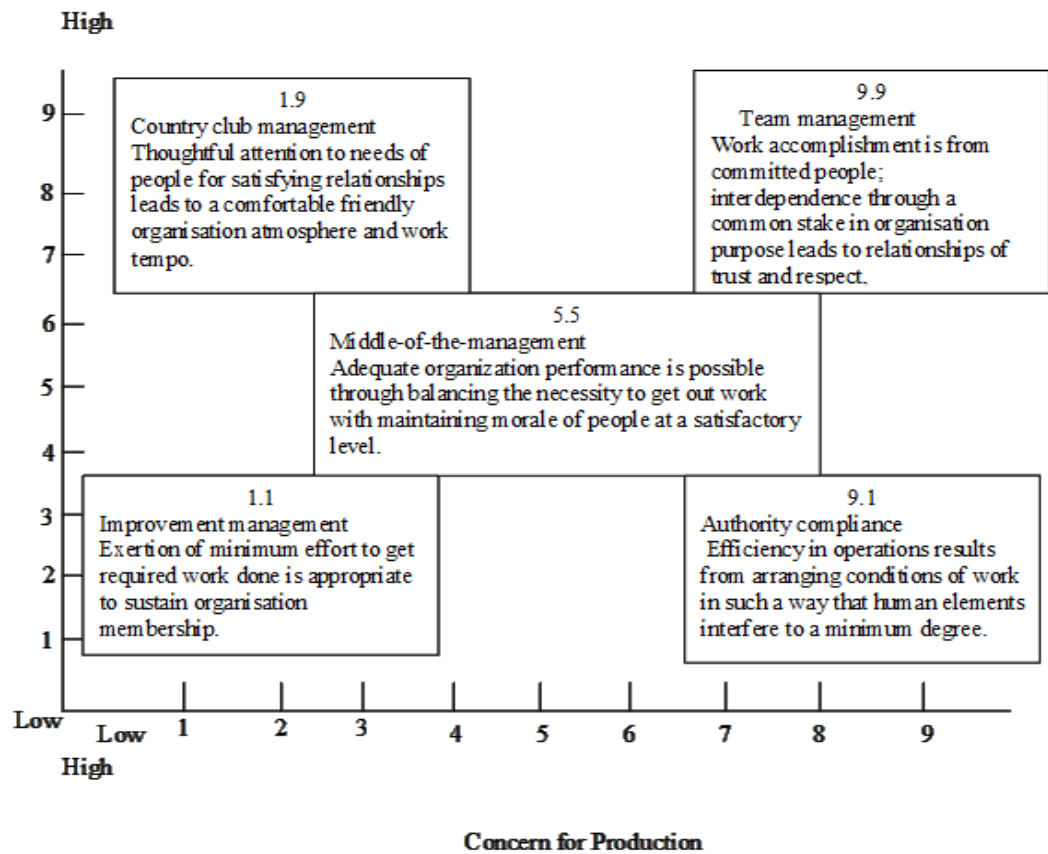


Figure 1. The Leadership Grid (Bolman & Deal, 1994)

Contingency Theories of Leadership

The contingency view of leadership emerged from systems theory and its impact on organisational and administrative theory. According to this model, specific leader behaviours relate to group performance and satisfaction. In order to achieve this, certain variables interact with each other such as the leader himself, the position he holds, group members, internal, and external environment of the organisation. A successful match between the leader and the group’s performance and satisfaction is “contingent” upon these variables. Three situational variables intervene between the leader’s style and effectiveness which are leader-member relations, task structure, and power

position. Groups are classified as either favourable or unfavourable based on these criteria (Monahan & Hengst, 1982).

First, Fiedler's (1997) contingency model claims that if organisational performance is to be improved, we must cope not only with the leader's style but also with the situational factors which influence him/her. Organisational performance can be improved either by the leader's fit to the situation or the situation's fit to the leader. Fiedler (1991) also states that leadership traits, if exist at all, would be exposed to many outside effects. Therefore, they are difficult to identify. He argues that a variety of causes may force a man to become a leader, many of which are totally unrelated to personality attributes one of which is inheritance of leadership.

He suggests that dealing with leadership effectiveness would be more logical and beneficial on the grounds that the ability to motivate other people may well be dependent upon one or more personality traits. A leader is effective to the extent to which he renders his group more productive. Thus, a leadership effectiveness trait can be termed as consistent and measurable personality attributes which separate effective leaders from ineffective ones. However, the behaviour related with these traits will reveal itself only under appropriate conditions.

According to the Cognitive Resource theory which the latest version of Fiedler's contingency theory; cognitive resources are abilities and a leader's directive or non-directive behaviour. Directiveness is most helpful when the leader is competent, relaxed, and supported. When the leader is under stress, experience is more important than ability. There is less leader impact when the group support is low. When the leader is non-directive, group member ability

becomes the most important component and there is strong support from the group members (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1994). This implies that though there can be different instances where certain behaviours can be exhibited by leaders, every leader has a particular behaviour which identifies him or her in a particular category of leadership.

Situational Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's situational approach, stipulates that, leadership is the process of influencing an individual's or a group's activities in their efforts to goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition of leadership, it can be understood that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and the situation which can be formulated as follows: $L = f(l, f, s)$.

The focus of the situational approach to leadership is on observed behaviour, not on any hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. Utmost importance is attached to the behaviour of leaders, their group members (followers) and various situations. Thus, training individuals in adapting styles of leader behaviour to varying situations is of prime importance. Therefore, through education, training and development most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles. By observing frequency or infrequency of certain leader behaviour in numerous types of situations, theoretical models can be developed so as to aid a leader to adopt the most appropriate leader behaviour for the present situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

This model claims that the most effective leadership style is contingent upon the readiness level of the group members. It has two components: Ability

refers to the skill, knowledge and experience an individual or group brings to a particular task and Willingness refers to confidence, motivation, and commitment an individual or group has in order to achieve a specific task.

The crucial aspect of situational leadership theory is that a leader should depend more on relationship behaviour and less on task behaviour as readiness level of the group members increases. Minimum of task and relationship behaviour is required when a group member is very ready (DuBrin, 1995).

Others Approaches to Leadership

The importance of leadership has led to its evolution, hence recent theories developed to understand leadership put aside all the complex and sophisticated explanations about leadership behaviour and attempted to examine leadership from the point of view of ordinary and simple people (Robbins, 1998).

Attribution Theory of Leadership

According to this theory, people have hidden leadership theories in their minds about what makes a good leader or, in another words, they have a leadership prototype; an image of a model leader. These implicit theories or prototypes refer to a mix of specific and more general characteristics. The leader is favourable provided that he or she appeals to the implicit theories of the followers.

Leadership is regarded as something to be largely symbolic and in “the eye of the beholder” (Schermerhorn et al., 1994). One of the most interesting aspects of this theory is that effective leaders are associated with consistency in the decision making phase (Robbins, 1998). The implication is that if a

leader of a group should exhibit certain leadership qualities which do not conform to the preferred or expected leadership qualities of the followers, then that leader is not considered as a good leader by the followers of the group. This approach to leadership may be seen as myopic in the sense that, it does not give the leader the freedom to explore other leadership possibilities which may be equally important to the development of the group.

Charismatic Leadership Theory

Sinha (1995) defines charisma as a “magical aura” which only a few leaders may be granted. Max Weber (cited in Sinha, 1995) maintains that there are three bases of authority which are traditions, rights and privileges and charisma which is synonymous with heroism and an exemplary character of a person. Owing to his character, strength and skill, super human qualities are attributed to a leader who saves his followers from a crisis or a catastrophic event and becomes an idol providing direction speech, capacity to take risks and above all the emotions of his subordinates (Sinha, 1995).

Bass (1990) categorised charismatic leaders into five types: *Socialised charismatic* refers to a leader who is in pursuit of fulfilling the needs of the group members and providing intellectual stimulation to them. *Personalized charismatic* refers a leader who offers consideration, help, and support to group members only when it helps to achieve their own goals. *Office holder charismatic* refers to a leader who owns respect and recognition through the office or status he holds not because of his personal characteristics. *Personal charismatic* refers to a leader who exerts influence on others owing to his personal traits and skills not his high status or position. *Divine charismatic* refers to a leader who is believed to be endowed with a gift or divine grace

Robert J. House (as cited in DuBrin, 1995) identified nine effects which charismatic leaders have on their followers such as group member's trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs, congruence between the leader's and the group's beliefs, acceptance of the leader, affection for the leader, willing obedience to the leader, identification with and admiration for the leader, emotional involvement of the group member in the mission, challenging goals of the group members and belief in the accomplishment of the mission. Later, these nine effects were statistically clustered into three dimensions: *referent power* refers to the ability of the leader to influence others with the help of his desirable traits and characteristics; *expert power* refers to the ability of the leader to influence others through his specialized knowledge and skills; *job involvement* refers to the ability of the leader to encourage group members toward the accomplishment of the job (DuBrin, 1995).

Though these authors describe the charismatic leader in different perspectives, however, they tend to portray similar attributes of the leader. In that, they see this leader as a leader who pulls the members of the group to him or herself as a result of his or her personal qualities. Therefore unlike attributive type of leadership where the leader is expected to exhibit the group's expected qualities the charismatic type of leadership tends to have the leader's influence on the group as a result of the personal qualities of the leader. Hence the two approaches may be seen as directly opposite.

Transactional and Transformational Approaches

Burns (cited in Deluga, 1995) holds that leadership cannot be separated from followers' needs and goals. Its essence lies in the interaction between the follower and the leader. This interaction takes fundamentally two different forms: transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership occurs when there is an exchange between people which can be economic, political or psychological in nature. The relationship between the leader and the follower is purely based on bargaining and it does not go beyond this. However, transformational leadership occurs when the leader and the follower elevates one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Carlson (1996) points out that Burns felt that leadership theories developed up to the mid-seventies were lacking ethical/moral dimensions so he elaborated on his exchange theory which maintains that followers play a crucial role in the definition of leadership. This theory is made up of power relations and entails bargaining, trading and compromise among leaders and followers.

This transactional model has a political basis and emphasises the need to look closely at sociocultural aspects that have an impact on the leader-follower relationships. According to Stodgill (1997), these can be external factors such as the availability or scarcity of resources, changes in the society, and a competitive environment that influences an organisation which also in return affects the leadership of the group as well. Transactional leaders encourage subordinates by appealing to their self-interest and offering rewards in exchange of work effort which are contingent reward and management by exception.

Again, Leithwood (1992) states that transactional leadership practices according to some people, help people recognise what needs to be done in order to reach a desired outcome and may also increase their confidence and motivation. According to Stoll and Fink (1996), transactional leaders are effective when the purposes of the institution are clearly defined. That is to say, in the schools leaders or heads could motivate teachers through several kinds of reward with the view of improving students' performance. Transformational leaders urge followers to go beyond their self-interests and be concerned about their organisation. They help followers to realize and develop their potential. These leaders identify the needs of their followers and then consider those needs to enhance development. They gather their followers around a common purpose, mission or vision and provide a sense of purpose and future direction. Furthermore, they act as role models for their followers and encourage them to question problems that underlie basic assumptions from different perspectives. They want their followers to regard challenges as opportunities and they cooperate with them to elevate expectations, needs, abilities, and moral character (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

In the 1990s, Bass and Avolio developed the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) so as to identify four distinct characteristics of transformational leaders, which are called as "4Is":

Idealised influence or charisma: Based on follower reactions and leader behaviour. Followers identify with and admire these leaders. Such leaders are deeply respected, have referent power, set high standards and challenging goals for their followers

Inspirational motivation: Depends on how much followers wish to identify with the leader. The leader makes use of symbols and images to raise awareness of shared and desired goals

Intellectual stimulation: Followers let go of their past. They are encouraged to question their own beliefs, values, and expectations, as well as those of the leader and the organisation itself.

Individualised consideration: Different but equal treatment of the followers. The leader delegates assignments to followers to provide learning opportunities and coaches them if they need it (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Leithwood (1992) suggests that transformational school leaders adopt a widely shared vision for the school and clarify its meaning in terms of its practical implications and instruction. In addition to this, they make use of all available resources and opportunities to communicate the school's vision to staff, students, parents and others. They also focus on teachers' professional goals and if possible align these goals with those of the school. Moreover, they make use of the school goals in the decision making process. They encourage their staff to be innovative, hardworking and professional and they also search for these qualities when they recruit staff. In terms of administrative processes, they delegate responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school by providing teachers with autonomy in their decisions.

The transactional urges the leader to tell the followers what to do in order to achieve a desired reward for their efforts, whereas the transformational one allows the leader to interfere with the subordinates' work only when specifications or standards are not met (Hunt, 1991). DuBrin (1995) states that charismatic and transformational leadership are closely

related with each other in literature, but reminds the reader that not all leaders are transformational until they bring about a change in their organisations

Visionary Leadership

Visionary leadership is the ability to create and express a realistic, attainable and attractive vision of the future for organisations which grow continuously. Visionary leaders should create inspiring and innovative visions for their organisations rendering them credible in the eyes of the people in the organisation at the same time.

Visionary leaders have three qualities, which are related to their effectiveness. First, is the ability to explain and articulate the vision to the others. Second, is to express the vision not just verbally but through the leader's behaviour. Third, is to communicate the vision to different leadership contexts. For example, the vision of the organisation should appeal to employees in different departments (Robbins, 1998).

Educational Leadership Theory

Sergiovanni (1994) claims that educational administration borrows its fundamental concepts for thinking about the structure and coordination of schools; rules and regulations within a school; leadership and how it works from organisational theory which itself is derived from management theory. It adopted such terms as quality, productivity and efficiency and its strategies to achieve them. Moreover, it has borrowed its theories of human nature and motivation from economics which asserts that human beings rely on self-interest and seek to maximise their gains and minimise their losses. Furthermore, he declares that the ways in which we understand schools and

view leadership depends upon whether we regard them as communities (gemeinschaft) or societies (gesellschaft). In a community individuals relate to each other by intrinsic meaning and significance. There is no expectation of a reward or benefit. However, in a society individuals relate to each other in order to reach some goal or gain benefit.

By adopting community as a theory, schools should be restructured not by brick and mortar but by ideas and relationships. On the other hand, Slater (1995) declares that leadership is rooted in Sociology and it has four social paradigms, which are a) structural functionalist, b) political conflict, c) constructivist, and d) critical humanist perspective. From the structural functionalist perspective leadership comprises a set of measurable skills. Science can aid us to explore leadership and improve our understanding of how it works and how it can be used to promote group performance (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Reductionist leadership theory can be examined under structural functionalism. It holds that there are substitutes for leadership, some of which are outcomes of the socialization process such as experience, education, professional orientation, and incentives. Others have to do with group task and organisational structure such as rules and regulations, division of labour, centralisation and decentralisation, and spatial arrangements (Slater, 1995).

From the political-conflict perspective, leadership is seen as a power relationship between those who are dominant and those who are subordinate. Some people always have more power than others do. Moreover, subordinates think that their superior's power is legitimate. The study of leadership of those who adopt the political-conflict perspective is not simply interpreting power

structures in society, but also studying how educational administration and the organisation of schooling relate to these power structures (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Feminist theory of leadership can be considered as a sub-category of political conflict theory for it is concerned with power relationships and social change. Advocates of this theory argue that gender is the single criterion for determining superiority and subordination. They claim that women are recruited to lower positions and relegated to lower echelons than men simply because they are women. They suffer gender oppression as leader-follower relationship has always been patriarchal (Slater, 1995).

From the constructivist perspective, prescriptions about leader behaviour are nonsense as any behaviour can qualify as a leadership behaviour if it meets certain conditions and conveys meaning (Slater, 1995). As opposed to structural functionalist which holds that there is a single reality, a nature which can be discovered and analysed in terms of its parts, and working relationships, constructivists claim that realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Attribution theory which is a subcategory of constructivism maintains that leadership, in essence, is not effective but people need to believe in it anyway because they need to believe in something (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Actually, it is an anti-leadership theory in that leaders do not actually have so much to do with solving problems for they are themselves surrounded by history, politics, protocol, and their environment.

From the critical humanist perspective, leadership is symbolic and values shape the decision making process (Slater, 1995). Critical humanists are committed to social change. They do not support, like structural-functionalists do, that educational administration research is exempt from

values (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Duke (1998) develops a normative perspective about leadership which supports that leadership cannot be fully understood unless it is studied within the immediate context in which it is perceived to exist. Furthermore, he asserts that growing interest in how leaders and leadership are perceived urged him to develop an aesthetic theory of leadership which holds that leadership should be thought of as a perception. It has no existence until an observer perceives it. Therefore, a leader's declaration of leadership by itself is of little value. Meaning should be attached to what a leader does or does not do, who a leader is or not, or what a leader does or does not symbolise.

Ethical leadership, similar to aesthetic leadership theory, also has a normative content and it forms a subcategory of critical-humanism (Bolman & Deal, 1994). Calabrese (cited in Slater, 1995) states that effective schools are synonymous with ethical leadership which is concerned with fairness, equity, commitment, responsibility, and obligation. He maintains that the headteachers' actions should be regulated by traditional ethical guidelines and integrated with the values of a democratic society. Starrat (cited in Slater, 1994) asserts that school leaders should commit themselves to three ethics: the ethic of critique, caring, and justice.

Maxcy (1995) contends that contemporary leadership theory is deteriorating and that even experts cannot tell the difference between leadership and pure luck. People are undergoing a societal and cultural change so newer metaphors, words, problem solving techniques are needed as the old ones have become futile. Furthermore, Maxcy criticises such efforts to frame and label leadership by urging framework thinkers to question the validity of

frame working itself. There are difficulties with the framework thinking and one is the assumption that leadership can be described objectively. Next, is the belief that leadership is a single real phenomenon about which there are different and contradictory views.

Gronn and Ribbins (1996) support Maxcy's criticism against framework thinkers and they suggest that leadership should be studied with the help of a holistic approach. They put forward three types of leadership contexts which are categorical, interpretive and relational. Categorical conceptions of contexts view leadership phenomena as singular and plural entities like "leader" and "followers", "superordinate" and "subordinate." By the effect of the leader followers change their behaviours and this is expressed in numerical measures as increased level of worker satisfaction, enhanced performance, and the like. Similar to the normative and instrumental approaches of which transformational leadership is a representative of.

Bolman and Deal (1994) suggest that leadership is inevitably political as the power to get things done is very significant. When various individuals struggle for power to realise special interests, conflict is inescapable. However, political leaders view conflict as a means of acquiring cohesion and unity. Moreover, when public school sector is concerned, Cronin (cited in Bolman & Deal, 1994) states that the public school leader has to be political and creative by building coalitions, negotiating with forces and constituencies of greater power. Furthermore, Bolman and Deal (1994) claim that leadership is inherently symbolic for leadership is contextual and leaders should have a deep understanding of the cultures with which they are integrated. Effective leaders value symbols and recognise the importance of articulating a vision

that provides purpose, direction and meaning to an organisation. Slater (1994) also supports symbolic leadership and develops a counter argument to Maxcy's democracy. Slater thinks that symbolic leadership can remedy two weaknesses of democracy which are bearing a tendency to favour conformity of thought; discouraging critical thinking, and underestimating the power of symbols. He states that symbolic leadership is necessary to articulate values and choices that most people find convenient.

The diverse opinions and theories on the appropriate leadership for the achievement of set goals in the educational field shows the importance of educational leadership in any academic institution, hence must not be underestimated. There is no stipulated leadership style for the educational field, however, some styles are more effective than others in terms of goal achievement.

Types of Leadership Styles

There is variety of styles among leaders. Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) identified some as democratic, participative, bureaucratic and directive. Styles of all leaders do not have the same effect on person and job satisfaction is significantly associated with discrimination level at work place. The more the discrimination by supervisors, the less the job satisfaction in employees, but the leaders and employees who face more interaction with each other might have more impact on job fit and person by influencing behaviours, values and attitudes of employees (Meglino et al., 1991).

Participative Leadership Style

According to Kearneya (1994), participative decision making approach plays a very important role in employees' job satisfaction. The employees achieve lots of personal benefits from this approach including human resource benefits like housing provided, group insurance, disability income protection, retirement benefits, sick leave, social security, and profit sharing. Participating in decision making has a constructive effect on employee responses towards their job, in view of the fact that such contribution highlights self-worth or needs for self-actualisation and achievement.

Bureaucratic Leadership Style

The predetermined rules and policies of organisation. In this style leaders are not dynamic and they never change their behaviour with the changing environment. James Sorensen has studied a comparison between bureaucracy and professionalism in an organisation. In his research Sorensen concluded that bureaucracy has significant impact on job satisfaction and more bureaucracy leads to more dissatisfaction among employees and, on the other hand, more professionalism leads to increased job satisfaction, the study indicated that there is no significant relation between autocratic and bureaucratic leadership style and job satisfaction (Sorensen cited in Yukongdi, 2010).

Directive Leadership Style

Directive leadership can be defined as an instruction given by the leader to their subordinates regarding what to do, how to do and when to do. Cronkite ED.D said that directive style could be used in urgent situation to

stop unnecessary activities and to compel people towards new things. The undue appliance could negatively affect the group performance, predominantly the people with high performance. The ability of the people to make themselves fit into and contribute towards the organisational goal decline and also people become less committed on having this leadership. In order to have effective use of directive leadership it should be used along with other leadership styles. Directive leadership involves lots of direction and strong influence of leader. This style involves direct instructions to be followed. Though it is not encouraged now days but still deemed useful in unwanted or crucial situations (Charles & Harrington, cited in Bimpeh, 2012).

Skills of Headteachers

Supervisory skills

According to McEwan (2003), in a rapidly changing environment, headteachers no longer serve as primarily supervisors. They are being called on to lead in the redesign of their schools and school systems. In an outcome-based and accountability-driven era, administrators have to lead their schools in the rethinking of goals, priorities, finances, staffing, curriculum, pedagogies, learning resources, assessment methods, technology, and use of time and space. They have to recruit and retain top staff members and educate newcomers and veterans alike to understand and become comfortable with an education system undergoing dramatic and continuing change. They have to ensure the professional development that teachers and administrators receive is effective. They have to prepare parents and students for the new realities and provide them with the support necessary to succeed. They have to engage

in continuous evaluation and school improvement, create a sense of community, and build morale in a time of transformation.

Headteachers play an important role as leaders of the school and they influence different functions within the schools with their behaviours, personal characteristics, and biases. Many researchers (Hughes, 1999; McEwan, 2003; Smith & Piele, 2006; Ubben, Hughes & Norris, 2001) have attempted to define different characteristics of a successful headteacher. Though there is a wide range of characteristics listed by these researchers, there are several commonalities. Most importantly, nearly all of these studies list the following characteristics as being important: the headteacher as a learner, planner, visionary, politician, advocate, organisational developer, manager, leader, and agent of change. Though these characteristics are described in slightly different manners, they all demonstrate that an effective headteacher must embody characteristics that enable him or her to adapt to different situations.

Fullan (1991) argues that the headteacher's job is to ensure that essential things get done, not to do it all by themselves. In principle, many headteachers would agree, however, in practice the administration, management or leadership do vary and many headteachers appear to be victims of the moment. As the leading professional in the school, the headteacher should ensure the school is well managed and organised, providing leadership and direction. In order to support teachers and other staff, they should ensure there are appropriate policies and procedures in place, and ensure resources are used effectively and efficiently and good relationships are fostered within the whole school community.

Interpersonal or people skills

On headteachers' communication skills and administrative effectiveness, Mbiti (2000) remarked that communication is the life blood of any organisation. No institution can meet the needs of its people without proper communication. Information has to flow from the school management to the staff and students, heads of departments must be briefed by the headteacher before disseminating the news to other members of staff and students. Headteachers should however make judicious use of communication skills to encourage good communication between the school and community,

Palsey (2003) in his research on thinking about school as organisation concludes that organisation may be said to exist, therefore, when there are people with an ability to communicate, willingness to contribute and who have aims and purpose in common. To explain the influence of communication skills on administrative effectiveness of headteachers therefore, Scott and Mitchell (1996) mention four (4) major functions of communication as follows:

1. Communication gives employees the opportunity of expressing their feelings and also serves as medium of resolution of conflicts, reducing tension and refining direction for individuals.
2. It serves a motivational function of encouraging achievement in subordinates.
3. It provides the necessary information for decision making.
4. It is used to control the activities in an organisation (school).

Organisation skill of the headteachers emanate from an element of management. Organisation, however, is a process, a conversion process. It is

the process of arranging and allocating work, authority and resources among organisation membership for the pursuit of the goals of the organisation. It is the process of engaging two or more people in a working relationship in a structural system. Research by McEwan (2003) found that successful headteachers are communicating one hundred percent of the time by listening, speaking, writing, and reading. Often the headteacher will use written communication to parents, students, and staff. The importance of correct grammar and spelling is crucial (Holman, 1997).

It is known that the role of the school headteacher demands essential dispositions of skills and cognitive schemes. According to Leithwood and Steinbach (1995), common dispositions among headteachers include a great passion, zeal, and enthusiasm for education. A prominent strength of the effective headteacher is the sense of ethics and includes treating people with respect, exhibiting honesty as a policy, and demonstrating and modeling ethical behaviour on a daily basis (Whitaker, 2003). The effective headteacher does things right, keeping in mind that the student's welfare is the bottom line (McEwan, 2003). As confirmed by Begley and Johansson (2003), the values and the morals of school headteachers strengthen their role as school leaders.

Again, the headteachers' role is that of a servant leader, a new leadership role adapted from the post-industrial paradigm (Murphy, 2005, p. 33). As a servant leader, the headteacher's prime responsibility is that of his followers and ethical in nature. The concept of servant leadership includes nurturing, defending and empowering. The headteacher's role is to attend to the needs of the followers, accept the responsibility and make followers healthier. The headteacher must be a listener to the needs of the followers,

share pain and frustration with them that is when teachers face hard times. The empowerment role is important in this sense. Instead of using authority to dominate the staff, trust is established, honesty to one another is cherished. The leader is open, an action keeper and consistent with values and shows concern of trust. Social injustice and inequality is opposed, for it destroys the organisation (Yukl, 2002).

Highly motivated headteachers are likely to be more effective in influencing learner academic performance than individuals with low need, value, expectation, and goals levels. Hay and Miskel (1996, p. 379) identifies three motivational trails as especially critical for leaders, and say, “Task and interpersonal needs are two underlying dispositions that motivate effective leaders. Effective leaders are characterized by their drive for the task and their concern for the people. Power and achievement values refer to motives of individuals to seek position of authority, to exercise power over others, and to achieve. High expectations for success of school administrators refer to their belief that they can do the job and will receive valued outcomes for their efforts.”

Coaching skills

Rutherford (2007) defined coaching sessions as the different ways in which instructional conversations take place in order to impact teachers’ talents and their instructional delivery methods. Although coaching teachers is important, very few instructional leaders have had training in this area (Holland, 2007). Generally, coaching teachers allow headteachers to focus on improving teaching and learning and has become, “the tool of choice for striving districts” (Wong & Wong, 2008, p. 63). Blase and Blase (2004)

reported that coaching teachers has a positive effect on instructional practices. Blase and Blase (2004) identified five ways that coaching contributes to the transfer of knowledge:

1. Teachers that are coached often practice newly found skills more frequently.
2. Teachers that are coached utilise their new knowledge more appropriately.
3. Teachers that are coached are more likely to try new strategies with their students.
4. Teachers that are coached show a greater retention of the new skills acquired.
5. Teachers that are coached have a better understanding of the new skills and how to apply them in the classroom.

“Effective instructional leadership by school headteachers tends to affect teachers holistically, that is, emotionally, intellectually, and behaviourally” (Blase & Blase, 2004, p. 163). Supporting teachers starts with engaging in instructional coaching situations that promote professional growth in teachers. Coaching teachers instructionally emerged as an educational trend in the 1980’s. Instructional coaching allows teachers to reflect on teaching practices, assist other educators, and collaborate (Matsumura, Sartoris, Bickel & Garneir, 2009).

Administrative skills

The headteacher occupies the most important position in school as a leader. He or she is considered to be pivotal in coordinating school activities between parents, students, staff and the community as a whole. Sergiovanni

(1994) suggests the traditional role of the headteacher was focused on administrative processes and functions mostly on school work because the headteacher is an academic school expert with certain qualifications.

Headteachers are required to set direction. Evidence reviewed by Leithwood and Riehl (2005) suggested that successful leadership creates a compelling sense of purpose in the institutions by developing and communicating a shared vision of the future, helping build agreement about related short-term goals, and representing high expectations for colleagues' work. They agree that direction setting is closely linked with perquisites for responsibility and shared visions emphasising learning over the lifetime. In guiding the educational process, many related issues emerge to explain the direction of the organisation.

While headteachers have many different roles, they must be visionaries. The mission and purpose of a school are very important to its success. Mission and purpose define the vision of a school and the measures of its success; according to Deal and Peterson (1999), "at the heart of a school's culture are its mission and purpose, the focus of what people do" (p. 23). In school communities shared vision supports the establishment of school culture, which is a primary variable in school success, "visionary leaders continually identify and communicate the hopes and dreams of the school, thus refocusing and refining the school's purpose and mission" (Deal & Peterson, 1999, p. 89). When leaders have a vision, staff and students are motivated to do better; when leaders have a vision, school quality increases. In addition, leaders know that their goal is to improve themselves and the school staff.

As administrators, supervisors need basic administrative skills. They should be able to manage information and establish effective record keeping in the instructional areas. They should be able to work effectively with other administrators; they must be able to think like administrators. In short, the supervisor as an administrator is an attitude as well as a set of skills. Tanner and Tanner (1987) mentioned that from the twentieth century onwards, the task of supervision has become more administrative work. This behaviour of supervisors allows them to perform administrative roles such as setting standards for quality work, drawing action plans and evaluate performance and set new target.

Successful headteachers empower staff through collaboration and shared leadership; they also encourage risk taking and problem solving (Davenport & Anderson, 2002). They found that the involvement of teachers, as well as parents, contributes to a reduction of resistance to change, an increase in the quality of decision making, and enhancement of successful programme implementation. Headteachers who implement a model of shared leadership and decision making realise that change is likely to be successful when staff members implementing such changes have a voice in decision-making.

The headteacher typically takes a particularly strong leadership role when initiating shared leadership within a school. Although implementing shared leadership takes effort and planning, spending time discussing how to accomplish this goal may not make much sense to busy teachers. Frequently, it is more effective to let teachers see the value of sharing leadership firsthand by identifying an issue or a problem and using a collaborative approach to

solve it. As the group become comfortable with the logistics of sharing leadership, the headteacher often moves out of the supervisory role and into the role of col- league, while still facilitating dialogue, supporting the group, synthesising information, and continually focusing the group on the school's vision.

Management skills

A project's success is, in part, contingent on effectively managing the constraints of time, costs, and performance expectations. In order to achieve this it is essential that the project manager possess and display appropriate leadership skills. By applying the appropriate leadership attributes such as balance, proficiency, persistence, sound decision making, imagination, vision, values, integrity, trust, and sincerity a project manager could direct projects effectively and efficiently (Maylor, 2003). Knutson (2001) suggested that the project manager as a leader needs to fulfill the following requirements:

1. determination of the organisation's purpose or vision,
2. the exploitation or maintenance of core competencies,
3. development of human capital,
4. sustaining an effective organisational culture,
5. emphasise ethical practices,
6. establish balanced organisational controls, and
7. provide mechanism to transfer knowledge across all parts in the project.

In contrast, Meredith, Posner and Mantel (1995) categorised the required skills of project managers as communication, organisation, team building, leadership, coping and technological skills. Meredith et al. (1995)

asserted that the categories embodied a wide range of abilities linked to the inherent characteristics of the project management role, such as working under defined time and resource constraints and achieving unique outcomes. In summary, the role of a project manager is one of prioritising and ensuring that diversions from the established objectives are avoided (Waddell, 2005).

Financial management skills

Headteachers, as school financial managers, are expected to perform the following managerial functions (Van Deventer & Kruger 2005, p. 66):

1. Implement the school financial policies and regulations.
2. Manage the school financial organisation, planning, leading and controlling of all educational activities in their schools in order to achieve the school's objectives.
3. Develop educational goals, policies and strategies for the entire school from the broad, general strategies and policies of the Education Department and to translate them into specific goals and action plans.
4. Establish target dates for school projects to be completed, developing criteria for evaluating their staffs' performance, allocating resources to projects and translating the Education Department's general goals into specific operational plans, schedules and procedures.
5. Ensure that quality teaching and learning continues to take place in their schools.
6. Ensure that the schools' financial policies are executed. This entails management of the schools' assets and liabilities.

Other management tasks important to school headteachers include giving financial direction to the staff, setting financial outcomes or needs and

allocating financial resources to the school as a whole. Good management of school finances means that headteachers should involve parents, community members, staff and learners when making financial decisions. Headteachers, as school financial managers, need to look for ways in which the interest and ability of each individual stakeholder can contribute to effective financial management.

Factors that Influence Choice of Leadership Styles

There have been several common and scholarly articles investigating the factors that are responsible for the choice of leadership style(s) among leaders, especially headteachers. Bimpeh (2012) undertook a study on the topic; “Factors Influencing Leadership and Teacher Performance in the Senior High Schools in the Ho Municipality of the Volta Region of Ghana.” The respondents including heads, assistant heads and teachers were non-probabilistically chosen from Mawuli Senior High School, Mawuko Girls Senior High School and OLA Girls Senior High School. Using the factor analysis, identified five factors. These included the following:

1. Interpersonal and communication factor;
2. Intellectual and work management factor;
3. People and work management factor;
4. Purposeful, inclusive and values driven factor; and
5. Gender factor.

Similarly, Naremo (2012) investigated the factors influencing the choice of leadership styles in Baringo secondary schools in Kenya. The following emerged as the main factors influencing leadership styles, 1. Availability of resources, 2. The high staff turnover, 3. School traditions, 4.

The nature, size, and status of schools, 5. Stakeholders' demands, and 6. Geographical locations of the schools.

In a related development, Alabi and Alabi (2014) also studied on the topic, "Understanding of the Factors that Influence Leadership Effectiveness of Deans in Ghana." This study was qualitative in nature and was conducted at the University of Professional Studies, Accra (UPSA) and other two tertiary institutions in the country. They found the following as factors which affect the leadership effectiveness of deans. They mentioned Vision and strategy development; Clearly defined roles and responsibilities, performance management and accountability systems; Effective communication; Results-or goal-oriented; Team skills; Follow-through and follow-up; Decision-making, negotiation, conflict management and problem solving; Quality assurance, documentation and records management; Develop and communicate job descriptions, annual work plans and appraisal performance of faculty members; Management systems and focus on improving teaching, learning, research and community service; Competence of members; Project management skills; Use goals, milestones, and control mechanisms to measure and manage performance; and Human resource management skills.

Relationship between Leadership Styles and Pupils' Academic Performance

A principal's leadership is critical to the achievement of students (Murphy, 2005). Huff, Lake, and Schaalman (1982) investigated the relationship between a principal's leadership traits and student achievement. Their findings support the hypothesis that principals in high-performing schools have different attributes than their counterparts in low-performing

schools. For example, they found that in high performing schools, principals have stronger affective traits and cognitive analytical skills. They also found high performing principals to be more focused and involved with change.

Beare, Caldwell, and Milliken (1989) found that “outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools” (p. 13). “Effective leadership is a multifaceted process that is often defined through both subjective and objective measures of leader behaviour and its effect on organisational processes and outcomes” (Davis, 1998, p. 59). A study by Andrew and Soder (1987) reported the behaviours of instructional leaders’ impacted the performance of student achievement, especially low achieving students. Their findings showed that, as perceived by teachers, achievement scores in reading and mathematics showed significant gains in schools with strong instructional leaders compared to schools with weak instructional leaders.

A slightly different approach in studying the relationship between leadership styles of principals and achievement outcomes was implemented by Fuller (1989) when he/she investigated what principals report they do in an effort to enhance student achievement. Principals included in the sample had to exhibit two characteristics: (a) they had to be in the school for at least 4 consecutive years, and (b) the California achievement reading, writing, and mathematics programme means scores of their third grade students had to continuously improve or decline between 1985 and 1988. Fuller utilised a rational decision making behaviour instrument to solicit principals’ recollections concerning what they did about the problem of student achievement in their respective schools. Principals with improving student

achievement scores indicated it was their personal goal to raise student scores, tended to own the problem more than principals in schools with declining student achievement scores, and also recognised the problem was complex and needed in-depth analysis. In contrast, principals in the schools with declining achievement scores, tended to delegate responsibilities in dealing with the problem, claim that it was not under their control, or minimise the magnitude of the problem.

Hallinger, Bickman and Davis (1996) reported no direct effect of leadership styles on student achievement, but they did suggest there is an indirect effect on school effectiveness through actions that form the school's culture. Heck, Larsen and Maccoulides (1990) suggested the relationship between a principal's leadership style and level of student achievement are extremely complex. Rather than a particular style, they found principals of high-achieving schools evidenced more incidences of involving staff in decisions and parents in programmes, protecting faculty, communicating goals and expectations, recognising achievement, observing teachers, securing resources, and evaluating programmes. Their findings indicated the relationship between leadership and achievement is indirect and probably two directional.

Hallinger and Heck (1998) conducted a study exploring the relationship between leadership and student achievement for the years 1980 through 1995. Their results showed leaders have an indirect, but measurable, effect on how well students' achieve in their schools. The greatest influence the principal exercised was through the development and implementation of a clear vision, a coherent mission and attainable goals.

The link between the leadership styles of the principal, culture, and student achievement is more indirect. Accumulating evidence has shown that principals influence student achievement indirectly through establishing school goals, setting high student and staff expectations, organising classrooms, allocating resources, promoting a positive and orderly learning environment, and communicating with school staff, parents, and community groups rather than directly through training teachers to better instruct, visiting classrooms, and making frequent teacher evaluations (Griffith, 1999, p. 287).

Eberts and Stone (1988) determined that a principal's effect on student achievement results from his/her interactions with teachers. The interactions include identifying clear objectives, spending time in classrooms, providing support and guidance as well as rewards and incentives. The principal accepts accountability for student achievement (Brewer, 1993).

According to the Review of Teaching in Teacher Education (2003), the role of leadership has been found to be particularly important in creating positive, innovative and productive learning cultures and the facilitation of quality teaching. It has been recognised that a positive school culture can take years to develop, with there being powerful, yet hard to discern deeply rooted causes and manifestations of school culture. Leadership is highly influential in the development of such cultures (Schein, 1985). However, leadership succession is also a key issue.

Hargreaves and Fink (2004) note how highly successful and dynamic schools can quickly slide backwards with the departure of a successful leader. They also note that deeper, more lasting change is preferable to brief, temporary 'flurries of change' in building the foundation for more lasting

improvement. Research in a number of countries has demonstrated that leadership is also a key factor influencing teachers' occupational satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 2010), in turn a powerful determinant of teachers' professional learning and the quality of teaching and learning in a school. Finally, the earlier concentration on the principal has been broadened to include other leaders such as deputy head, faculty or department heads and teachers themselves (Busher & Harris, 2000; Ayres, Dinham & Sawyer, 2000). The focus of attention has moved from leaders to leadership with the importance of delegation, trust and empowerment being increasingly recognised. There has been a realisation that leadership has both formal and 'distributive' aspects, with every teacher is a potential leader.

Gender of Headteacher and Academic Performance of School

Kythreotis and Pashiardis (cited in Nyongesa, 2012) also found that female school headteachers' impact student achievement more than male school headteachers. They argue that interpersonal relations constitute a more central point of reference of the managerial style of women and allow them to exhibit a more democratic and participative style (Coleman, 1998). This, too, concurred with the findings obtained from schools led by female headteachers.

Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis of gender differences in leadership effectiveness revealed mixed findings. An analysis of task-oriented style and interpersonal oriented style showed that women and men did not differ on these dimensions in organisational studies. On the other hand, significant gender differences were reported in the use of democratic leadership in organisational, experimental and assessment studies (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992). Women used a more participative and inclusive

style of leadership and men were more likely to use a directive, controlling style. In another meta-analysis of gender and leadership style among school principals, results indicated that female principals were more likely to adopt a more democratic style of leadership, while males adopted a more autocratic style of leadership. The recent meta-analysis conducted by Eagly et al. (1992) shows small differences between men and women in leadership effectiveness. They concluded that, 'the data attest to the ability of women to perform well in leadership roles in contemporary organisations.'

In a study conducted by Nyongesa (2012) among headteachers in Kenya, the results, regarding the effect of gender on the academic success of the students of primary schools, revealed that female headteachers exert significant positive effect ($p < 0.05$) on the academic success of the students than the male headteachers. In case of secondary schools, it was found that the students under male headteachers performed significantly ($p < .001$) better in the final examinations than the students under female headteachers. Significant ($p < .05$) effect of gender on the academic success of the students was also observed taking all the schools together regardless of the school type, where students under male headteachers performed significantly ($p < .05$) better than they did under female headteachers. From the analysis of results one thing is clear that gender of the headteachers whether the headteachers are working in the primary schools or in the secondary schools have distinctive significant effect on the academic achievement of the students. Here, male headteachers are predominantly playing the vital role in influencing the students achieve their goals in the secondary schools. On the other hand,

female headteachers are more effective in the primary schools in achieving students' success.

Results of the present investigation revealed mixed findings and consistent with the results of the previous researchers. Researchers like Riger and Galligan (1980) and Fagenson (1990) posit that there are definite behavioural and psychological differences between men and women that lead them to attain distinct and unique leadership styles. Men have traditionally been perceived to possess characteristics such as aggressiveness, high self-confidence and low emotionality, while women have been assigned characteristics such as emotionality, kindness and nurturance (Eagly et al., 1992). Researches on gender differences purport that men possess stronger leadership skills because of their early socialisation experiences and involvement in team works, which leads them to become effective leaders. The results of the present investigation are also consistent with the findings of the study by Thompson (2000), who suggested that any differences in the perceived effectiveness of educational leaders are equally true for male and female leaders and male and female educational leaders were perceived to be equally effective in their respective organizations. The recent meta-analysis conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) shows small differences between men and women in leadership effectiveness. Eagly and Johnson (1990) emphasised that in some positions, particularly elementary education and nursing, leadership is defined in more feminine ways and could be described as congenial to women. Their view is in line with the result of the present study, particularly it is true for primary schools, where students under female leadership performed significantly ($p < .05$) better than they did under male

leadership. Therefore, differences in leadership between men and women are not so much due to the fact that they act differently but to differential reactions to the behaviour of both the sexes. The findings gave a clear indication of the effect of gender on the academic success of the students of both primary and secondary schools.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the procedure used in collecting and analysing the data. The first section looks at the study area and the research design. This is followed by the description of the population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments used for data collection, pre-testing of data collection instruments, validity of the instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis.

Study Area

The Asuogyaman District is one of the 27 districts in the Eastern Region of the country with approximately 98,046 people (with 47,030 males and 51,016 females) per the 2010 Population and Housing Census (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). The district has been divided into two by the Volta Lake (the largest man-made lake in the world). Numerous chains of mountains covered with thick and green vegetation create a serene environment along the banks of the Volta River, and as a result, most of the resort centres are located along the banks of the river. This makes fishing and fish mongering the main occupations of majority of the dwellers.

The Ghana Statistical Service (2012) reported that 36,621 made up of 18,532 males and 18,089 females were aged 0-14 years in the district. There are currently 34 Public Junior High Schools in the district with the proportion of girls' enrolment again tends to be low as compared to boys. There were a total of 4,903 students in JHS, comprising 2,632 (53.7 percent) boys and 2,271 (46.3 percent) girls. With a total of 276 teachers at the JHS level resulting in

teacher-pupil ratio of 18:1. The physical conditions of the school buildings in the district are deplorable. Supporting facilities like furniture and equipment are inadequate and in some schools even lacking. In some settlements, classes are held under trees and in dilapidated structures built of swish and thatch. Over seventy percent of the schools in the district require entirely new buildings or rehabilitation of existing ones.

Research Design

A research design is the overall programme and structure of investigation for obtaining answers to research questions (Amedahe, 2002). Therefore, this study employed the descriptive survey design. This was because the study sought to solicit responses from headteachers on their leadership styles.

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2005), the descriptive survey is often directed towards determining the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of the study. Creswell (2008) added that the descriptive survey design is used to determine individual opinion about a policy issue or programme. The design, according to him, provides useful information for decision-makers since it has the advantage of measuring current attitudes or practices. According to Polit and Hungler (2003), descriptive survey has an advantage of producing a good amount of responses from a wide range of people. Descriptive survey is appropriate when a researcher attempts to describe some population or aspect of population by selecting unbiased samples of individuals who are asked to complete questionnaires, interviews or tests (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2005).

Study Population

According to Amedahe (2002), a population comprises the entire aggregation of elements in which the researcher is interested in. The target population for this study was made of all 34 headteachers in the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample size of 34 was used in this study. Thus, the study adopted census sampling method implying that the entire population was used. Fraenkel and Wallen (2005) recommended the use of this method when the population size is relatively small. In the vein, all respondents were purposively chosen.

Instruments for Data Collection

The study used questionnaire (see Appendix A) and data collection/extraction form (see Appendix B). The questionnaire was designed and administered to collect primary data from the headteachers. According to Fink (1995), the questionnaire as a tool is preferred because it is less expensive than other methods or quantitative designs such as experimental designs. It promises a wider coverage since the researcher can approach respondents more easily than other methods; it is stable, consisted and uniform, without variation, and it can be completed at a faster rate as compared to the others. The questionnaire contained both closed and open-ended items generated from the research questions. In all, the questionnaire had 18 key questions with both categorical, ordinal and open-ended options. With regard to the data extraction form, the researcher designed it to gather

secondary data on the academic performance of schools of the headteachers. It had the school's name, aggregates obtained classified from 6, 7-15, 16-24, 25-30, and 31 and above, the sex of pupils, number of candidates presented for the Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE), average pass rate, and position chalked in the district.

Pilot Testing of Instruments

To check for the comprehensiveness, accuracy and suitability, copies of the questionnaire and data extraction form were piloted amongst five (5) headteachers in the Lower Manya Krobo District also in the Eastern Region. Issues of validity and reliability were addressed using the pilot data. Validity, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2002), revolves around the defensibility of the inferences researchers make from data collection through the use of an instrument. The issue about validity, therefore, has to do with the instruments used to collect data and whether the instruments permit the researchers to draw valid conclusions about the characteristics of the individuals about whom they collected the data. The validity of the instruments for this study was, therefore, established by making the instruments available to the supervisor and colleagues from the Department of Management Studies, School of Business, University of Cape Coast.

Similarly, the data were analysed to find the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the questionnaire. This value was compared to the acceptable range of .600 or above as stated by Cohen (cited in Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005). A coefficient of .847 was obtained indicating that the questionnaire had "adequate" internal consistency. Therefore, the questionnaire was used without much revision.

Data Collection Procedure

An introductory letter was obtained from the Head of the Management Studies Department to seek permission from the authorities of the Asuogyaman District Education Office. This letter enabled the researcher to explain the objectives of the study to the respondents (headteachers) before they were given copies of the questionnaire. Data collection was carried out in two main phases; namely, a pilot-study and the main study for a period of six weeks starting 20th October, 2015 with the help of two well-trained research assistants. Both the primary and secondary data were collected. Primary data “is the data gathered specifically for the research project at hand” (Zikmund, 2003, p. 176). The author further argues that primary data does not exist prior to the research and is collected by researchers to address a specific research problem. He indicated that primary data can be collected with qualitative or quantitative research. However, in this study, only quantitative data are expected to be gathered through the use of questionnaire. The researcher sent out 34 copies of questionnaire, but retrieved 32 of them, representing 94.1 per cent retrieval rate. With regard to the collection of secondary data, the data extraction form was used.

Data Analysis

The researcher employed the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 21.0 to capture, manage and analyse the data gathered. The data gathered from the field of study were first validated to check for consistency. Also, a coding scheme was developed based on the items on the questionnaire. This was to facilitate the data entry processes. The main

statistical tools used included the frequencies and percentages, graphs, the *t*-test and Spearman's correlation.

In analysing the data, the researcher employed descriptive statistics like simple and cross tabulations, frequencies and percentages to answer the research question one. In addressing the second research question, factor analysis with KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained, correlation matrix and scree plot were used. Similarly, to find answers to the test, "Is there any significant relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE?", the study adopted the Spearman's rank correlation analysis using the 5% significance level. This statistical tool was used because it is robust enough to determine the relation between two numerical variables. In a similar fashion, the *t*-test was used to analyse the difference in the average academic performance of schools based on the gender of headteachers at 5% significance level. This test was adopted because of its ability to determine statistical differences in a quantitative variable (academic performance) based on a categorical variable (gender) with two factors (males and females).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter deals with the results and discussion of the data gathered from the respondents. The study sought to investigate the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE in the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region. In order to address the objective, the study attempted to find out the type of leadership styles adopted by the headteachers, determine the factors that influence their choice of leadership styles, identify the differences between the leadership styles of male and female headteachers, and establish the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE. The study involved 32 out of 34 targeted respondents, representing 94.12% retrieval rate. The data gathered were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics, such as the simple frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, Spearman's correlation, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and *t*-test, among others.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

Data on the characteristics of the respondents were collected to help have an understanding of the background characteristics of the respondents in the study. These characteristics examined included gender, age, marital status, highest educational level, duration of teaching experience, duration of experience as headteacher as well as number of years spent in present school.

Table 1: *Gender Distribution of Respondents*

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Males	21	65.6
Females	11	34.4
Total	32	100.0

The results in Table 1 indicate that more than half of the respondents (65.6%) were males. Female headteachers, however, constituted 34.4% of the entire respondents. This further underscores the dominance of male headteachers in our educational system, especially at the basic level.

Table 2: *Gender and Age of Respondents*

Age (in years)	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
30 – 40	3	14.3	2	18.2	5	15.6
41 – 50	3	14.3	1	9.1	4	12.5
51 – 60	15	71.4	8	72.7	23	71.9
Total	21	100.0	11	100.0	32	100.0

Table 2 also presents the cross-tabulation between gender and ages of the respondents. On the whole, a large majority of the respondents (71.9%) were aged 51-60 years, 5 (15.6%) aged 30-40 years, while 4 (12.5%) aged 41-50 years. More than 71% each of the males and females were found to be between 51-60 years. This means that in less than a decade, majority of the headteachers would have retired.

Table 3: *Gender and Marital Status of Respondents*

Marital status	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Married	18	85.7	7	63.6	25	78.1
Divorced/separated	2	9.5	2	18.2	4	12.5
Widowed	1	4.8	2	18.2	3	9.4
Total	21	100	11	100.0	32	100.0

With regard to the marital status of the respondents as shown in Table 3, a large majority of them (78.1%) were married, 12.5% were divorced/separated, while the remaining three (9.4%) were widowed. Among the males, 18 (85.7%) of them were married compared with two (representing 9.5%) divorced/separated and a widower. Similarly, about 64% of the females were found to have married as against two representing 18.2% each who were divorced, separated or widowed.

Table 4: *Gender and Educational Level of Respondents*

Educational level	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Diploma	4	19.0	1	9.1	5	15.6
Bachelor	10	47.6	8	72.7	18	56.2
Post-Graduate	3	14.3	0	0.0	3	9.4
Diploma						
Masters	2	9.5	2	18.2	4	12.5
Others	2	9.5	0	0.0	2	6.2
Total	21	100.0	11	100.0	32	100.0

As shown in Table 4, the results indicate that 18 (56.2%) of the respondents had bachelor's degrees. In addition, 5 (15.6%) and 4 (12.5%) of them had diplomas and master's degrees, respectively. There were few of them with post-graduate diplomas, probably in education. On the basis of sex, 10 (47.6%) of the males had obtained their bachelor's degrees compared to 7 (72.7%) of the females. The profile of the headteachers reveals a sound academic background given that a greater proportion of them have higher qualifications.

Table 5: *Duration of Teaching Experience*

Working experience (in years)	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
5 – 10	2	9.5	2	18.2	4	12.5
11 – 15	1	4.8	0	0.0	1	3.1
16 and above	18	85.7	9	81.8	27	84.4
Total	21	100.0	11	100.0	32	100.0

Table 5 shows that a large majority of the respondents (84.4%) had had 16 years or more working experience in the teaching field, while a few of them had also served for 5-10 years. Whilst 19 (90.5%) of the male headteachers had been in the profession for a longer period, 10-16 years compared to 9 (81.8%) female headteachers.

Table 6: *Duration of Experience as Headteachers*

Experience as Head (in years)	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1 – 5	7	33.3	6	54.5	13	40.6
6 – 10	9	42.9	2	18.2	11	34.4
11 – 15	1	4.8	3	27.3	4	12.5
16 and above	4	19.0	0	0.0	4	12.5
Total	21	100.0	11	100.0	32	100.0

With regard to the number of years of being a headteacher, 13 (40.6%) of them had served between one and 5 years, while 11 (34.4%) had between 6-10 years working years as heads. Meanwhile, 8 (25.0%) of them had served for at least 11 years. Based on gender distribution, 4 (19.0%) of respondents indicated that they had been headteachers for 16 years and above, compared to no female headteachers in that category. On a whole, nearly 60% of the respondents had been headteachers for at least six years. This reveals that the respondents were fairly experienced as headteachers and should have adequate knowledge about the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE. It was noted that some teachers spent barely five years to become headteachers. This might be as the result of GES's policy which gives such opportunity to those in the remote areas, hence their appointment as heads.

Table 7: *Number Years Spent in Present School as Head*

Duration (in years)	Males		Females		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1 – 5	14	66.7	9	81.9	23	71.9
6 and above	7	33.3	2	18.2	9	28.1
Total	21	100.0	11	100.0	32	100.0

Similarly, with respect to the number of years the respondents had served as headteachers in their respective schools, Table 7 presents the results. The results showed that as many as 23 (71.9%) of the respondents had been headteachers in their present schools for 1-5 years. A substantial proportion of them (28.1%) also had spent at least 6 years in their respective schools as substantive headteachers. The implication is that they would have indepth understanding and institutional memories concerning the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE in the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region. This, therefore, makes the respondents appropriate and relevant to the study.

Research Question 1: What are the leadership styles of headteachers in Junior High Schools in the Asuogyaman District?

The aim of this research question was to find out the leadership styles of the headteachers in the Junior High Schools in the district. Besides the traditional leadership styles of democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire, this study examines other dimensions such as structural, human resource, political and symbolic.

Table 8: Leadership Skills Exhibited by Headteachers (N=32)

Leadership skills	Best Description		Next Best		Next Best		Least Best		Mean
	(4)		Description (3)		Description (2)		Description (1)		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
<i>My strongest skills are:</i>									
<i>Analytic skills (a)</i>	17	53.1	15	46.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	3.53
<i>Interpersonal skills (b)</i>	18	56.3	11	34.4	3	9.4	0	0.0	3.47
<i>Political skills (c)</i>	1	3.1	4	12.5	7	21.9	20	62.5	1.56
<i>Flair for drama (d)</i>	1	3.1	6	18.8	20	62.5	5	15.6	2.09
<i>The best way to describe me is:</i>									
<i>Technical expert (a)</i>	5	15.6	9	28.1	8	25.0	10	31.3	2.28
<i>Good listener (b)</i>	16	50.0	13	40.6	0	0.0	3	9.4	3.31
<i>Skilled negotiator (c)</i>	7	21.9	12	37.5	12	37.5	1	3.1	2.78
<i>Inspirational leader (d)</i>	20	62.5	4	12.5	4	12.5	4	12.5	3.25
<i>What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:</i>									
<i>Make good decisions (a)</i>	25	78.1	3	9.4	4	12.5	0	0.0	3.66
<i>Coach and develop people (b)</i>	2	6.3	17	53.1	4	12.5	9	28.1	2.38
<i>Build strong alliances and a power base (c)</i>	5	15.6	18	56.3	7	21.9	2	6.3	2.81
<i>Inspire and excite others (d)</i>	15	46.9	10	31.3	2	6.3	5	15.6	3.09
<i>What are people most likely to notice about me is my:</i>									
<i>Attention to detail (a)</i>	12	37.5	6	18.9	2	6.3	12	37.5	2.56
<i>Concern for people (b)</i>	22	68.8	3	9.4	5	15.6	2	6.3	3.41
<i>Ability to succeed in the face of conflict and opposition (c)</i>	16	50.0	12	37.5	4	12.5	0	0.0	3.38
<i>Charisma (d)</i>	11	34.4	13	40.6	6	18.8	2	6.3	3.03

Table 8 (Continued)

Leadership skills	Best Description		Next Best		Next Best		Least Best		Mean
	(4)		Description (3)		Description (2)		Description (1)		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
<i>My most important leadership trait is:</i>									
<i>Clear, logical thinking (a)</i>	23	71.9	9	28.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	3.72
<i>Caring and support for others (b)</i>	14	43.8	8	25.0	10	31.3	0	0.0	3.13
<i>Toughness and aggressiveness (c)</i>	1	3.1	9	28.1	5	15.6	17	53.2	1.81
<i>Imagination and creativity (d)</i>	17	53.1	9	28.1	4	12.5	2	6.3	3.28
<i>I am best described as:</i>									
<i>An analyst (a)</i>	13	40.6	14	43.8	5	15.6	0	0.0	3.25
<i>A humanist (b)</i>	14	43.8	10	31.3	7	21.9	1	3.1	3.16
<i>A politician (c)</i>	0	0.0	5	15.6	5	15.6	22	68.8	1.47
<i>A visionary (d)</i>	19	59.4	10	31.3	3	9.4	0	0.0	3.50
Average	12	38.3	10	30.0	5	16.5	5	15.2	2.91

In terms of the strategies that helped them to be successful in their present roles, it was found that making good decision sufficed. This is because the respondents rated this strategy with 3.66 out of the maximum mean rating of 4.00. Another strategy identified was inspiring and exciting others (mean=3.09), followed by building strong alliances and a power base (mean=2.81), and coaching and developing people (mean=2.38). It can be concluded from the afore-mentioned results that making good decisions was key to the successes chalked by the headteachers in line of their duties.

In addition, the study sought to find out what people were most likely to notice about the respondents. According to the results, the headteachers' concern for people (mean=3.41) came top as the most likely noticeable attribute. This is followed by the ability of the respondents to succeed in the face of conflict and opposition (mean=3.38), charisma (mean=3.03) and attention to detail (mean=2.56).

Touching on their leadership traits, majority of the headteachers considered themselves as being clear and logical thinkers (mean=3.72). Also, they further described their trait of leadership as imaginative and creative (mean=3.28), followed by being caring and supportive for others (mean=3.13) and lastly as tough and aggressive (mean=1.81). The respondents best described themselves as being visionary leaders, analysts, humanists and politicians in that order.

Computing scores for the various leadership dimensions, including Structural (ST), Human Resource (HR), Political (PL) and Symbolic (SY) using the constructs in Table 8 above, the following formula (Bolman & Deal, 1988) were used:

$$ST = 1a + 2a + 3a + 4a + 5a + 6a \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

$$HR = 1b + 2b + 3b + 4b + 5b + 6b \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

$$PL = 1c + 2c + 3c + 4c + 5c + 6c \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

$$SY = 1d + 2d + 3d + 4d + 5d + 6d \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

Table 9: *Summary of Leadership Styles*

Score ranges	...of Highest Score (84)	Sample (n=32)			
		STRUCTURAL (ST)	HUMAN RESOURCE (HR)	POLITICAL (PL)	SYMBOLIC (SY)
		Between 10%-24%	8-20	1	0
Between 25%-49%	21-41	1	0	13	2
Between 50%-74%	42-62	9	18	16	11
75% and above	63-84	21	14	2	18

ST-Structural; HR-Human Resource; PL-Political; SY-Symbolic.

On the structural leadership style, the results show that only a respondent obtained scores between 8-20 representing 10%-24% of the highest score of 84. Similarly, one and nine respondents respectively had their scores between 21-41 and 42-62, while as many as 21 of them had at least 75% of the highest score of 84. This implies the high exhibit of structural leadership skills among the headteachers.

None of the respondents had obtained scores less than 50% of the highest score of 84 under the human resource dimension. Meanwhile, 18 and 14 had 50-74% and at least 75%, respectively of the highest score.

On the popularity of political leadership among the respondents, the results revealed that only two had obtained scores which constituted at least 75% of the highest score of 84. In fact, majority of them (90.6%) had between 25-74% of the highest score. Meanwhile, 18 of the headteachers were found to have scored at least 75% of the highest score of 84 under the symbolic leadership skills.

From the afore-mentioned discussions, it can be concluded that the most practiced leadership style among the respondents was the structural (ST) style. This is followed by the symbolic (SY), human resource (HR) and political (PL) leaderships. The implication is that the headteachers are able to emphasise rationality, analysis, logic, facts and data (Bolman & Deal, 1988). Leaders who practice the structural style are usually considered to be strong believers in the importance of clear structure and well-developed management systems.

In conclusion to the research question of the leadership styles of the headteachers in Junior High Schools in the Asuogyaman District, the results showed that the headteachers mostly practiced the Structural (ST) leadership style, followed by the Symbolic (SY), Human Resource (HR) and Political (PL) leaderships. The implication is that the headteachers are able to emphasise rationality, analysis, logic, facts and data (Bolman & Deal, 1988). Also, they are likely to believe strongly in the importance of clear structure and well-developed management systems. As espoused by Bolman and Deal (1988), a good leader is someone who thinks clearly, makes the right decisions, has good analytic skills, and can design structures and systems that get the job done.

Research Question 2: What are the underlying factors that influence choice of leadership styles by the headteachers?

The aim of this research question was to identify the factors influencing the choice of leadership style(s) among the respondents. They were to respond to a number of statements/items measured on the Likert scale. The study employed the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for this purpose, and the results are summarised in the tables below. Key among the statistics computed include descriptive statistics, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, Bartlett's test of sphericity, total variance explained, scree plot as well as the varimax rotated matrix.

Table 10: *Descriptive Statistics*

Statement	Agree		Disagree	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
My vision for the school	32	100.0	0	0.0
Nature of school infrastructure	25	78.1	7	21.9
Type of community	25	78.1	7	21.9
Involvement of community leaders	28	87.5	4	12.5
Involvement of parents	29	90.6	3	9.4
Attitudes of pupils	27	84.4	5	15.6
Attitudes of teachers	28	87.5	4	12.5
Resources available	24	74.8	8	25.2
Past academic records of the school	25	78.1	7	21.9
Policy directives from the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education, e.g., District Director of Education, etc.	31	96.9	1	3.1
Directives of WAEC	28	87.5	4	12.5
My religious beliefs	19	59.3	13	40.7
My education and training	31	96.9	1	3.1
My past experiences	29	90.6	3	9.4
The situation at hand	27	84.4	5	15.6
The effectiveness of PTA and SMC	28	87.5	4	12.5
Unit 'ownership' of the school	19	58.3	13	41.7
The prevalence of social vices	18	56.3	14	43.7

The results in Table 10 show that all the respondents agreed that vision for their respective schools was important in choice of leadership. Educational institutions in the country usually develop their missions and visions from the general principles of the Ghana Education Service in order to guide their

activities. Also, out of the 32 headteachers, 25 (78.1%) indicated that their choice of leadership style could be influenced by the nature of infrastructure available in the school. The non-availability, inadequacy as well as the bad state of critical basic amenities in many Junior High Schools tend to put a lot of pressure on headteachers.

The respondents also considered the type of community within which their schools operate as key in the kind of leadership style they exhibited. Despite the banning of capital punishments in Junior High Schools, some teachers/heads are still engaged in it and usually incur the wrath of their community members. Similarly, the extent of parents' involvement, according to the respondents, is considered when choosing leadership styles. This is because as much as nearly 91% of them agreed to this statement. Besides, the respondents also revealed that the attitudes of both teachers and pupils had influence on how they led.

Similarly, about 97% of them claimed that policy directives from the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education, e.g., District Director of Education, etc. also influenced their leadership styles. It is worth noticing that both the kind of education and training the headteachers received was instrumental in the leadership styles that they exhibited in the school. This is similar to a large proportion of them who also mentioned past experience as something that greatly affect their leadership style choices.

Notwithstanding, the results show that the unit which owns the school, personal religious beliefs as well as the prevalence of social vices attracted lesser endorsement from the respondents as things which determine their

leadership styles. This means that these might not place significant role in their choice of leadership styles.

For the KMO statistic from Table 11, Kaiser (1974) recommends a bare minimum of 0.500 and that values between 0.500 and 0.700 are mediocre, values between 0.700 and 0.800 are good, values between 0.800 and 0.900 are great and values above 0.900 are superb (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999).

Table 11: *KMO and Bartlett's Test*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.650
	Approx. Chi-Square	486.311
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	153
	<i>P</i>	.000

For these data, the value of KMO is .650, which falls into the range of being mediocre, so we should be fairly confident that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. Similarly, Bartlett's measure tests the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Therefore, there are some relationships between the variables which were included in the analysis. For these data, Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < .05$). Thus, in this case it is significant, $\chi^2(153) = 486.311$, $p < .05$, indicating that the correlations within the R-matrix are sufficiently different from zero to warrant factor analysis. Based on the base statistics, the factor analysis ran was appropriate to help identify the main factors influencing respondents' choice of leadership styles. Furthermore, total variance explained analysis was done and five components or factors were found to have had

eigenvalues greater than 1. The results from this analysis are summarised in Table 12 and Figure 2.

Table 12: *Total Variance Explained*

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.020	44.553	44.553
2	2.435	13.530	58.083
3	1.487	8.261	66.345
4	1.357	7.539	73.884
5	1.121	6.228	80.112

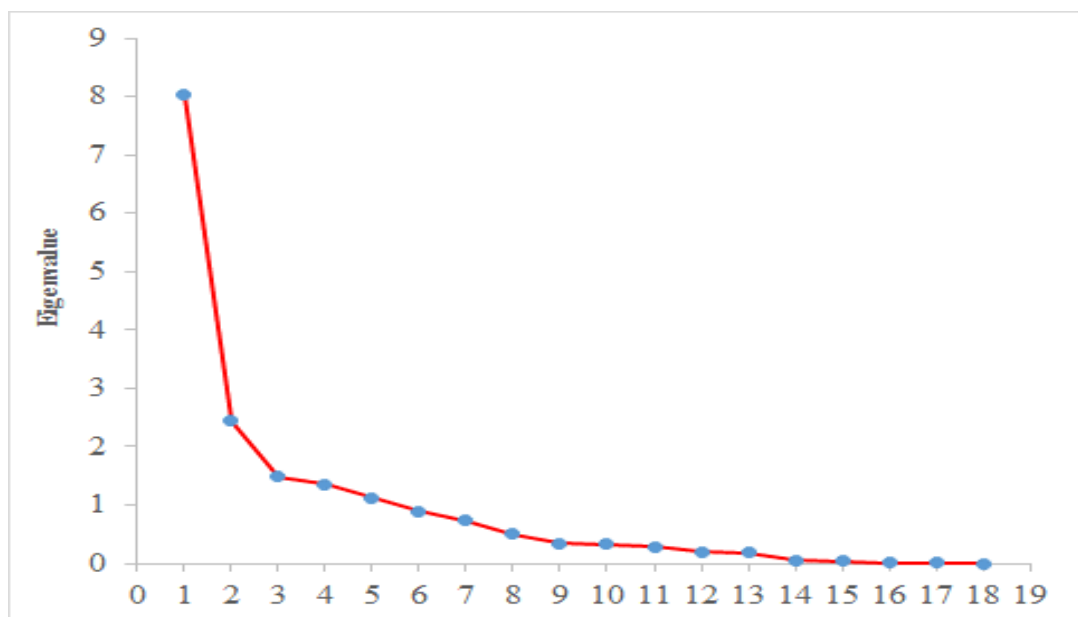


Figure 2: Scree plot

Table 12 and Figure 2 revealed that five factors/components cumulatively accounted for as much as 80.112% of the total variation in the dataset and more so they respectively had eigenvalues greater than 1. This means that the factors extracted from the 18 items would adequately explain the data. The first component had an eigenvalue of 8.020 and singularly

accounted for 44.6% of the variability in the dataset, while the second component with an eigenvalue of 2.435 accounted for 13.5% of data variability. With eigenvalues of 1.487 and 1.357 respectively components 3 and 4 accounted for 8.3% and 7.5% variability in the entire dataset. Meanwhile, the last component accounted for 6.2% of the entire variability with an eigenvalue of 1.121. In addition, the scree plot in Figure 2 further confirmed that five factors are responsible to respondents' choice of leadership styles in the district. These factors were identified and named in Table 13.

Table 13: *Factors Influencing the Choice of Leadership Styles*

Statement	Factors				
	Stakeholder Involvement	Personal Experiences	Vision for School	Policy Directives	Teacher-Student Attitudes
Involvement of parents	0.865				
Resources available	0.805				
The effectiveness of PTA and SMC	0.718				
Nature of school infrastructure	0.698				
Involvement of community leaders	0.686				
Type of community	0.510				
My past experiences		0.753			
My education and training		0.558			
My religious beliefs			-0.907		
My vision for the school			0.770		
Past academic records of the school			0.768		
The situation at hand			0.559		
Policy directives from the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education, e.g., District Director of Education, etc.				0.812	
Unit 'ownership' of the school				0.752	
Directives of WAEC				-0.581	
Attitudes of pupils					0.803
Attitudes of teachers					0.667
The prevalence of social vices					0.647

From Table 13, the main factors influencing the choice of leadership among the respondents were Stakeholder Involvement, Personal Experiences, Vision for School, Policy Directives, and Teacher-Pupil Attitudes (in order of importance). With regard to Stakeholder Involvement, which accounted for 44.553% of entire variation in the dataset and eigenvalue of 8.020, the main contributing constructs included involvement of parents ($r=0.865$), resources available ($r=0.805$), the effectiveness of PTA and SMC ($r=0.718$), nature of school infrastructure ($r=0.698$), involvement of community leaders ($r=0.686$), and type of community ($r=0.510$). This finding corroborates that of Naremo (2012). He investigated the factors influencing the choice of leadership styles in Baringo secondary schools in Kenya. Among other factors, Naremo (2012) said that stakeholders' demands was a key determining factor in the choice of leadership styles.

Personal Experiences of the respondents also explained 13.530% of dataset variation and obtained an eigenvalue of 2.435. Items such as "my past experiences" and "my education and training." Similarly, the vision of the headteachers for the school also played a key in influencing their choice of leadership styles. A negative correlation coefficient was realised between their "Vision for the School" and "My religious beliefs." The implication is that the religious beliefs of the respondents could derail the vision of their respective school. Also, my vision for the school ($r=0.770$), past academic records of the school ($r=0.768$), and the situation at hand ($r=0.550$). Leithwood (1994) agreed that transformational school leaders adopt a widely shared vision for the school and clarify its meaning in terms of its practical implications and

instruction. He further revealed that headteachers must communicate the school's vision to staff, pupils, parents and others.

Similarly, another factor identified to have influenced respondents' choice of leadership was "Policy Directive." This factor was identified as the fourth most important factor as it was responsible for about 7% of dataset variation. Constructs such as policy directives from the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education, unit 'ownership' of the school, and directives of WAEC contributed to the choice of leadership style among the headteachers. However, directives of WAEC was seen to have negative influence on headteachers' choices of leadership styles. The implication is that these directives do not allow headteachers to flexibly chart their course of leadership and bring about dynamism and transformational leadership in their respective schools. Lastly, it was found that Teacher-Pupil Attitudes also affected the leadership style choices of the respondents. Key among the statements include attitudes of students ($r=0.803$); attitudes of teachers ($r=0.667$) and the prevalence of social vices ($r=0.647$).

In conclusion, the results revealed that five main factors accounted for the choice of leadership styles among the respondents, which collectively accounted for as much as 80.112% of the total variation in the dataset. These include the Stakeholder Involvement, Personal Experiences, Vision for School, Policy Directives, and Teacher-Pupil Attitude (*in order of importance*).

Research Question 3: Is there any significant relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE?

The study sought to examine the relationship between the leadership styles of the respondents and the academic performance of their schools. Therefore, in addition to the questionnaire, the researcher designed a data collection form to collate the BECE results for the schools over the tenure of five years. Average scores were computed and summarised in Table 14.

Table 14: *Classification of Performance of Schools in the District*

Average Performance	Frequency	Percent
Poor (<50%)	12	37.5
Average (50-60%)	9	28.1
Good (61<80%)	7	21.9
Excellent (80% and above)	4	12.5
Total	32	100.0

The results from Table 14 revealed that as many as 12 (37.5%) of the 32 schools had obtained average scores less than 50%. This implies that 12 schools consistently failed or performed abysmally during the headship of these respondents. Meanwhile, 9 (28.1%) and 7 (21.9%) of the schools were respectively rated as average (50-60%) and good (61<80%). Also, only four schools, representing 12.5% had obtained excellent (80% and above) in the BECE.

Hence, to explore the relationship between the leadership styles (as shown in Table 9) and academic performance of the schools (as shown in Table 15), the researcher employed a non-parametric correlation analysis technique called the Spearman's correlation. This is because the variables involved included an ordinal variable (leadership style) and continuous variable (average academic performance). The results are summarised in Table 15.

Table 15: *Correlation between Leadership Style and Academic Performance*

Leadership styles	Statistic	Average Academic Performance
Structural	Correlation coefficient (r_s)	0.527*
	p (2-tailed)	.002
	N	32
Human Resource	Correlation coefficient (r_s)	0.020
	p (2-tailed)	.913
	N	32
Political	Correlation coefficient (r_s)	0.474*
	p (2-tailed)	.006
	N	32
Symbolic	Correlation coefficient (r_s)	0.265
	p (2-tailed)	.142
	N	32

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The results from Table 15 revealed that two out of the four leadership styles of the headteachers were found to be positively and significantly correlated with the academic performance of the pupils, by extension the schools. Specifically, a moderate correlation coefficient of 0.527 ($p=.002$) was realised between the structural leadership style of respondents and the average

academic scores of the schools they headed. This implies that headteachers who adopt

Structural leadership styles are likely to produce good academic results. Similarly, heads with Political leadership styles would produce better results for their respective schools, since [$r_s=0.474$; $p=.006$].

However, the Human Resource and Symbolic leadership styles had no significant effects on the academic achievement of their schools. This means that headteachers who exhibit the Human Resource [$r_s=0.020$; $p=.913$] and Symbolic [$r_s=0.265$; $p=.142$] leadership styles might not obtain enviable academic performance for their schools.

Based on the aforementioned results, it can be deduced that the Structural and Political leadership styles are more effective and appropriate for school pupils as well as teachers at this level. This is because of the positive impact these styles of leadership of the heads had on the academic performance of the schools that they manned.

Research Question 4: Is there any significant difference in the average academic performance of schools based on the gender of headteachers?

This hypothesis sought to test the statistical difference (if any) between the academic performance of the headteachers (respondents) based on their gender. Again, the independent samples *t*-test was conducted and statistical decisions taken at a .05 significance level. Table 16 presents the details of the results.

Table 16: *Gender Differences in Academic Performance of Schools*

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)
Males	21	59.08	19.5781	1.56	30	.129
Females	11	48.38	15.8786			

The results revealed no statistical difference between the performance of schools headed by male and female headteachers, since ($t=1.56$, $df=30$, $p=.129$). However, a cursory comparison of their respective mean scores pointed to the fact that male-headed schools did quite better than those of their female counterparts. This is because those schools headed by headmasters had an average score of 59.08% (standard deviation of 19.58%) compared to an average of 48.38% (standard deviation of 15.88%) for schools with headmistresses. Eagly et al.'s (1992) is inconsistent with the result of this study. They found that where students under female leadership performed significantly better than they did under male leadership. In their conclusion, they attributed this difference to the fact that they act differently but to differential reactions to the behaviour of both the sexes.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, the entire study is summarised including the key findings from the data analysis and the discussions. It also includes the conclusions drawn based on the findings as well as the recommendations offered for headteachers and other stakeholders in the basic education level.

Summary

This study investigated the effects of headteachers' choice of leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in BECE in the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region. Based on the afore-mentioned, the researcher sought to find out the type of leadership styles adopted by the headteachers, determine the factors that influence their choice of leadership styles, identify the differences between the leadership styles of male and female headteachers, and also to establish the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of pupils in BECE.

The Asuogyaman District currently has 34 Junior High Schools with a population of 4,903 pupils in JHS, comprising 2,632 (53.7 percent) boys and 2,271 (46.3 percent) girls. The district has 276 teachers at the JHS level resulting in teacher-pupil ratio of 18:1. The study therefore used all 34 headteachers in a descriptive survey design. However, 32, representing 94.1% of them participated in the study. In analysing the data, the SPSS was used and both descriptive and inferential statistics were computed to address the

research questions. Specifically, frequencies, percentages, tables, graphs, t-test and correlation analysis tests were used.

With regards to the background characteristics of the respondents, the study found that out of the 32 respondents, 65.6% were males. Also, a large majority of the respondents (71.9%) were aged 51-60 years. With regard to the marital status of the respondents 78.1% were married. About 56% of the respondents had bachelor's degrees. It was seen that 40.6% of them had served as headteachers for 1-5 years, while as many as 23 (71.9%) of the respondents had been headteachers in their present schools for 1-5 years. It was also found that some teachers became heads within relatively short periods primarily because they were teaching in remote parts within the district.

Key Findings

The following were the major findings that emerged from the study according to the research questions:

1. The headteachers mostly practiced the Structural (ST) leadership style, followed by the Symbolic (SY), Human Resource (HR) and Political (PL) leaderships.
2. The five main factors, which influenced the choice of leadership styles among the respondents were Stakeholder Involvement, Personal Experiences, Vision for School, Policy Directives, and Teacher-Pupil Attitudes (*in order of importance*).
3. The Structural and Political leadership styles were found to have positively and significantly correlated with the academic performance of schools.

4. There were no gender-related significant differences between the four leadership styles of the headteachers. However, males commonly used the Structural, Symbolic and Political styles than their female counterparts, while the reverse was the case with the Human Resource leadership style.
5. The results revealed no statistical difference between the performance of schools headed by male and female headteachers. However, male-headed schools performed quite better than those with female headteachers.

Conclusions

This study has, to a large extent, addressed all the research questions stated. In finding out the type of leadership styles adopted by the headteachers of Junior High Schools in the district, the study identified some leadership styles; namely, Structural, Symbolic, Human Resource and Political. The choice of leadership styles by the respondents was basically influenced by factors such as stakeholder involvement, personal experiences, vision for school, policy directives, and teacher-pupil attitudes. Although these factors are not exhaustive, they are critical.

The positive relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and the academic performance of their pupils in BECE points to the importance of encouraging effective leadership styles/skills among school heads. In effect, a bad leadership style(s) may lead to poor academic achievement among the pupils and vice versa. Hence, relevant strategies excluding gender stereotyping to be adopted to improve effective leadership among school heads are really

crucial ingredients towards an improved academic success at the basic education level.

Recommendations

Based on the above findings, the following suggestions are made for the consideration and possible implementation by policy makers:

1. With regard to the leadership styles of headteachers, it is recommended that the Ghana Education Service (GES) should regularly (from circuit to district level) organise workshops and seminars for headteachers on leadership, leadership choices and their ultimate impact on academic performance of their schools. These fora should be used to sensitise them on leadership issues as well as the likely effects of their leadership styles on the achievements of their pupils. Again, headteachers should not be under compulsion to exhibit any particular leadership style(s) as this may only be cosmetics.
2. In choosing the appropriate leadership styles, the study suggests that headteachers should consider factors such as Stakeholder Involvement, Personal Experiences, Vision for School, Policy Directives, and Teacher-Pupil Attitude (in that order of importance). Importantly, School Management Committees (SMCs), Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs), past students among others must be regarded as key stakeholders by school heads in the successful administration of their respective schools.
3. It can be seen from the findings that two main leadership dimensions (i.e., Structural and Political styles) are significant determinants of pupils' academic achievements. It is, therefore, recommended that

headteachers must endeavour to imbibe some of these traits. By so doing, there might be some improvement in the academic performance of their pupils given that one of their core mandate is to model and produce academically sound students.

4. Clearly, the study finds no significant differences in the academic performance of the pupils based on the gender of the school heads. Per this finding, the study records that appointment or posting of headteachers to schools by GES should not be gender discriminatory. Thus, other factors other than the gender of the school head may be responsible for the performance of schools other than the sex of the head.

Suggestions for Further Research

Due to resource constraints, the study was conducted in only the Asuogyaman District of the Eastern Region. Therefore, it is suggested that the scope of the study should be expanded to cover many junior high schools and headteachers in the region as well as the country for more representative conclusions on the topic.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADTEACHERS

This study seeks to collect information from Headteachers on the topic, *“Leadership Styles of Junior High School Headteachers in Relation to Performance of Pupils in BECE in the Asuogyaman District.”* I would, therefore, be happy if you would provide frank answers to the questionnaire items. Please, read each question carefully and answer according to your true opinion. You are fully assured of the confidentiality of all information provided.

Please tick [✓] or write where applicable.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name of School:.....
2. Gender: Male [] Female []
3. Age (in years): Less than 30 [] 30 – 40 [] 41 – 50 [] 51 – 60 []
4. Marital status: Married [] Single [] Divorced/Separated [] Widowed []
5. Highest educational qualification: Master’s Degree [] Post-Graduate Diploma [] Bachelor’s Degree [] Diploma [] Certificate [] Other (specify).....
6. Professional status: Professional Educator [] Non-Professional Educator []
7. Length of experience (in years) in the teaching profession:
Less than 5 [] 5–10 [] 11–15 [] 16 and above []

8. How long have you been a headteacher?

Less than 1 [] 1-5 [] 6-10 [] 11-15 [] 16 and above []

9. How long have you been a headteacher in this school (in years)?

Less than 1 [] 1-5 [] 6 and above []

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP STYLES

This questionnaire asks you to describe yourself as a manager and leader. For each item, give the number “4” to the phrase that best describes you, “3” to the item that is next best, “2” to the item that is next best, and “1” for the item that is least like you.

10. My strongest skills are:

_____ a. *Analytic skills*

_____ b. *Interpersonal skills*

_____ c. *Political skills*

_____ d. *Flair for drama*

11. The best way to describe me is:

_____ a. *Technical expert*

_____ b. *Good listener*

_____ c. *Skilled negotiator*

_____ d. *Inspirational leader*

12. What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:

_____ a. *Make good decisions*

_____ b. *Coach and develop people*

_____ c. *Build strong alliances and a power base*

_____ d. *Inspire and excite others*

13. What are people most likely to notice about me is my:

- _____ a. *Attention to detail*
- _____ b. *Concern for people*
- _____ c. *Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition*
- _____ d. *Charisma*

14. My most important leadership trait is:

- _____ a. *Clear, logical thinking*
- _____ b. *Caring and support for others*
- _____ c. *Toughness and aggressiveness*
- _____ d. *Imagination and creativity*

15. I am best described as:

- _____ a. *An analyst*
- _____ b. *A humanist*
- _____ c. *A politician*
- _____ d. *A visionary*

Compared to other individuals that you have known with comparable levels of experience and responsibility, how would you rate yourself on:

16. Overall effectiveness as a **manager**.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Bottom 20%</i>		<i>Middle 20%</i>	<i>Top 20%</i>	

17. Overall effectiveness as a **leader**.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Bottom 20%</i>		<i>Middle 20%</i>	<i>Top 20%</i>	

**SECTION C: FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF
LEADERSHIP STYLES**

16. To what extent do the following statements influence your choice of leadership style?

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
My vision for the school				
Nature of school infrastructure				
Type of community				
Involvement of community leaders				
Involvement of parents				
Attitude of pupils				
Attitude of teachers				
Resources available				
Past academic records of the school				
Policy directives from the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education, e.g., District Director of Education, etc.				
Directives of WAEC				
My religious beliefs				
My education and training				
My past experiences				
The situation at hand				
The effectiveness of PTA and SMC				
Unit 'ownership' of the school				
The prevalence of social vices				

SECTION C: SUGGESTIONS

17. How can the academic performance of the pupils be improved?

(i)

.....

(ii)

.....

(iii).....

.....

18. Which leadership style(s) do you think can produce an improved academic performance in your school?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank You for Your Time!!!

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DATA EXTRACTION FORM FOR ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

This study seeks to collect information from Headteachers on the topic, *“Leadership Styles of Junior High School Headteachers in Relation to Performance of Pupils in BECE in the Asuogyaman District.”* You are fully assured of the confidentiality of all information provided.

Name of School:.....

Please complete this table.

Academic Year	Aggr . 6		Aggr. 7-15		Aggr . 16-24		Aggr . 25-30		Aggr . 31+		Total Enrolment	Average Pass Rate (%)	Position in the District
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G			
2011/12													
2012/13													
2013/14													
2014/15													
2015/16													

Key: B-Boys; G-Girls; Aggr-Aggregate