UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE PERCEPTION OF TEACHERS ABOUT MALE AND FEMALE HEAD

TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP IN BASIC SCHOOLS AT THE SUAME METROPOLIS IN

KUMASI

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# DECLARATION

**STUDENT'S DECLARATION**

I, ALEXANDER EBO ACKAH QUANSAH, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been all identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for any other degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE: .......................................................

DATE: ....................................................................

**SUPERVISOR'S DECARATION**

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR F. K. SARFO

SIGNATURE: .......................................................

DATE: ................................................................

# DEDICATION

To my mother Ms. Faustina Otu Ansah and my wife Mrs. Rita Quansah.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been accomplished without the encouragement, contribution and inspiration of other people. My first appreciation goes to the Almighty God for his mercies, guidance and protection. My sincere gratitude goes to Professor F. K. Sarfo my supervisor for his genuine and intellectual advice and his effort to transform me intellectually. My appreciations also go to my senior lectures and lecturers in the Department of Educational Leadership of the University of Education.

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# ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to assess the perception of teachers about male and female headteachers' leadership in basic schools at the Suame Metropolis in Kumasi. Three research questions were used to accomplish the objectives of the study. A sample size of 160 was selected using simple random techniques. A descriptive survey design was employed which focused on the administering of closed ended questionnaires. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire after pilot test was Cronbach Alfa of 0.87. Data was analysed by means of descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentages. The results of the study showed that female head teachers were considered assertive, emotional, as well as supportive, while male head teachers were seen to be decisive and independent, confident, and relationship oriented. Male head teachers were also found to be more approachable and democratic in decision-making, while female head teachers were found to be more capable of disciplining of teachers and more efficient in the supervision of academic work. It is therefore recommended that the Ghana Education Service should organize training in leadership and management to help adequately prepare head teachers to be able to do their work well. In addition, the Ghana Education Service should discourage gender stereotyping in schools by sanitizing both head teachers and teachers on the negative effects it has school management.

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1    Background of the Study

In every facet of life, leadership plays a critical role and the school is no exception. School effectiveness is directly linked with leadership (Hallinger, 2005; Hoy & Miskel, 2001). According to Sharma (2010), successful leadership is not the result of simply obtaining a position, being male or female but rather possessing the knowledge and understanding of successful school leadership skills along with personal ability to effectively implement those skills. Hence school leaders need impressive skills to provide effective leadership in a diverse school environment. Such skills in the view of Sharma are not technical but humanistic.

Sharma (2010) claims that it is common experience that under the same set of rules and regulations, with same set of teaching staff and students from similar background, an educational institution degenerate or maintain status quo, or rise to prominence with a change of a principal. Several studies done about male and female leadership have made some propositions. While others maintain that there are differences between how male and female lead, others claim that it is the situation that determines the best leadership styles, regardless of the sex of the leader (Fine, 2009). There are others who also suggest that both men and women lead similarly depending on their positions or situations. Female leadership styles are seen as more transformational, more caring, nurturing, and focusing on those being led as well as the context (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Fine, 2009). Male leadership styles tend to be characterized as more transactional (information, power or service in exchange for co-operation or participation) or autocratic or hierarchical (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Male leadership styles are considered the more traditional and historically, many organizations, including educational institutions were established using this approach.

The real issue in leadership difference lies in equity in selecting the right person with the appropriate skills and qualities to ensure the effectiveness and the success of the organization (Barker, 2000). The involvement of women in leadership roles is not the matter of fitting them in the traditional model, but giving them the opportunity to practice their own leadership styles. Since organizations have been mostly occupied by men, some women have chosen successful male leaders as their role model (Appelbaum & Shariro, 1993). Some other women leaders have attempted to craft their leadership styles that openly demonstrate feminine traits and behaviours.

The presence of feminine or masculine characteristics in leadership styles is related to the construct of gender (Laeson & Freman, 1997). Gender, race, class and other elements of social difference are acknowledged to play an important role in the development of leadership styles. The feminine leadership styles are not better or worse than the traditional male-oriented ones, they are just different. According to Shakeshft (1993), the point of examining these differences is not to say one approach is right or wrong, but rather to understand that males and females may be coming from different perspective, and that unless we understand these differences, we are not likely to work well together.

According to Hackman and Johnson (2004), in the United States despite some gains made, leadership gap still exist. Studies suggest that most traditional sex roles stereotype perceive women's roles as incompatible with leadership roles. Sharma (2010) observes that leadership is not a concept for self, but something that is rightly perceived by followers. Hunter-Boykin and Evans (1995) have linked principal's competencies with perception of teachers. Similarly, Luo (2004) maintains that perceptions about principals as leaders by their teachers indicate an important dimension to evaluate the leader's capacities. In the view of Luo, understanding how teachers perceive the principal's leadership capacities has a great significance and providing evidence for school leadership. Research has demonstrated that teachers' perception of their principals' capacities and their working conditions will

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determine the organizational climate and culture of the school. Such perceptions will also impact on the performance of the school. Jennifer and Gareth (2004) defined perception as "a process through which people select, organize, and interpret what they see, hear, touch, smell and taste, to give meaning and order to the world around them" (p.475). (Lindsay & Norman, 1977), however, believe that what an individual interprets or perceives may be substantially different from reality.

In a study in the United States of America, Hunter-Boykin and Evans (1995) found that majority of the principals were rated as ineffective by their teachers. Hunter-Boykin and Evans however, emphasized that because teachers do not have leadership experiences and cannot fully appreciate principals' work, they make subjective judgments, character assessment, and stereotypical comments about principals who are dissimilar (Hunter-Boykin & Evans, 1995).

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Over the past few years, a number of studies have been conducted on how people perceive male and female leadership. Some of the findings sought to suggest that women lead differently the way men do, while others perceived little or no differences in men and female leadership. For instance, Morley, et al. (2006) in a study in Sri Lanka found that leadership was perceived as demanding, aggressive, authoritarian, and more fitting for males. Odejide (2003) reported how in Nigeria, male head teachers were preferred as they were thought to be more suited to dealing with student unrest. Similarly, in a Gallup poll published by the Slate Group in 2013, it was reported that Americans still prefer a male boss to a female one. The report revealed that while four in ten workers report no preference, 35 percent are happier with a man at the helm; 23 percent would rather prefer to work with a woman.

In contrast, other studies tend to conclude that women are perceived as better educational leaders than men (Shakeshaft, 1993; Coleman, 2002). In a Greek study, females

interpreted women's leadership more positively than men's leadership. They argued that women lead more flexibly, intuitively and holistically (Lyman, Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazaridou, 2009). Most of these studies mentioned above were carried out in foreign countries and as observed by Dimmock and Walkter (2002), they lack contextual specificity and relevance as most of the findings are based mainly on Euro-centric or Anglo-American theories, values, and beliefs.

Observations made by the researcher in schools that he has previously worked in the Suame Metropolis suggest that teachers appear to favour male headteachers to female headteachers. Without a study, the issue of teachers' perception regarding male and female headteachers will not be properly understood and dealt with. It is against this background that this study is being conducted to investigate the perception of basic school teachers about male and female headteachers in the Suame Metropolis in Kumasi with the view to bridging the literature gap and bringing out the real issues into perspective.

## 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to;

1. Investigate the perception of teachers of leadership traits of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi

2. Identify the leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi

3. Identify the underlining factors that influence teachers' perception of male and female headteachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi.

## 1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the perception of teachers of male and female head teachers' leadership traits in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

2. What are the leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

3. What factors influence teachers' perception of male and female headteachers of Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

The study would be significant in the following ways; first it will help identify the perception of teachers of male and female headteachers' leadership in Basic schools in Ghana. In addition, it will provide a useful source of reference for education authorities in their effort to formulate policies for effective educational leadership at the basic school level. The study will further create awareness among head teachers about the perception of teachers regarding their gender and leadership, hence work hard to dispel any negative perception. Finally, the study will contribute to the literature on gender and leadership in educational institutions.

## 1.6 Delimitation of the Study

The issue of male and female leadership cuts across many sectors. However, this study limits itself to investigating the perception of teachers about male and female headteachers in basic schools with focus on the Suame Metropolis. This is because the Suame Metropolis has a relatively fair representation of both male and female headteachers in Basic schools.

## 1.7 Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of the study is in terms of the generalizability of the results. Perceptions of male and female head teachers' leadership may vary between teachers of various ages and education levels functioning in different contexts. Consequently, the results

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of this study may not generalize to other populations working under different conditions. Another limitation was the use of questionnaire as the only instrument for data collection. The use of interview in addition to the questionnaire could have helped to delve deeper into the responses provided by responses. Further, the sample size of 160 was relatively small to draw any definite conclusion about the leadership trait and behaviour of either male or female head teachers.

Notwithstanding these limitations however, it could be said that the findings of this study are valid as extreme care was taken to analyse the data as objectively as possible based on the responses obtained from the respondents.

## 1.8 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into six chapters. Chapter One presents an introduction to the study and outlines the study objectives, research questions, limitations, as well as delimitation. Chapter Two discusses literature related to the study and specifically the meaning of perception, factors that influence perception, gender and leadership, leadership theories and leadership styles. The research approach and methodology is detailed out in Chapter Three while the research findings are presented in Chapter Four. Chapter Five highlights and discusses results of the research, and Chapter Six summaries the study, draws conclusions, and catalogues recommendations from the study for practice and further research.

# CHAPTER TWO

# REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. It particularly addresses perception and leadership, factors that influence perception, Leadership styles and theories, men and women educational leadership, Gender and leadership effectiveness.

## 2.2 Perception and Leadership

Leadership is, in part, based upon the observer's perceptual processes (Lord & Maher, 1991). They claim that perception involves the creation of a schema or prototype of leadership in the mind of the observer and that a leader who matches a perceived schema is considered effective. The perceptions may differ between organizational levels, based upon differences in observed leader behavior (Penny, 2001).

Researchers have defined perception in different ways. Hayes (1998) defined perception to mean how we interpret the information that we receive through the sense organs of the body. Jennifer and Gareth (2004), defined perception as "a process through which people select, organize, and interpret what they see, hear, touch, smell and taste, to give meaning and order to the world around them" (p.475). Gregory (1973) stated that perception was more than simply the decoding of information received by the visual system. Instead, it is a process of making inferences about the data – developing reasonable guesses on the basis of what is most probable or likely.

Perception is closely related to attitudes. Perception is the process by which organisms interpret and organize sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). In other words, a person is confronted with a situation or stimuli. The person interprets the stimuli into something meaningful to him or her based on prior

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experiences. Lindsay and Norman however, believe that what an individual interprets or perceives may be substantially different from reality.

Another important distinguishing feature of perception is its subjectivity. The perception of everybody is private because of the different views that individuals hold about issues. There is uniqueness in each person's view of reality based on his or her own individual experiences. Perceptions, therefore, are private, subjective and experienced from a person's perspective. This presents difficulties in describing and analysing a process, which is the central core of one's experienced existence. The characteristic error in considering perception is to ignore its essential subjectivity and to assume that people's views of their experiences are objective (Bennis, 1998).

Dempster and Mahony (1998) argues that it is impossible to predict that for a given input of information, specific amount of output will be achieved either for the same person at different times or for several people experiencing the same event simultaneously. Stogdill (1978) states that implicit is the notion that perception is the directive for action. The entire environment in which perceiving occurs is not just a source of information but also an arena for action. Perception, therefore, is the source information in memory, which assists the process of interpretation. Perception is an active process which provides structures stability and meaning to one's interaction with the environment. This reduces uncertainty and assists prediction (Hopkins & Jackson, 2003). In addition, it is a subjective, private process which can be subjected to distortion and bias. Also, as the directive for action, it is intimately and integrally related to one's successful adaption to the environment in which he or she lives (Wright & Taylor, 1994).

**2.3 Components of Social Perception**

According to Wright and Taylor (1994), every social interaction has three predominant components, namely, a perceiver, a target being perceived and a situational context in which the perceptual event is occurring. Each of these three components has characteristics which influence the perception and judgment of the target. In the view of Robbins and Judge (2009) a number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. To them these factors reside in the perceiver; in the object or target being perceived; or in the context or situation in which the perception is made.

**2.3.1 The Perceiver**

Wright and Taylor (1994) continue to state an important distinguishing feature of perception is its subjectivity, as noted earlier. An individual's past experiences, emotional state, motivational needs, gender, race, age and a number of other features influence his or her perceptions in idiosyncratic ways, which can lead to misunderstanding and disagreement.

**2.3.2 Past Experience of the Perceiver**

Wright and Taylor (1994) add that one's previous experience with other people in social interactions is a major influence on one's perceptions of such people. Expectations are developed which affect an individual's current perception because of his or her experience. Also, a person's past experience influences his or her interest for work and leisure. This is an example of "perceptual set" where the past experience influences people to attend to and perceive certain features in a situation or events rather than others. To some extent, individuals have "tunnel vision" which causes differences in the perception of people and events and can lead to a problem in communication and conflict within organisations (Wright & Taylor, 1994).

### 2.3.3 Emotional State of the Perceiver

Bennis (1998) continues to state that the emotions of an individual at a particular time can influence his or her perception and judgment. For instance, the way a person who is full of joy will perceive an issue will differ from one who is angry or depressed. An employee who is promoted may fail to notice the unhappiness of a colleague who is not promoted and make remarks, which may be unpleasant to hear. In general, emotional arousal reduces the capacity of a person to use information and form impressions, which are simple and rely on stereotype and prejudice rather than treating people as individuals. The capacity limitations, which lead to the formation of simpler impressions, can be created by anxiety, difficult social interactions, threats and self-esteem.

### 2.3.4 Motivational State of the Perceiver

Hopkins and Jackson (2003) observe that the factor which determines, which stimuli are perceived or ignored is self-interest. There is evidence from laboratory research that the needs of a person can influence the stimuli which is perceived. In an organisation, one's personal needs, interests, beliefs and attitudes will affect his or her selection and interpretation of information. Wright and Taylor state that the beliefs and attitudes of a person influence his or her focus with regard to what to pay attention to, what to remember and what to register in his or her mind. Differences in beliefs and attitudes between union officers and management or subordinates and managers have implication for organisational behaviour.

A manager or leader may ignore instances in which a subordinate may work effectively without supervision but will be quick to notice his or her talking or interaction with others while at work. When managers or leaders have the belief that workers are lazy and therefore need constant supervision, they often notice their idleness. Such instances reinforce their subordinates to work hard (Yukl, 1994).

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### 2.3.5 Individual Features of Perceivers

According to Stogdill (1978), there are a lot of idiosyncratic variables, which can influence the subjectivity of the perceiver's interpretation of other people and events. A very important variable is gender. Attitudes which formed early cultural and social experiences relating to males and females form the basis of the perception and judgment. As individuals perceive things instantly, they do not imagine the difficult process through which such things may be achieved. Much of the processing is automatic, unconscious and based on assumptions developed from one's beliefs and attitudes.

### 2.3.6 Target Being Perceived

A target is a very important feature in perception. Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in groups than ordinary looking individuals. Verbal communication from the target also affects our perception of them. The perceiver deciphers eye contact, facial expressions, body movements, and posture all in attempt to form impression of target. A very important variable which relates to the target is its degree of ambiguity. In this sense, the people who are familiar are less ambiguous. Anyone who developed a strong relationship with other people might have developed expectations about them and made assumptions which led to decision making on their behalf in good faith but was not accepted. The degree of ambiguity increases with the people whom an individual is less familiar with (Wright & Taylor, 1994).

### 2.3.7 Situational Context of the Perceiver

According to Martin (2001), perceptions occur in an environment which is not a mere source of information but also an arena for action since perception is a basis for actions. One's total environment, other people and events, in addition to the situational contexts to a

large extent, determine social roles, family roles such as parents, spouse and siblings, occupational roles and roles for social group membership which influence one's behaviour at a particular time. The context at any time will influence the modality of behaviour.

Sometimes, these multiple roles may conflict with each other and force a leader or manager to act differently to arrest the situation. For instance, personal crisis, which may affect the work of a subordinate, may cause a leader or manager to shift from a managerial role to a parental role. The importance and impact of the situational context on perception and behaviours are not surprising though the shift of roles and the consequent changes in behaviour generally occur automatically, particularly in familiar situations. However, there are individual differences in sensitivity to situational cues, which trigger these changes. Lack of experience can account for some of these.

The expectations of stakeholders like parents and teachers do influence their perceptions on leadership effectiveness of a school. For instance, stakeholders' high expectation of the school in relation to how they see the management of resources and the extent of their involvement in decision making affecting the school, undoubtedly will influence the perceptions they have about the effectiveness of the school leadership.

### 2.3.7 Stereotyping

Stereotyping relates to how individuals fit attributes of ability, character, or behaviour to groups and/or populations in order to make generalizations. The term stereotype is defined to mean a conventional image applied to whole groups of people, and the treatment of groups according to a fixed set of generalized traits or characteristics. Although stereotyping can be positive because it allows us to organize a very complex world, it may be considered negative if used as overly generalized views about groups of individuals. Researchers suggest that stereotypes wield a strong, covert influence on human behaviour (even among those who do not agree with stereotypes). Social researchers have revealed that it is relatively easy for

stereotypes to be activated across a wide range of contexts and situations, based on many factors including race, gender, religion, physical appearances, disability, and occupation (Bargh, Chen & Burrows, 1996).

One of the most common forms of stereotyping is on the issue of gender and leadership. Traits often attached to leadership are "masculine" qualities such as courage, persuasiveness, and assertiveness. As such, an aggressive male leader may be viewed as "ambitious," compared with an assertive female leader who may be viewed as "pushy." This is, in part, because the female leader's behaviour violates a gender stereotype that women are not so assertive.

## 2.3.8 Gender Socialization

Socialisation theorists argue that "gender identity and differences are acquired through various developmental processes associated with life stages, such as schooling and work life" (Bartol, Martin, & Kromkowski, 2003, p. 9). Neville (1988) argues that socialisation "reinforces the sexual division of labour" (p. 18) and is the result of the nurturing role that most societies assign to women. Images of feminine roles are available everywhere: at school, at work, at home, on television and in literature. She maintains that these roles make women passive and obedient. Sperandio (2009) maintains that a successful Ugandan woman, for instance, used to be portrayed as "one who got married, raised a family and submitted to her husband" (p.53). According to some scholars, since a male-dominated culture underpinning the socialisation process makes women subordinates (Curry, 2000), men do not like to be led by women (Coleman, 2002; Powney, 1997; Shah, 2009; Shakeshaft, 1987). This is also a consequence of the socialisation of men, as "they are brought up to believe women cannot lead them" (Sperandio, 2009, p. 53). Women are socialized to achieve goals as a group and therefore, it is only when the group has achieved the goals that success is realized (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1997).

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Menon the other hand, are socialized to achieve goals individually which has historically correlated with traditional leadership styles in which men were most often the leaders and had the power (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). Women are also socialized to nurture and support others as they assume the traditional role of mother and caretaker of the home while men are socialized to persevere and seek professional success (Whitaker & Lane, 1990 in Mahoney, 1993). "Both men and women frequently fail to see leadership potential in female educators because of the belief that authority roles might conflict with the primary commitment of all women - bearing and raising children" (Kennington-Edson, 1993).

**2.3.9 Social Role Expectations**

Society holds certain expectations of women. Women are expected to be attractive, passive, pleasant, modest (Marshall, 1985), co-operative, nurturing, and dependent (Slauenwhite & Skok, 1991). These societal expectations could contribute to the belief that men manage the schools while the women nurture the learners – as in the traditional home (Whitaker & Lane 1990 in Storey & Zellinsky, 1993). It is difficult for women not to conform to these stereotypical expectations (Slauenwhits & Skok, 1991).

The individual gender orientation, which includes expectations for how male and females are supposed to look, feel, and behave presents additional challenge for women leaders as the characteristics associated with leadership are historically masculine (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). In general, it is easier for men to be perceived as possessing the task-relevant competencies and leadership ability that are essential to emerging as a leader (leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

In fact, there are occasions when a leader must make a difficult decision, which is in line with expectations of leaders. However, Social Role Theory explains that people expect women to be kind and gentle, based on their social role. So when a woman acts in a decisive manner, it is contrary to the social role expectation of a woman (Yoder, 2004). In reality,

when a woman is committed to asserting herself as a valuable, independent member of society, unwilling to be ignored, disrespected or dominated, she can find herself thwarted by the inflexibility of societal expectations (Curry-Johnson, 2001, p. 54). In addition, Roth (2004) explains that because gender is a diffuse status characteristic in which men are valued as having higher status than women, women's competence is often evaluated more harshly than men's even when they exhibit equal or superior performance (p. 193).

## 2.4 The Concept of Leadership

The term leadership has been described in terms of the position, personality, responsibility, influence process; instrument to achieve a goal, behaviours (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2007). There are many different definitions of leadership (Northhouse, 2012) and most of the definitions have a common theme of directing a group towards a goal. Robbins and Judge (2011) defined leadership as the ability to influence a group towards achievement of vision or set goals. Northouse (2007) perceives leadership as the process in which one individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. To Northouse, a leader is a person who influences, establishes goals and guides individuals towards achieving those goals. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Robbins and Judge further state that leaders are needed today to challenge the status quo, create visions of the future, and inspire organizational members to want to achieve the visions. Clawson (2009) views leadership as the effective management of energy. He advocates for leaders to manage effectively their own energy as well as that of their followers to ensure that organizations operate effectively and efficiently.

Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995) on their part defined leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. The focus of the group must definitely be on the core activities of the organization and it must be guided by a

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superior who is a leader. Afful-Broni (2004) describes leadership as the process that is responsible for mobilizing the various forces, factors and agencies through planned activities towards a common goal or set of goals. Hackman and Johnson (2004) on their part maintained that leadership is human (symbolic) communication, which modifies the attitude and behaviour of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs. Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001) believed that leadership influences individuals' behaviour based on both individuals' and organisational goals.

From these and many other definitions, it may be concluded that the definition of leadership is characterized by four basic elements as noted by Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995). First, leadership involves other people – employees or followers. Secondly, leadership involves an unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members. A third aspect of leadership is the ability to use the different forms of power to influence followers' behaviour in a number of ways. The fourth aspect combines the first three and acknowledges that leadership is about values. In other words the leader who ignores the moral component of leadership is bound to fail.

### 2.4.1 Leadership Traits

According to Yukl (2006), the term trait refers to a variety of individual attributes, including aspects of personality. For Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader (2004). (2004), leadership traits refer to "relatively stable and coherent integrations of personal characteristics that foster a consistent pattern of leadership performance across a variety of group and organisational situations" (p. 104). These characteristics reflect a range of stable individual differences that include both cognitive ability and various personality attributes (Zaccaro et al., 2004).

Key traits identified as essential to effective leadership are intelligence, confidence, charisma, determination, sociability, and integrity (Northouse, 2012). Intelligence (i.e. cognitive ability) has been identified as one of the great traits of leadership and among the

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most critical traits that must be possessed by all leaders. Intelligent leaders are capable of addressing important issues across a broad spectrum of organizational functions, and developing solutions for complex problems (Judge, Colbert, Ilies, 2004). Intelligence may be thought of having good language, perceptual and reasoning skills. Being knowledgeable and aware of the intricacies of one's responsibilities are also associated with intelligence.

Confidence is having the self-assurance of success in leadership. Charisma refers to the likeability of a person and this trait allows others to be influenced by the leader. The core of charismatic leadership theory rests on the notion that a leader's influence on his or her followers is often beyond the legal and formal authority structure, and relies instead on the leader's personal charm, attractiveness, and persuasive communication. Charismatic leaders are able to influence followers by articulating a compelling vision for the future, and arousing and inspiring commitment among them (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009).). Determination is the drive that leaders possess to get things done as effectively and efficiently as possible. Sociability is the capability of leaders to establish meaningful social relationships, and integrity is the embodiment of honesty and trustworthiness (Northouse, 2012).

Over the years researchers have examined a variety of different personality traits related to leadership. The choice of traits and the labels used for them have varied from study to study, but the results have been fairly consistent across different research methods (Yukl, 2006). For instance, in 1990, Bass published the results of an extensive review of the leader trait research and presented a list of stable personality traits that were supported by multiple empirical studies up to the late 1980s. Thereafter, Zaccaro et al. (2004) and Yukl (2006) summarised the leader traits that have received empirical support as being relevant to leadership since Bass's (1990) review (Poling, 2009).

Together, these reviews present a set of traits that have been validly linked to leadership effectiveness over the last five decades (Poling, 2009). Table 2.1 lists the key leader traits identified in each of these three studies

**2.1: Key Leadership Trait**

| Bass (1990) | Zaccaro et al. (2004) | Yukl (2006) |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Adjustment *(Emotional stability)* | Cognitive ability | Energy |
| Adaptability (Openness) | Extroversion | Stress tolerance |
| Aggressiveness *(Need for power)* | Conscientiousness *(Personal integrity)* | Self-confidence |
| Alertness *(Energy)* | Emotional stability | Internal locus of control |
| Dominance *(Need for power)* | Openness | Emotional stability |
| Self-control/Emotional balance *(Emotional stability)* | Agreeableness | Personal integrity (Conscientiousness) |
| Independence | Need for power | Socialised power motivation *(Need for power)* |
| Nonconformity/Originality/ Creativity *(Openness)* | Need for achievement | Achievement orientation *(Need for achievement)* |
| Self-confidence | Motivation to lead *(Need for power)* | Low need for affiliation |
| | Social intelligence | |

Adapted from Poling (2009)

**2.4.2 Leadership Behaviour**

Leadership behaviour plays a significant role within organisations and it is closely linked to the success of an organisation (Larsson & Vinberg, 2010). Leadership behaviour in the view of Kickul and Neuman (2000) and Rossouw (2014) is an important tool when it comes to aspects such as shaping the organisation's culture, which involves the process of developing the employees to ensure their conduct and behaviour contributes positively towards the organisational objectives. With the task of ensuring transformation in organizations, it is important that leaders demonstrate observable behaviours that best suits the situation and the people within an organisation (Van Tassel & Poe-Howfield, 2010). These observable behaviours can contribute towards increasing the success and competence of the organisation.

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## 2.4.1.1 Task-Orientated Leadership Behaviours

Task-orientated behaviours are those behaviours that facilitate the process of understanding task requirements, operating procedures and acquiring task information. Task-orientated leadership includes various behaviours in which leaders define group activities and the relation they have with the group. Thus, these leaders will be clear regarding the role of each member, in order for them to have a clear understanding of their assigned tasks, plans and the way in which production should take place (Brown, 2003).

## 2.4.1.2 Relationship-Orientated Leadership Behaviours

Relations-orientated leadership behaviours as defined by Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, and Kramer (2004) are "behaviours that focus on the socio-emotional: showing consideration for subordinates' feelings, acting friendly and personally supportive to them, and being concerned for their welfare" (p. 7). These behaviours are those that are used to facilitate behavioural interactions, relationships and cognitive structures (Burke et al, 2006). Relationship-orientated leadership can be associated with labels such as building camaraderie, trust, respect and as the relationship that forms between leaders and their subordinates (Northouse, 2011). According to Brown (2003), this type appears to "emphasize a deeper concern for group members' needs and includes such behaviours as allowing subordinates more participation in decision making and encouraging more two-way communication" (p. 10).

## 2.5 Leadership Theories

Several studies have been done about leadership leading to many theories (Sergon, 2005). Many theorists have argued that the secret to leadership problems lies in the style of the leader, the nature of the task, and the situation plus his personality (Northouse, 2007). The

leadership theories fall under four categories. These are: the traits theories, styles theories, and contingency and skills theories.

**2.5.1 Trait Theory**

One of the first systemic approaches to leadership was the trait theory (Northouse, 2007). Trait approach to leadership maintains that leaders were born with certain qualities that make them effective leaders (Alig-Mielcarek, 2003; Nahavandi, 2012; Northouse, 2007). This theory purports that only certain people have the natural capabilities for leadership, and they should be the only people called upon to lead. These individuals are believed to have certain critical qualities that ensure success such as tirelessness and special insights as well as the capacity for persuasion (Garuba & Rothstein, 1998). This type of leadership affords no credence to the concept that leadership is a process that may be learned (Northouse, 2007). This theory also assumes that the individual's qualities determine success in leadership. The traits, according to Koontz and Weihrich (1998), include: physical traits, intelligence, personality drive and social traits. However, research has shown that not all leaders possess all the traits and, many non-leaders may possess most or all of them. Furthermore, there is no specification of how much of each trait a leader should have. Traits that lead to success of a leader differ depending on the situation. Stogdill (as cited in (Northouse, 2007) says that leaders exhibit certain characteristics such as intelligence, initiative, self-assurance and socio-economic position. Cole as cited in Mudulia (2012) states that of all the traits which appear more frequently, intelligence, energy and resourcefulness are the most representative. A head teacher who possesses such traits is more likely to steer the school to produce good results.

**2.5.2 Contingency Theory**

Fred Fiedler's model cited by Koontz and Weihrich (1998) suggests that group performance or effectiveness is dependent upon the interaction of leadership style and the

extent of control the leader has over the environment (situation). He gives the situational variables as leader staff relations, task structure and position power. The second key variable is the leader. Fiedler suggests two basic leader orientations, which are: relationship oriented (staff centred) and task oriented (task centred). In Fiedler's view, the leader-group relationship is most important. The Contingency concept of leadership was developed by Professor John Adair (Cole, 1996). This model of leadership incorporates concern for the task and concern for people. It further distinguishes the concern for individuals from concern for groups and stresses that effective leadership lies in what the leader does to meet the needs of the task, group and individuals within the prevailing conditions. In a school setting, the task functions a head teacher needs to fulfill include planning, allocation of responsibilities and setting appropriate standards of performance. The group tasks include team-building for instance a formidable science department, motivation and communication while individual tasks include in-service and motivation.

### 2.5.3 Style Theory

The style approach to leadership is focuses primarily on what leaders do and how they act (Northouse, 2007).The emphasis is on facilitating the completion of a task as well as ensuring that subordinates are comfortable in their work situation. Leadership, therefore, emphasizes two general kinds of behavior: task behavior and relationship behaviour. Style theories consider leadership as an aspect of behaviour at work rather than personal qualities (Cole, 1993). The theories are expressed in terms of authoritarian versus democratic styles, or people-oriented versus task-oriented. The best-known styles theories are: The Authoritarian-democratic, and the People-task orientations. The authoritarian-democratic theories include McGregor's theory X and theory Y manager. McGregor's theory of management is based on two basic philosophies of human behaviour in organizational management (Mankoe, 2002; Afful-Broni, 2004). He referred to the two basic philosophies as Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X leadership assumes a posture of distrust in viewing workers in the organization (Mankoe, 2002), while the opposing style , holds a positive view of workers and hence gives a different view of what leadership means (Afful-Broni, 2004).

McGregor's theory X manager is tough, autocratic and supports controls with punishment-reward systems, hence authoritarian. On the other hand, the theory Y manager is benevolent, participative and believes in self-controls, hence democratic. A manager who subscribes to Theory X does not trust employees and views their efforts with pessimism thereby resorting to the use of an authoritarian leadership style based on the threat of punishment. Motivation has been seen the underlying factor that drives Theory Y assumption. Here, management assumes employees may be intrinsically motivated, ambitious and are anxious even if not capable to accept greater responsibility in getting work done. They feel empowered, exercise great self-control at work, and are willing to bring their creativity to bear if the need arises. A Japanese-American, William G. Ouchi in 1982, propounded a theory he called Theory Z. Theory Z management holds the idea that tends to promote a stable employment environment coupled with a high productivity as well as a high employee morale and satisfaction. Theory Z culture is, therefore, characterized by shared values of intimacy, cooperation, teamwork and egalitarianism (equal rights) (Mankoe 2002). The organizational characteristics of Theory Z according to Afful-Broni (2004) are long-term employment, slower promotion rates, participative decision-making, individual responsibility for group decisions and holistic orientation.

### 2.5.4 Skills Approach Theory

Sergon (2005) posits that in addition to the traits, styles and the contingency theories of leadership, there is the skills approach to leadership. In the view of Sergon, this refers to the skills that are essential for effective management. This approach emphasizes the importance of three skills in leadership; technical skill, human skills, and conceptual skills.

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A technical skill leads to ability to work proficiently while human skills enable one to work efficiently in a group. On the other hand, conceptual skills enable one to see the organization as one whole unit.

Katz (1955) states that human skills enable one to work with people, conceptual skills involve ability to work with ideas and concepts while technical skills refer to knowledge, competency and proficiency in a specific work or activity, for instance, the use of computers. Unlike the trait approach emphasizing that certain great individuals were born to lead, the skills approach advocates that many people have the potential to lead (Northhouse, 2007). Mbiti (1974) concurs when he says, a head-teacher, like a captain, must be fully skilled in such things as official procedure, delegating duties, communication, human relations, and modern educational techniques so as to lead his team successfully in both curriculum and other matters. Commenting on the same, Orora (1997) says school managers need technical skills in the methods, processes, procedures and techniques of education, including specific knowledge in finance, accounting, scheduling, purchasing, construction and maintenance. Concerning human relations, school managers require self-understanding and acceptance as well as appreciation, empathy and consideration for others.

### 2.5.5 Path – Goal Theory

Path goal theory emphasises the motivation of subordinates to accomplish given tasks. The theory suggests that subordinates perform tasks well if they are expected to do so and more especially if they expect a reward for the tasks performed. It stresses that leaders define goals, clarify paths, remove obstacles and provide support (Green, 2010; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Nahavandi, 2012; Northouse, 2007).

House and Mitchell (1974), leading advocates for the path goal theory posited that subordinates are motivated when the number and kind of payoffs are increased by the leadership. They also contend that subordinates are motivated when the path to the goal is

easily accessible and when there is adequate guidance and support. Motivation and support are believed to lead to personal satisfaction. According to this theory, leaders need to ensure that they remove obstacles, define and clarify goals, and support subordinates to ensure a maximum output in their organizations (Northouse, 2007).

## 2.6 Gender and Leadership

Gender has emerged as an important factor within leadership research when research began to shift to how leaders affect subordinates (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Gillet-Karam cited in Dean, Bracken and Allen, (2009) argue that leadership practice is strongly situated, not gender determined. According to Weyer (2007), the debate about gender and leadership necessitates further research if a definitive conclusion is to be reached. Lyman, Athanasoula-Reppa, and Lazaridou, (2009) agree with Rhode's (2003) conclusion that the relationship between gender and leadership is likely "a matter of perception" due to insufficient supporting evidence for differences (p. 115). However, the impact of gender on leadership seems to be undeniable.

Shakeshaft (1993), defines gender as a cultural term which is "socially constructed and describes the characteristics that we ascribe to people because of their sex, the ways we believe they behave or the characteristics we believe they have based upon our cultural expectations of what is male and what is female" (p. 52). Regan (1995) on her part states that gender is a category of experience and, therefore, women and men may experience and interpret the role of school leadership differently. But she also makes the point that learning from the experiences of the other gender is certainly not impossible, if both genders are willing to try.

Leadership styles based on characteristics such as power, influence, control, aggressiveness and being task-oriented have historically been attributed to men (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001) and have been described as agentic characteristics (Eagly &

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Karau, 2002). Women leaders are often depicted as relational leaders (Regan & Brooks, 1990), or communal leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The characteristics associated with this type of leadership include: caring about people, seeking to create and maintain relationships, empowering others, and transforming individuals and society (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Klenke, 1996; Wilson, 2004). Women leaders are described as developing a caring, nurturing environment that fosters relationships (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Fine, 2009; Heim & Murphy, 2001; Klenke, 1996). Pounder and Coleman (2002) also observe that traditionally, descriptors identified with the male are rational, assertive, analytical, confident and ambitious, while the female is thought to be sensitive, emotional, cooperative and intuitive. In Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen's (2003) meta-analysis, 45 studies were examined to compare the leadership styles of men and women leaders and managers mainly in education and business. These studies used the scale of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The comparisons revealed that male leaders were more transactional than women leaders where men implemented agentic styles. In contrast, women leaders were more transformational in the sense that they adopted a more communal, supportive style than men (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003).

Some researchers have also found that women tend to adopt a more democratic style of leadership, allowing for subordinates to participate in decision – making (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Men, on the other hand are more likely to adopt an autocratic and more directive style of leadership. Men and women also exhibit some differences in transactional and transformational leadership styles. Research on effective leaders demonstrates that subordinates evaluate leaders more positively when the transformational leadership style is adopted (Hoyt, 2010). Women, compared to men, tend to adopt and exhibit more effective leadership styles (the transformational leadership style and the reward contingent portion of the transactional leadership style).

Work on female leadership style tends to conclude that "women are better educational leaders" than men (Coleman, 2003, p. 41; Shakeshaft, 1993). This claim is justified in terms of women's relationships, teaching and learning and community building (Shakeshaft, 1993). In a Greek study, female principals interpreted women's leadership more positively than men's leadership. They argued that women lead more flexibly, intuitively and holistically (Lyman et al., 2009). Some argue that women embrace superior leadership styles (Coleman, 2003).

A study by Van Engen, vanderLeeden, &Willemsen, (2001) found no differences between the leadership styles of men and women in an investigation of leadership in four department stores. Although women are actually more likely than men to exhibit effective styles of leadership, overall, the literature shows mixed findings and minimal gender differences. As leadership styles are moving away from authoritarian styles and toward more inclusive styles, the differences in styles adopted by men and women are shrinking (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

## 2.7 Leadership Styles

Leadership research assumes that typically one individual emerges in a group as the one with the most social influence in order to achieve a group goal (Hogg, 2010). Early research on leadership explored the way individuals influence others (leadership style). Leadership style is defined as the pattern of behaviours that leaders display during their work with and through others (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001). Miller, Walker and Drummond (2002) view leadership style as the pattern of interactions between leaders and subordinates. It includes controlling, directing, and all techniques and methods used by leaders to motivate subordinates to follow their instructions. Leadership style is viewed as a composite of "relatively stable patterns of behaviour that are manifested by leaders" (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 781).

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According to Kavanaugh and Ninemeier (2001), there are three factors that determine the type of leadership style: leaders' characteristics, subordinates' characteristics, and the organisation environment. More specifically, the personal background of leaders such as personality, knowledge, values, and experiences shapes their feelings about appropriate leadership that determine their specific leadership style; employees also have different personalities, backgrounds, expectations and experiences, for example, employees who are more knowledgeable and experienced may work well under a democratic leadership style, while employees with different experiences and expectations require an autocratic leadership style. Some factors in the organisation environment such as organisational climate, organisation values, composition of work group and type of work can also influence leadership style. However, leaders can adapt their leadership style to the perceived preferences of their subordinates (Wood, 1994).

Leadership styles can be classified according to the leaders' power and behaviour as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire, where styles are distinguished by the influence leaders have on subordinates (Mullins, 1998; Rollinson, 2005). The influence of leadership will differ according to the type of power used by a leader over their subordinates (Mullins, 1998). Hence, leaders will be more effective when they know and understand the appropriate usage of power (Hersey et al., 2001). Some of the leadership styles are fully discussed below.

### 2.7.1 Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership is the domineering style of administration where the leader alone dreams, determines, sets policies, and also assigns tasks to members without previous consultations with them. Leaders possess total authority and impose their will on subordinates (Afful-Broni, 2004). An autocratic leader is usually very strict, directive, makes use of his power of influence from his position to control rewards and force the followers to comply with his instruction (Daft, 2005; Jogulu & Wood, 2006). This type of leader

dominates and controls all the decisions and actions by giving instruction and direction to the followers on what to do and how to carry out a task whereby restricting follower's creativity and innovativeness Ansari, Ahmad and Aafaqi (2004) argues that Malaysian managers who were autocratic and directive were deemed effective. However, in view of globalization and the knowledge economy, autocratic leadership may no longer be accepted by the subordinates who are becoming more competent, independent, and knowledgeable (Tom, 2002; Gapp, 2002; Viitala, 2004). This leadership style benefits employees who require close supervision. Creative employees who thrive in group functions detest this leadership style

### 2.7.2 Participative Leadership

Participative Leadership often called the democratic leadership style involves consultation, encouragement and facilitation between the leaders and subordinates in making a decision (Daft, 2005; Yukl, 2006). Participative leadership values the input of team members and peers, but the responsibility of making the final decision rests with the leader. Given the notion that subordinates are more knowledgeable and are equipped with relevant skills, they would prefer managers who would give them the opportunity to be heard. Instead of suppressing the disagreement to appease their superior as done previously, the new generation of workers would definitely want to have a part to play in decision making. The emergence of this preference for participative style was evident in the findings of several researchers. Govindan cited in Ansari, et al., (2004), reports that Malaysians prefer consultative and participative leadership. Participative leadership boosts employee morale because employees make contributions to the decision-making process. It causes them to feel as if their opinions matter. When a company needs to make changes within the organization, the participative leadership style helps employees accept changes easily because they play a role in the process. This style meets challenges when companies need to make a decision in a short period. Participative leader will be perceived as effective by the subordinates.

**2.7.3 Laissez-Faire Leadership**

This kind of leader neither support followers nor try to lead them. They are reluctant to attract followers and they prefer not to deal with their needs and demands. They fail to make individual or group decisions and avoid responsibilities. They fail to be a part of anything and are not interested in ongoing actions or activities (Deluga, 1995; Kikbride, 2006). Laissez-faire leaders provide full freedom to followers. They avoid followers' questions and they don't evaluate them. Under the leadership of laissez-faire organizations, an organizational structure is hard to be formed and ineffective. Therefore, followers have rather low satisfaction. In this kind of leadership, the quality of work that is being done is very low.

Laissez-faire leadership can be considered as the least satisfactory and the most ineffective leadership style. Followers are quite isolated from the leader and they hardly ever participate in the process of taking decisions. Having freedom in organizations can cause lack of control and organizational sanctions. Individual goals are above organizational goals (Bass & Stodgill, 1990). Laissez-faire leaders avoid responsibility, fail to make decisions, are absent when needed, or fail to follow up on requests (Bass cited in Nguni, Sleegersb & Denessen, 2006).

A laissez-faire leader lacks direct supervision of employees and fails to provide regular feedback to those under his supervision. Highly experienced and trained employees requiring little supervision fall under the laissez-faire leadership style. However, not all employees possess those characteristics. This leadership style hinders the production of employees needing supervision. The laissez-faire style produces no leadership or supervision efforts from managers, which can lead to poor production, lack of control and increasing costs.

**2.7.4 Transformational Leadership**

Northouse (2007) defined transformational leadership as "a process that changes and transforms individuals. It is concerned with values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals and includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings" (p. 169). Robbins and Judge (2017) describe transformational leaders as "leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers" (p. 395).

Transformational leaders consider leadership as a process that stimulates and inspires their followers and that also enhances their leadership capacities. Moreover, transformational leaders support their followers to gain problem-solving skills by coaching and mentoring as well as inspiring them (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This type of leadership style is directed to future, innovation, change and reformation. Transformational leaders inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes by providing both meaning and understanding. They align the objectives and goals of individual followers and the larger organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 3). Therefore, it seems likely that transformational leaders, by stimulating followers' organizational citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) enhance quality and quantity of follower performance. The leader's attitude may lead the followers to consider the organization's interest above their own interests. Transformational leaders try to inspire their followers for a mission and orient them to a dream or a vision (Eren, 2001). Transformational leaders challenge and encourage subordinates to think independently. As a result of an open and supportive environment, subordinates are motivated to perform well on tasks assigned.

Robbins and Judge (2017) conclude that transformational leaders or managers transform subordinates in three main ways;

Transformational managers make subordinates aware of how important their jobs are for the organization and how necessary it is for them to perform those jobs as best as they can so the

organization can attain its goals. Transformational managers make their subordinates aware of the subordinates' own needs for personal growth, development, and accomplishment. Transformational managers motivate their subordinates to work for the good of the organization as a whole (pp. 352-353).

### 2.7.5 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is based on the expected reward in return for the obedience of the followers with their effort, productivity and loyalty (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactional leadership involves an exchange of things of value that benefit both the leader and the follower (Alig-Mielcarek, 2003; Burns, 1978; Green, 2010; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Northouse, 2007). Transactional leadership style is based on past and traditions, and leaders who behave in the form of transactional leadership style use their authority in rewarding their followers by giving money and status so that the followers could make more effort (Eren, 2001).

Robbins and Judge (2017) described transactional leaders as those designated in authority positions who motivate through clear goals, defined roles and following specific directions or requirements. Transactional leaders focus on financial rewards or penalties to increase efficiency (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The leader gains cooperation in the completion of tasks through the promise of reward. This contractual relationship is mutually beneficial to both the leader and the follower (Green, 2010). Leadership is also largely managerial as it contributes to the smooth flow of the organization in question. A cost may be attached to not completing one's side of the contract (Green, 2010).. Leaders with a transactional style provide rewards for satisfactory performance and provide feedback when subordinates are not performing well or not meeting standards set forth by the leader (Eagly, 2007).

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**2.8 Women and Men Educational Leadership Styles**

Generally, leadership styles are associated with the notion that gender affects leadership style (Pounder & Coleman, 2002). Since men and women have different leadership styles, the differences do not mean that one has dominance over the other. The difference may be due in part to men seeing leadership as leading and women seeing leadership as facilitating (Schaef, 1985). Although male and female administrators perform many of the same tasks in carrying out their work, different aspects of the job are emphasized (Chliwniak, 1997). Women embrace relationships, sharing, and process, but men focus on completing tasks, achieving goals, hoarding of information, and winning (Chliwniak, 1997). Women educational administrators focus on instructional leadership in supervisory practices and are concerned with students' individual differences, knowledge of curriculum teaching methods, and the objectives of teaching (Conner, 1992). In the area of instructional leadership, women spend more years as principals and teachers, and have more degrees than men; they emphasize the importance of curriculum and instruction in their work (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996).

Women leaders focus on instructional leadership, men more often emphasize organizational matters (Conner, 1992). Men in leadership positions tend to lead from the front, attempting to have all the answers for their subordinates. Women lean toward facilitative leadership, enabling others to make their contributions through delegation, encouragement, and nudging from behind (Porat, 1991).

Because women's main focus is on relationships, they interact more frequently than men with teachers, students, parents, non-parent community members, professional colleagues, and subordinates (Conner, 1992). Men, on the other hand, stress task accomplishment (Conner, 1992) and they tend to lead through a series of concrete exchanges that involved rewarding employees for a job well done and punishing them for an inadequate job performance (Getskow, 1996). Many women support contributive, consensual decision

making and emphasize the process, but men tend to lean toward majority rule and tend to emphasize the product, the goal (Porat, 1991). Men utilize the traditional top-down administrative style (Eakle, 1995).

Women are more interested in transforming people's self-interest into organizational goals by encouraging feelings of self-worth, active participation, and sharing of power and information (Getskow, 1996). In the view of Ryder (1994) women spend more time in unscheduled meetings, visible on school campus, and observing teachers considerably more than male principals. He also maintains that women principals are more likely to interact with their staff and spend more time in the classroom or with teachers discussing the academic and curricular areas of instruction. Women principals are more likely to influence teachers to use more desirable teaching methods (Tallerioco & Burstyn, 1996).

## 2.9 Gender and Leadership Effectiveness

Leaders are perceived and evaluated on many traits and behaviour, including how efficiently a group attains a set goal and how subordinates feel about their leader. Along with style and effectiveness, gender has emerged as an important factor in what makes a good leader. Research has demonstrated that the prototypical representation of a leader is a male, with agentic qualities such as assertiveness, directness, and competence (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Traditional gender roles do not ascribe these characteristics to women, and thus the literature has documented many negative perceptions toward women leaders, such that women are evaluated negatively for exhibiting prototypical leadership behaviors (Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman & Fairchild, 2004).

Although leadership style is one important area in the study of leadership, perception of leaders is just as important. Hicks (1996) notes that public perception does not look at female administrators as favourably as male administrators, causing more challenges for women in administrative positions. A leader can embrace an effective leadership style, yet be

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perceived negatively, thus impeding progress toward goals. Even though women may be more likely to have effective leadership styles, women leaders continue to be perceived negatively (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992). Traditional gender roles and social role theory partly explain this discrepancy. Traditional gender roles have been categorized into two dimensions: communal and agentic (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman & Fairchild, 2004).

Agentic qualities (e.g., independence, assertiveness) are most often associated with men, whereas communal qualities (e.g., friendliness, concern with others) are associated with women. Agentic qualities can also resemble the automatically activated behaviors of powerful individuals (e.g., active pursuit of goals). For example, one study asked participants in an organization to monitor and record interactions with subordinates, co–workers, and supervisors. The study found that all individuals, regardless of gender, exhibited more agentic behaviors when interacting with subordinates and behaved less agentically with a boss or supervisor (although women exhibited more communal behaviors when interacting with other women than when interacting with men (Moskowitz, Suh, & Desaulniers, 1994).

According to Eagly and colleagues' social role theory (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Eagly & Karau, 2002, Eagly, Johanessen---Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003), leaders are perceived more positively when leadership style aligns with traditional gender roles. Therefore, when women lead in a more communal way, others will perceive them as good leaders. Women in leadership positions are rewarded for exhibiting more democratic or transformational styles, as these styles are more closely related to traditional gender roles ascribed to women. Because there are different expectations for men and women (i.e., different roles ascribed to them), the same actions are perceived differently when performed by men and women. When women exhibit autocratic or transactional leadership styles, they face negative evaluations (Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman & Fairchild, 2004). These negative perceptions of leaders are further worsened when women are leaders in traditionally

masculine domains such as the military or engineering. Another aspect of the negative perception of women leaders is that the prototypical representation of a leader is a male (Ridgeway, 2001; Heilman, 2001). As a result, men are perceived to have a higher potential for leadership. Leaders are often characterized as being decisive, independent, and objective. These qualities are more closely related to agentic characteristics and traditional masculine gender roles. Because women are expected to be emotional and caring, women are often evaluated as having less potential for leadership. Related to potential for leadership, men are also viewed as having more influence in groups (Carli, 2001).

This research has demonstrated that both men and women dislike women who frequently disagree with group members. Additionally, women who communicate in an assertive manner exert less influence within a group. Research has found only a few differences between men and women's leadership styles; the similarities in the behaviour of male and female leaders are more notable than the differences. However, gender affects the differences in evaluations of leaders. In other words, the expectation is that men are better qualified to be leaders than women. As Eagly and colleagues have suggested, women are caught in a double bind – if a woman tries to behave like a prototypical leader, she faces negative evaluations as a result of breaking gender norms. But the research on the effects of power reviewed above, revealing the kinds of behaviors automatically activated by power, suggests that that is exactly how women in power will behave.

There were ample of researches on gender differences in leadership behavior and leadership effectiveness. Although women have been found to be similar to men in many qualities, stereotypes about their belief and perceptions indicated that they have been rated less influential than men (Burke, Rothstein, & Bristor, 1995). Stereotyping often leads to the belief that women generally have lower level of competence and expertise than men do. Thus, they are perceived to be less influential than men. In order to be considered equally competent with men, women actually have to outperform men (Foschi, 1996). Unlike their

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male counterparts, women who appear to be too assertive are viewed as violating expectations about appropriate behavior for women (Meeker & Weitzel-O'Neil, 1985). In fact, people tend to assume a manager is male if they portray masculine leadership styles (Embry, Padgett and Caldwell, 2008).

## 2.10 Summary

The literature of the study points out that leadership characteristics such as power, influence, control, aggressiveness, etc. have historically been attributed to men while women leaders are often depicted as relational leaders – caring about people, seeking to create and maintain relationships, empowering others, and transforming individuals. However, it must be noted that leadership practice is strongly situated and not gender determined. The relationship between gender and leadership is likely "a matter of perception" due to insufficient supporting evidence for differences. However, the impact of gender on leadership seems to be undeniable. Gender stereotypes and social role expectation contribute to how male and female leadership are perceived. For instance, a female leaders that practices autocratic leadership which is more masculine in nature will be rated even more poorly than their male managers in terms of effectiveness because they have violated the gender role stereotype.

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# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the first section describes the research design, while the second describes the participant sampling and selection procedures. In the third part, the data collection instruments and administration procedures are detailed. The fourth section describes the methods of data analysis used in the study.

## 3.2 Research Design

This study employed the quantitative method or approach. Quantitative research involves gathering data that is absolute, such as numerical data, so that it can be examined in unbiased manner as much as possible (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). One of the major benefits of quantitative research is that it enables the possible measurement of the responses of a large number of people to a limited number of questions, which can facilitate data comparison and statistical aggregation (Patton, 2002).

To achieve the objectives of the study, the descriptive research design was employed as the researcher was interested in the gathering of facts on teachers' perception of male and female head teachers, especially in relation to leadership qualities of male and female head teachers, their leadership behaviours and factors that influence the perception of teachers. "Survey research (also called descriptive research) uses instruments such as questionnaires to gather information from groups of subjects" (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006, p. 31). In descriptive research design, investigators ask questions about peoples beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and behaviour (Creswell, 2003). Descriptive resaerch may also investigate associations between respondents" characteristics such as age, education, social class, race and their current attitudes or beliefs towards some issue. Importantly, descriptive

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research design does not make causal inferences, but rather describes the distributions of variables for large groups (Creswell, 2003).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) remind us that descriptive research involves collecting data to answer questions concerning the phenomenon under study, and is used to describe the nature of existing conditions, identify standards against which existing conditions can be compared, and/or investigate the relationships that may exist between events. Wiersma (1995) observes that descriptive research is conducted to determine the status quo and is concerned with gathering of facts rather than manipulation of variables.

### 3.3 Population of the Study

The population of the study was all teachers of the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi. The population consists of 575 teachers in both public Primary and Junior High schools. The Suame Metropolis has 24 public basic schools in all, with 10 male head teachers and 14 female head teachers. The list of schools is provided in appendix B. the target population was 575 with accessible population of 320.

### 3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) posit that a question that often plagues novice researchers is just how large their samples for the research should be. In their view, there is no clear-cut answer, for the correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny. For them, the larger the sample the better, as this not only gives greater reliability but also enables more sophisticated statistics to be used. In this context a sample size of 171 was selected for the study. This sample was chosen from a population of 320 teachers from the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi.

In this study, the researcher used Krejcie and Morgan's table for determining sample size to select a sample of 171 with a 95 percent level of confidence from an accessible population of

320. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the sample size for a population of 320 with 95% confidence level is 171. In all 171 questionnaire was distributed and 160 were retuned indicating a return rate of 93.6%.

**Table 3.1: List of Sampled Schools**

| No. | School | Number of teachers |
|-----|--------|--------------------|
| 1 | Holy Rosary Catholic School | 18 |
| 2 | Suame Primary 'A' & KG | 17 |
| 3 | Suame JHS 'B' | 27 |
| 4 | St. Josephs R/C JHS | 34 |
| 5 | Adadiem JHS | 35 |
| 6 | Salvation Army Basic School | 22 |
| 7 | Maakro Basic School | 24 |
| 8 | Bremang R/C, Primary & JHS | 26 |
| 9 | Alzarriya KG, Primary & JHS | 28 |
| 10 | Bremang M/A KG, Primary & JHS | 27 |
| 11 | Adventist, Primary & JHS | 38 |
| 12 | Kronum JHS | 24 |
| | **Total** | **320** |

Source: Suame Metropolis Education Office

The simple random sampling technique was used to select the sample size. In simple random sampling, each member of the population under study has an equal chance of being selected and the probability of a member of the population being selected is unaffected by the selection of other members of the population, i.e. each selection is entirely independent of the next. The method involves selecting at random from a list of the population (a sampling frame) the required number of subjects for the sample (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

This was to ensure that all the members of the population had an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample. Sindhu (2000) posits that the simple

random sampling technique remains the most trustworthy method of securing representativeness of the whole population.

## 3.5 Data Collection Instrument

The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyze (Wilson & McLean, 1994). Questionnaire was appropriate for this study since they collect information that is not directly observable as they inquire about feelings, motivations, attitudes and accomplishments, as well as the experiences of individuals.

Questionnaire has advantages of collecting information from many respondents within a limited time and the respondents are free to offer information because they are assured of their anonymity. This is supported by (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003) when they claimed that "Questionnaires have added advantage of being less costly and using less time as instruments of data collection. The close-ended type of questionnaire was used for the study. The reason was that it was easier for respondents to complete, and the answers are much easier to code and analyze (Sindhu, 2000). Sindhu, maintains that questionnaires are economical for both the sender and for respondents in time, effort and cost. Highly structured, closed questionnaires are useful in that they can generate frequencies of response responsive to statistical treatment and analysis. They also enable comparisons to be made across groups in the sample (Oppenheim, 1992). They are quicker to code up and analyzed than word-based data (Bailey 1994) and, often, they are directly to the point and deliberately more focused than open-ended questions.

Section A of the questionnaire asked questions on respondents' demographics (such as sex, age, etc.). Section B looked at leadership traits or qualities of male and female head teachers, while Section C asked questions on leadership behaviours of male and female head

teachers, and section D focused on factors that influence teachers' perception about male and female teachers.

### 2.5.1 Pilot Study

The pilot study essentially administers the questionnaire instrument to a limited number of subjects from the same population as that for which the eventual project is intended. In the view of Creswell (2003), pilot testing is important to establish the validity for an instrument and to improve questions, form and the scale. In the course of this study, a pilot study was conducted on 20 teachers from four schools, namely Adadiem JHS, Alzarriya KG, Primary & JHS, Adventist KG, Primary & JHS, and Suame Primary 'A' & KG. This helped to ensure that some of the items in the questionnaire were re-examined and corrected to help elicit the needed information for the study.

### 2.5.2 Validity

Validity refers to "the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the concept's meaning" (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 122). On the face of it, the questionnaire appears to measure construct of the perception of teachers of male and female head teachers. Since content validity is determined by experts, the questionnaire was submitted to my supervisor who took pain to offer suggestions on how to improve it. Some of the questions were re-worded so as to elicit the information it was intended to. On this basis, the researcher went ahead to administer the questionnaire.

### 2.5.1 Reliability

Reliability is seen as the ability to consistently yield the same results when repeated measurements are undertaken of the same individuals under the same conditions (Orodho, 2009). To determine the reliability of the research instruments, the researcher after a pilot

study conducted a test re-test of the questionnaire which yielded a Cronbach's 'alpha' of 0.75 indicating a high level of reliability.

## 3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher personally visited all the schools in Suame Metropolis. Data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire. Initially, permission was sought from school authorities to carry out this study. Thereafter contact was made with the respondents. During this time the purpose of the study was explained to the respondents. After the questionnaire were distributed to them, agreement was then reached with them on the date for the completion. Respondents agreed I should return after one week. which I gladly obliged. After the one week. I returned to the various schools to collect the completed questionnaire for analysis.

## 3.7 Data Analysis

At the end of data collection exercise, a total of 160 questionnaires were returned representing a return rate of 93.6%. Questionnaires were thoroughly inspected for completeness, organized and summarized by the researcher. The data was edited to ensure there are no errors. The researcher then proceeded to analyse the data using descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentage. The analysis was done in the following manner; Section A, Demographic data, Section B, leadership traits or qualities of male and female head teachers, Section C, leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers, and section D, factors that influence teachers perception about male and female head teachers. These were analyzed in a frequency distribution Table which listed the values for a variable and the number of times they appear in the data (Shavelson, 1996).

**3.8 Ethical Considerations**

According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) ethical considerations and ethical behaviour are as important in research as they are in any other field of human activity. In this study, every precaution was employed to ensure the confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy of the data and the participants involved as ethically as possible. For the purpose of this study, permission was first sought from the Circuit Supervisor which was granted to allow the researcher to carry out the research. Furthermore, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to the respondents and assured them of confidentiality of their responses and identities. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003), define research ethics as the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of the research project, or who are affected by it. The researcher adhered to appropriate behaviour in relation to the right of teachers who were the respondents.
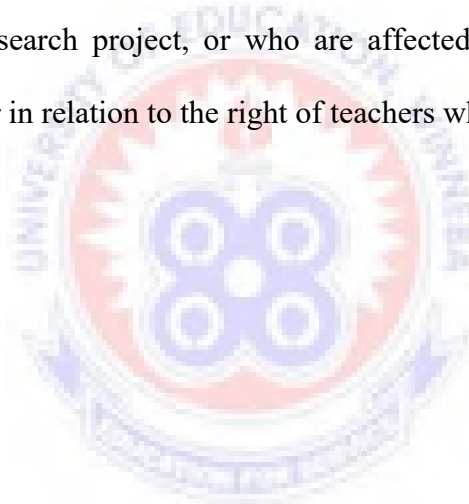
# CHAPTER FOUR

# PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter contains results of the study. It specifically presents information about the demographics of study participants, and results based on research questions. The results are presented first looking at leadership traits of male and female head teachers, leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers and finally, factors that influence the perception of teachers about male and female head teachers.

Table 4.1 presents information on the sex distribution of the respondents;

**Table 4.1: Sex Distribution of Respondents**

| Sex | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 82 | 51.2 |
| Female | 78 | 48.8 |
| Total | 160 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data, 2017

From Table 4.1, a little over half 82(51.2%) of the respondents were males while 78(48.8%) of them were females. this reflects the gender composition of the teachers in the Suame Metropolis and an indication of fair representation. Table 4.2 presents information on the age distribution of the respondents;

**Table 4.2: Age Distribution of Respondents**

| Age | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 21-30 | 29 | 18.1 |
| 31-40 | 63 | 39.4 |
| 41-50 | 51 | 31.9 |
| 51-60 | 17 | 10.6 |
| Total | 160 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data, 2017

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Results from Table 4.2 suggests that majority 63(39.4%) of the respondents were found within the age bracket of 31-40, followed by those between the ages of 41-50 who constituted 51(31.9%), only 17 (10.6%) were above 51 years. This implies that the respondents were mature enough to understand and respond to the information being elicited from them.

Table 4.3 presents information on the level of qualification of respondents

**Table 4.3: Qualification of Respondents**

| Highest Professional Qualification | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Master's Degree | 4 | 2.5 |
| Bachelor's Degree | 50 | 31.2 |
| Diploma | 81 | 50.6 |
| Teachers' Certificate 'A' | 25 | 15.6 |
| Total | 160 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data, 2017

Table 4.3 indicates that in terms of professional qualification, all the respondents had impressive level of education with more than half 81(50.6%) having Diploma in Basic Education, 50(31.2%) had Bachelor degree, and 4(2.5%) were Master's degree holders. The least qualification was Teachers' Certificate 'A' and this category of respondents was made up 25(15.6%).

Table 4.3 presents information on the years of experience of respondents

**Table 4.4: Years of Experience**

| Number of years in teaching | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 1-10 | 42 | 26.3 |
| 11-20 | 77 | 48.1 |
| 20 and above | 41 | 25.6 |
| Total | 160 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Data, 2017

From table 4.4, 118(73.7%) of the respondents had been teaching for more than 10 years. This was followed by those who have taught between 1-10 years. 42(26.3%). Those who have done 30 years and above were 41(25.6%). This indicates their level of experience of both male and female head teachers' leadership.

**Research Question 1: What is the perception of teachers of male and female head teachers' in leadership traits of Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?**

Table 4.5 presents information on the leadership traits of male and female head teachers.

**Table 4.5: Leadership Traits**

| Leadership Traits | True for Female head f (%) | True for Male Head f (%) | Equally true for both f (%) | Depends on the individual f (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Being assertive | 85(53.1%) | 40(25.0%) | 23(14.4%) | 12(7.5%) |
| Treating all individuals with respect | 30(18.8%) | 98(61.2%) | 18(11.2%) | 14(8.8%) |
| Being decisive and independent | 60(37.5%) | 83(51.9%) | 7(4.4%) | 10(6.2%) |
| Being emotional | 87(54.4%) | 36(22.5%) | 21(13.1%) | 16(10.0%) |
| Caring about people | 33(20.6) | 28(17.5%) | 21(13.1%) | 69(43.1%) |
| Creating and maintaining relationship | 41(25.6%) | 83(51.9%) | 23(14.4%) | 13(8.1%) |
| Empowering others | 43(26.9%) | 84(52.2%) | 16(10.0%) | 17(10.6%) |
| Supporting | 81(50.6%) | 25(15.6%) | 18(11.2%) | 36(22.5%) |
| Confident | 34(21.2%) | 38(23.8%) | 15(9.4%) | 73(45.6%) |

Source: Field Data, 2017

From Table 4.5, it can be deduced that female head teachers were considered assertive, emotional, and supportive. The results showed that more than half 85(53.1%) of the respondents perceived female head teachers to be assertive compared to their male counterparts. In addition, 87(54.4%) of the respondents viewed women to be emotional,

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while a little over half of 81(50.6%) of the respondents considered women to be supportive compared to their male counterparts.

Table 4.5 further demonstrated that male head teachers are decisive and independent, treat all individuals with respect, create and maintain relationship, and prepared to empower others. For example, from the table, while 98(61.2%) of the respondents considered male head teachers to be better at treating all individuals with respect, 30(18.8%) of them rather viewed female head teachers as those who treat all individuals with respect. On being decisive and independent, majority of the respondents 83(51.9%) thought that male headteachers were decisive and independent while 60(37.5%) opted for female head teachers. However, 7(4.4%) of the respondents said it was equally true and 10(6.2%) said it depended on the individual. Table 4.5 further showed that whereas male head teachers were viewed as possessing the trait of empowering others as indicated by majority 84(52.2%) of the respondents, 43(26.9%) of the respondents viewed female head teachers to be better at empowering others. However, 16(10.0%) viewed it to be true for both while 17(10.6%) said it depends on the individual. On the issue of confidence, again 73(45.6%) were of the opinion that that trait was true for male head teachers. Table 4.5, further showed that a substantial number 69(43.1%) of the respondents indicated that caring about people depended on the individual head teacher.

From Table 4.5, majority of the respondents rated female head teachers better in relation to being assertive, emotional, supportive and empowering others. On the other hand, male head teachers were also rated very high in terms of being decisive, ability to maintain relationships and treat everyone with respect. Table one however showed that confidence and caring for individuals depended very much on the individual and not necessarily the gender.

**Research Question 2: What are the leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?**

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Table 4.6 presents information on the leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers.

**Table 4.6: Leadership Behaviours**

| Leadership Behaviours | Female head teacher f (%) | Male Head teacher f (%) | Total f (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Who is more approachable? | 52(35.5%) | 108(67.5%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more firm in disciplining teachers? | 97(60.6%) | 63(39.4%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more concerned with discipline of students? | 77(48.1%) | 83(51.9%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more efficient in the supervision of academic work? | 82(51.2%) | 78(48.8%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more organized in school administration especially in keeping of school records? | 80(50.0%) | 80(50.0%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more democratic in decision-making? | 52(32.5%) | 108(67.5%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more autocratic in decision-making? | 101(63.1%) | 59(36.9%) | 160(100%) |
| Who demonstrates more carefree attitude to school administration? | 63(39.4%) | 97(60.6%) | 160(100%) |
| Who is more careful with school funds? | 79(49.4%) | 81(50.6%) | 160(100%) |
| Who takes co-curricular activities more seriously (e.g. school clubs; sports etc.) | 86(53.8%) | 74(46.2%) | 160(100%) |

Source: Field Data, 2017

From Table 4.6, majority, 108(67.5%) of the respondents were of the opinion that male head teachers were more approachable than female head teachers, while 52(35.5%) thought otherwise. On the issue of disciplining of teachers, most of the respondents 97(60.6%) however considered female head teachers more capable of disciplining the teachers than their male counterparts. In relation to as to who is more concerned with discipline of students, 83(51.9%) of the respondents compared to 77(48.1%) considered male head teachers to be more concerned.

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Table 4.6 further showed that 82(51.2%) of the respondents viewed female head teachers to be more efficient in the supervision of academic work than male head teachers. On who is more democratic in decision-making, 108(67.5%) of the respondents chose male head teachers while only 52(32.5%) picked female head teachers. Respondents were also overwhelmingly 101(63.1%) unanimous in their view that female head teachers were more autocratic than male head teachers.

Table 4.6 further showed that respondents were also unanimous in their opinion, as 97(60.6%) of the respondents have indicated. male head teachers demonstrates more laissez-faire attitude to school administration compared to female head teachers. Only a handful 63(39.4%) held a contrary opinion. On financial prudence, respondents were almost divided over opinion as only 81(50.6%) went in favour of female, as against 79(49.4%) for male head teachers. Male principals were also found to be favoured for attention to co-curricular activities like sports, clubs and societies etc., as 104(65%) of the sampled teachers picked them while only 56(35%) selected female principals.

From Table 4.6 majority of the respondents were of the opinion that male head teachers were more approachable, concerned with discipline of students, more democratic in decision-making, paid more attention to co-curricular activities, however, they approached school administration with a laissez-faire attitude compared to female head teachers. With respect to female head teachers, respondents viewed them to be more capable of disciplining teachers, more efficient in the supervision of academic work, financially prudent, however they were more autocratic than male head teachers.

**Research Question 3: What factors influence the perception of teachers of male and female headteachers of Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?**

Table 4.7 presents information on the factors that influence the perception of teachers about male and female head teachers' leadership.

**Table 4.7 Factors that Influence Perception about Male and Female Head Teachers**

| Factors | Strongly agree f (%) | Agree f (%) | Neutral f (%) | Disagree f (%) | Strongly disagree f (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Values and beliefs | 14(8.8%) | 67(41.9%) | 28(17.5%) | 36(22.5%) | 15(9.4%) |
| Leadership styles employed by head teacher | 20(12.5%) | 65(40.6%) | 33(20.6%) | 26(16.2%) | 16(10.0%) |
| Gender Stereotyping | 28(17.5%) | 55(34.4%) | 22(13.8%) | 33(20.6%) | 22(13.8%) |
| Personal experiences | 44(27.5%) | 36(22.5%) | 33(20.6%) | 21(13.1%) | 26(16.2%) |
| Personality of the head teacher | 11(6.9%) | 23(14.4%) | 34(21.2%) | 59(36.9%) | 33(20.6%) |
| Social role expectation of how male and female should behave | 5(3.1%) | 23(14.4%) | 91(56.9%) | 24(15.0%) | 17(10.6%) |
| Physical appearance | 21(13.1%) | 26(16.2%) | 58(36.3%) | 31(19.4%) | 24(15.0%) |
| Emotional state | 22(13.8%) | 19(11.9%) | 77(48.1%) | 26(16.2%) | 16(10.0%) |

Source: Field Data, 2017

It is evident from Table 4.7 that a little over half 81(50.7%) agreed to the claim that values and beliefs influence their perception of teachers about male and female head teachers. However, while 51(31.9%) of the respondents disagreed and 28(17.5%) took a neutral position. The results further suggested that more than half 87(53.1%) of the respondents agreed that Leadership styles employed by head teachers influence their perception of male and female head teachers with 42(26.2%) showing disagreement to the statement. However, 33(20.6%) were neutral. It is revealing from Table 4.4 that 83(51.9%) of the respondents agreed that gender stereotyping influenced their perception about male and female head

teachers. However, 55(34.4%) disagreed and 22(13.8%) remained neutral. In addition, Table 5.4 overwhelmingly 101(63.1%) unanimous in their view that female head teachers were more autocratic than male head teachers.

Table 4.7 further showed that respondents were also unanimous in their opinion, as 97(60.6%) of the respondents have indicated. male head teachers demonstrates more laissez-faire attitude to school administration compared to female head teachers. Only a handful 63(39.4%) held a contrary opinion. On financial prudence, respondents were almost divided over opinion as only 81(50.6%) went in favour of female, as against 79(49.4%) for male head teachers. Male principals were also found to be favoured for attention to co-curricular activities like sports, clubs and societies etc., as 104(65%) of the sampled teachers picked them while only 56(35%) selected female principals.

From Table 4.7, majority of the respondents were of the opinion that male head teachers were more approachable, concerned with discipline of students, more democratic in decision-making, paid more attention to co-curricular activities, however, they approached school administration with a laissez-faire attitude compared to female head teachers. With respect to female head teachers, respondents viewed them to be more capable of disciplining teachers, more efficient in the supervision of academic work, financially prudent, however they were more autocratic than male head teachers.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# DISCUSSION OF REULTS

## 5.1 Introduction

This Chapter discusses the findings of the study. The discussion were based on the sequence of how the results of the study were presented.

## 5.2 Discussion of Results in Relation to Research Question One

From the presentation of the results in Chapter four, majority of the respondents indicated that female head teachers were considered assertive, emotional, and supportive. This finding is consistent with that from Harshman and Paivio (1987) who claimed that in general, women react to situations with greater emotional intensities than men do, especially, when the situation is negative (Stevens & Hamann, 2012). Cunningham and Roberts (2012), offer detail explanation why this is so by arguing that men and women differ in their impulsive base-reaction, where men are most likely to respond through action, women are most likely to respond through feeling. It can also be inferred from this finding that women are sensitive to emotional situations and may not be capable of handling difficulties situations devoid of their emotions.

The results also demonstrated that male head teachers were better at treating all individuals with respect, are decisive and independent, confident, creates and maintains relationship, and are prepared to empower others. The implication is that men tend to be relationship oriented in their leadership. The Pew Research Centre (2008) in a study of leadership traits of male and female leaders in United States of America found that men are more decisive compared to their female counterparts. In relation to creating and maintaining relationship the respondents thought male head teachers were better. This is in contrast to the position of Gips (as cited in Shantz, 1993) who found in a study that women emphasize

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human relationships, care for individuals, are concerned with responsibility, equity, fairness, inclusion, interdependence, and cooperation.

The results from Table 4.2 further showed that majority of the respondents were of the opinion that male head teachers have confidence. This supports the assertion that in general, men can be characterized as more confident than women (Bengtsson, Persson, & Willenhag, 2005), especially regarding financial decisions (Barber & Odean, 2001; Correll, 2001). Female head teachers were viewed to be better at empowering others. This finding contradicts the position of Shakeshaft, Nowell and Perry (as cited in Shantz, 1993). They argue that it is rather females who in school administration tend to empower teachers, consider teachers' feelings, and involve teachers in making decisions.

Respondents were also asked on whether female head teachers lead differently. It emerged that female head teachers lead differently. The results clearly resonate with many teachers who have experienced both men and women leadership. The consensus is that women are autocratic in their approach to leadership. For men they appear to be easy going and also democratic in their approach. In a study by Van Engen, Vander Leeden, & Willemsen, (2001) it was found that there was no differences between the leadership styles of men and women. Eagly and Johnson (1990) also claimed that as leadership styles are moving away from authoritarian styles and toward more inclusive styles, the differences in styles adopted by men and women are shrinking.

The results showed further demonstrated that majority of the respondents preferred to work with a male head teacher. In a Gallup poll published by the 2013, it was found that Americans, if forced to choose will prefer a male boss to a female boss. The report further indicated that while four in ten workers report no preference, (35%) are happier with a man at the helm; (23%) would rather take orders from a woman.

**5.3 Discussion of Results in Relation to Research Question Two**

Results obtained from respondents on research question 2 suggested that male head teachers were more approachable, more concerned with discipline of students, more democratic in decision-making, demonstrate more laissez-faire attitude to school administration, and paid attention to co-curricular activities like sports, clubs and societies etc., than female head teachers. This finding suggested similarities to some studies by Yetunde (1998) who found that male principals were more approachable than female principals. On male head teachers being more democratic than their female counterparts, this finding contradicts Eagly and Johnson (1990) position who after a review of 162 studies concluded that women showed a bit more democratic/participative leadership styles and a bit less directive/autocratic styles than did their male counterparts. Odejide (2003) reported how, in Nigeria, male head teachers were preferred as they were thought to be more suited to dealing with student unrest. Yetunde (1998) observes that male principals do not need to prove anything since tradition and society already accord them the authority hence their care-free attitude to school administration.

On the other hand, female head teachers were found by respondents to be more capable of disciplining of teachers, more efficient in the supervision of academic work and more autocratic than male head teachers. Yetunde (1998) confirms this finding when he indicated that female principals were good at disciplining of teachers compared to male principals. However, this findings of this study appear to contradict earlier findings as reviewed by Eagly and Johnson (cited by Cole, 1996) that female managers are generally more democratic, participative and relationship-oriented than male managers who are considered more autocratic and directive in style as well as more task-oriented. It is however not clear whether the teachers are confusing firmness with high handedness. It could be that female principals are being influenced by sociocultural factors which consider women

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generally as the weaker sex. In that case, their firmness may be their own way of asserting their authority. The possibility of overdoing it though cannot be ruled out.

On financial prudence, respondents claimed 81(50.6%) female head teachers were better. Yetunde (1998) argue that male principals are reckless in their management of school finances.

## 5.4 Discussion Results in Relation to Research Question Three

Respondents indicated that values and beliefs influence their perception of both male and female head teachers. When one comes from a culture that does not regard women as capable of leading. It could significantly influence how that individual perceives a female head teacher.  In addition, Social researchers have revealed that it is relatively easy for values to be activated across a wide range of contexts and situations, based on many factors including gender (Bargh, Chen & Burrows, 1996). Furthermore, gender stereotyping influenced the perception of majority of teachers about male and female head teachers. This finding suggests similarities with other findings. Foschi (1996) claims that stereotyping often leads to the belief that women generally have lower level of competence and expertise than men do. Thus, they are perceived to be less influential than men. Eagly and Karau (2002) on their part suggested that stereotypes paint men as a much more natural fit for top leadership positions than women.

It is again evident from the results that a sizeable number of the respondents, 69(43.1%), indicated that their perception about male and female head teachers was influenced by personal experiences with both male and female head teachers. This is corroborated by Wright and Taylor (1994) who observe that one's previous experience with other people in social interactions is a major influence on one's perceptions of such people. Expectations are developed which affect an individual's current perception because of his or her experience.

Majority of the respondents rejected the argument that social role expectation of how male and female should behave has influence on their perception. Society holds certain expectations of men and women. Women are expected to be attractive, passive, pleasant, modest (Marshall, 1985), co-operative, nurturing, and dependent (Slauenwhite & Skok, 1991). These societal expectations could contribute to the belief that men manage the schools while the women nurture the learners – as in the traditional home (Storey & Zellinsky, 1993). Physical appearance of the head teacher, respondents refuted the claim that it has influence on their perception about male and female head teachers. Wright and Taylor (1994) argue that Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in groups than ordinary looking individuals.

A sizeable number of the respondents expressed neutrality to the issue emotional state having influence the perception of teachers about male and female head teachers. Bennis (1998) however asserts that the emotions of an individual at a particular time can influence his or her perception and judgment. For instance, the way a person who is full of joy will perceive an issue will differ from one who is angry or depressed.

# CHAPTER SIX

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the summary of the study. It also addresses the conclusion and make finally makes recommendations for the major findings of the study and for further studies.

## 6.2 Summary of the Study

This chapter presents the general over view of the study, focusing on the major highlights of the study, conclusions, and recommendations. This section is therefore divided into three sections. The first section presents the summary of the study, the second section discusses the conclusion, and the third dealt with recommendations. The main findings were summarized under the objectives and research questions of the study.

The main objectives of the study were to;

1. Investigate the perception of teachers of leadership traits of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi

2. Identify the leadership behaviour of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi

3. Identify the underlining factors that influence teachers' perception of male and female headteachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi.

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the following research questions were formulated to guide the study.

1. What is the perception of teachers of male and female head teachers' leadership traits in Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

2. What are the leadership behaviours of male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

3. What factors influence the perception of teachers of male and female headteachers of Suame Metropolis of Kumasi?

The study employed a descriptive research design with a 29-items questionnaire as the main instrument for data collection. One hundred and sixty respondents were randomly selected from basic schools in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi, and data was analyzed by the use of descriptive statistics using SPSS.

Results from research question one revealed that majority of the respondents indicated that female head teachers were considered assertive, emotional, as well as supportive while male head teachers were seen to be better at treating all individuals with respect, are decisive and independent, confident, creates and maintains relationship, and are prepared to empower others.

Results obtained for research question two suggested that male head teachers were more approachable, more concerned with discipline of students, more democratic in decision-making, demonstrate more laissez-faire attitude to school administration, and paid attention to co-curricular activities like sports, clubs and societies etc., than female head teachers. On the other hand, female headteachers were found to be more capable of disciplining of teachers, more efficient in the supervision of academic and more autocratic than male head teachers.

From research question three, the results showed that values and beliefs, gender stereotyping, personal experiences with both male and female head teachers, influenced their perception. However, social role expectation of how male and female should behave, emotional state of the teacher nor Physical appearance of head teacher did not have any influence on their perception.

**6.3 Conclusions**

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions can be inferred;

Female head teachers were seen to be both assertive and emotional in the exercise of their leadership. In addition, though male head teachers were more approachable and democratic at the same time demonstrate more laissez-faire attitude to school administration than their female counterparts. Female head teachers are also autocratic, more capable of disciplining of teachers and more efficient in the supervision of academic work than male head teachers. Furthermore, values and beliefs, gender stereotyping, and personal experiences with both male and female head teachers, had great influence on teachers' perception of male and female head teachers. Finally, The physical appearance of head teacher did not have any influence on the perception of teachers of the male or female head teacher.

**6.4 Recommendations**

Based on the conclusion of the study, the following recommendations are worth considering;

1. The Ghana Education Service should organize leadership training workshops for head teachers, especially female one on emotional intelligence so to help them identify how to deal with their emotions as well as that of their teachers.

2. The Metro Education Office should intensify their monitoring and inspection of schools to assess head teachers. This would make head teachers particularly the male ones who adopt laissez approach to school administration to be sit up.

3. The Ghana Education service should sensitize teachers through workshops and seminars to understand that leadership is based on the individual and not on the gender of the person.

4. The Ghana Education Service should continue to promote gender equity using the school curricula so as to discourage gender stereotypes in schools. The curricula

should emphasis on the qualities of an individual rather than on his sex, gender or physical appearance.

**6.5 Suggestion for Further Studies**

It is also recommended that a similar study be carried out in the Kumasi Metropolis. Such a study may also investigate the patterns of behaviour of male and female head-teachers.

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# APPENDIX A

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI**

**QUESTIONNAIRES FOR TEACHERS**

**Dear Respondent,**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information on the study of the perception of teachers about male and female head teachers in the Suame Metropolis of Kumasi. The information being sought is meant to be used for only academic purposes. Please you are kindly requested to respond to the questions as frankly as possible. All your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you for participating.

Alexander Ebo Ackah Quansah

(M.A. Educational Leadership Student)

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR F. K. SARFO
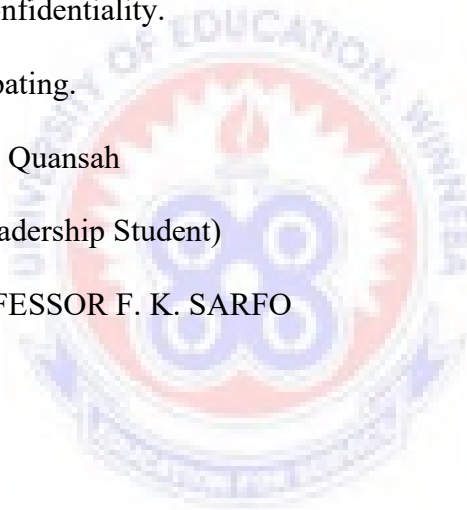
**BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

Please answer the questions as sincerely as possible by ticking in the box where possible.

1.      Gender:

Male                                              (  )

Female                                            (  )

2.      Age

below 30                                          (  )

31-40                                             (  )

41-50                                             (  )

51-60                                             (  )

3. Your highest professional qualification.

Teachers' Certificate 'A'                         (  )

Diploma in Basic Education                         (  )

Bachelor degree                                   (  )

Master's Degree                                   (  )

4. Your present rank in the Ghana Education Service (GES)

Assistant Director I                              (  )

Assistant Director II                             (  )

Principal Superintendent                          (  )

Senior Superintendent I                           (  )

Senior Superintendent II                          (  )

Superintendent I                                  (  )

Superintendent II                                 (  )

5.      How long have you been leaching in your present institution?

1 - 5 years                    (  )

6-10 years                     (  )

11 - 15 years                    (  )

16 - 20 years                    (  )

21-25 years                    (  )

26 years and above              (  )

## SECTION A: LEADERSHIP TRAITS

The following could be considered as some of the qualities associated with leadership. In your opinion, which of the qualities do female or male heads demonstrate better? Please indicate with a tick ($\sqrt{}$).

| Leadership Traits | True for female head teachers | True for male head teachers | Equally true for both | Depends on the individual |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Being assertive | | | | |
| 2. Treating all individuals with respect | | | | |
| 3. Being decisive and independent | | | | |
| 4. Being emotional | | | | |
| 5. Caring about people | | | | |
| 6. Creating and maintaining relationship | | | | |
| 7. Empowering others | | | | |
| 8. Supporting | | | | |
| 9. Confident | | | | |

## SECTION B: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

The following could be considered as some of the male and female head teachers' leadership behaviours. In your view, which of these behaviours are mostly demonstrated by female or male head teachers?  Please indicate with a tick ($\sqrt{}$).

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| Leadership Behaviours | Male Head | Female Head |
|---|---|---|
| 10. Who is more approachable? | | |
| 11. Who is more firm in disciplining teachers? | | |
| 12. Who is more concerned with discipline of students? | | |
| 13. Who is more efficient in the supervision of academic work? | | |
| 14. Who is more organized in school administration especially in keeping of school records? | | |
| 15. Who is more democratic in decision-making? | | |
| 16. Who is more autocratic in decision-making? | | |
| 17. Who demonstrates more carefree attitude to school administration? | | |
| 18. Who is more careful with school funds? | | |
| 19. Who takes co-curricular activities more seriously (e.g. school clubs; sports etc.)? | | |

## SECTION C: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE PERCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

The following factors influence the perception of teachers about male and female head teachers' leadership. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with this statement.

| Factors that influence perception about male and female headteachers | Strongly agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. Gender Stereotyping | | | | | |
| 21. Social role expectation of how male and female should behave | | | | | |
| 22. Leadership styles employed by head teacher | | | | | |
| 23. Personal experiences with Both male and female head teachers | | | | | |
| 24. Personality of the head teacher | | | | | |
| 25. Physical appearance | | | | | |
| 26. Emotional statement | | | | | |
| 27. Values and beliefs | | | | | |