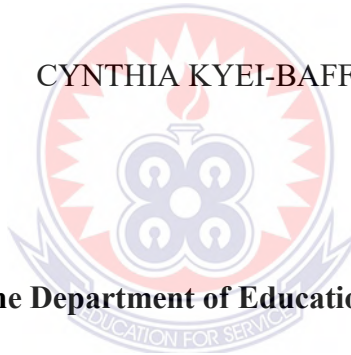


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HEADS OF SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS ON TEACHER JOB PERFORMANCE IN THE KUMASI
METROPOLIS

CYNTHIA KYEI-BAFFOUR



**A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of
Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate
Studies, University of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for award of the Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership)
degree**

AUGUST, 2017

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, CYNTHIA KYEI-BAFFOUR, declare that this dissertation, with exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

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

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. STEPHEN BAAFI FRIMPONG

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Stephen Owusu Gyamfi and children Vanessa, Brenda, Steve and Priscilla for their support and prayers.



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ABSTRACT

This study sought to assess how leadership styles of the headmasters and headmistresses in five selected schools affect the performance of teaching staff in those schools. The study was to find why certain leadership styles of the heads result in certain job performances on the part of the teachers. Both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were adopted for this study. The type of question used for the interview was exploratory in nature. In terms of the quantitative aspect however, a survey approach that relied on the use of questionnaires was adopted. Two sets of instruments (Semi-structured Interview guide and questionnaire) were used in gathering data for the study. The questionnaires were distributed among the teachers of the selected schools for the needed information. The population of this study was all headmasters and headmistresses as well as teachers who teach in Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Five headmasters/headmistresses from the five selected study schools in the Kumasi Metropolis were chosen using the non-probability technique of purposive sampling. Also, in selecting 230 teachers for the survey questions, the study adopted the probability sampling method of simple random sampling. The results gathered were then subjected to statistical computations using frequencies, percentages and graphs. The study concluded that if the appropriate leadership styles and positive relationships are adopted by school heads, teachers are likely to cooperate and work hard to give optimum performance that will help achieve the goals of their schools. It is therefore recommended that performance appraisal should be conducted for Senior High School heads and their teachers in a regular fashion to provide a ready reference on the performance of each school.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This study is focused on how the leadership styles adopted by heads of Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis affect the performance of teachers in such schools. This chapter therefore explores the background of the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, as well as the research questions posed. The significance, limitations, and organization of the study are also captured in this chapter.

1.1 Background to the Study

Studies on job related features such as job performance, job satisfaction, employees' loyalty and workers' commitment have uniformly reported that leaders in organizations can make a difference in how their subordinates perform at work (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Chan, 2005; Daresh, 2002; Engen, 2009; Nathan, 1996; Parks, 2008). These earlier studies established that employees' favourable attitude towards their leaders contributed to their positive attitude at work, which was also linked directly to their job performance and job satisfaction (Bass as cited in Chan, 2005). Therefore, the leadership style adopted by a leader in an organization (which is simply defined as the ways by which a leader performs his role in an organisation) becomes an important and indispensable tool in maximizing the performance of his subordinates. The quality of leadership available to firms, institutions and organizations has thus become a critical determinant of success in most organizations.

The need to develop and exhibit better leadership skills have become increasingly important (Parks, 2008) making the need for leaders to identify and

implement the appropriate leadership style even more critical (Engel, 2009). Owing to this need, various leadership behaviours that lead to the achievement of desirable workers' productivity in various sectors have been the focus of discussion and debates by both scholars and practitioners in recent times (Chan, 2005; Engel, 2009; Parks, 2008). According to Chan (2005), the desire to develop better and appropriate leadership style has become a matter of increasing importance, particularly in public institutions. As a result, a variety of theories on different leadership styles have evolved, though many of them have also been identified to possess striking similarities (Engel, 2009).

Some of the leadership theories developed over the years include Great Man and Trait theories, as well as the Behavioural Theories which include McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Managers (developed by Douglas McGregor in 1960) as well as the Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964). There is also the Contingency or Situational School Theories which include Fiedler's Contingency Theory (developed in 1967), The Hersey-Blanchard Model of Leadership (developed in 1977), Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Continuum (developed in 1973), Adair's Action-Centered Leadership Model, The Path-Goal Leadership Model (developed by House in 2007) and the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Contingency Model (developed initially by Victor Groom and Philip Yetton) and later modified by Vroom and Arthur Jago in 1988. Finally, there are, also a number of leadership styles that have developed independently from the schools of theories mentioned earlier. These groups of leadership styles include Transformational leadership, Transactional leadership, Democratic leadership, Autocratic leadership and Paternalistic leadership.

On the other hand, job performance, defined as the ability of employees to meet organizational goals and objectives in an effective and efficient manner (Adair, 2005) have been identified as the essential catalyst for organizational success. Positive job performance, explained by Armstrong (2005) to encompass executing defined duties, meeting deadlines, team input, and achieving departmental goals also lead to efficiency, specialization, effective feed-back and harmonious relations within organizations. The important role of leadership in bringing about the desired job performance of employees in organizations is therefore well espoused.

Led by Rensis Likert, a team of researchers at the University of Michigan conducted extensive interviews with both leaders (managers) and followers (subordinates) and identified two basic forms of leader behaviours: Job centered and employee-centered behaviours. They realized that managers who were job-centered leaders explain work procedures, pay close attention to subordinates work, and are keenly interested in subordinates' performance. However, managers who were employee-centered were found to be primarily concerned with the welfare of the employees, and rather interested in building a cohesive team and ensuring that employees are satisfied with their jobs. The study thus concluded that the two styles of leadership were at the extreme ends of a continuum and each leader may be found either at an extreme end or somewhere in between. Likert, however, preferred the employee-centered leadership, arguing that such leadership style tended to be relatively effective than the other styles along the continuum.

On the African scene however, there is a variety of hybrid management systems being operated in a number of countries. According to Mazrui (2007), there are three types of management systems on the African continent: Post colonial (based on coercive leadership similar to the one handed over by the colonial masters); post

instrumental (based on remunerative reward and contractual involvement); and renaissance (based on normative leadership and moral involvement. Mazrui concludes that the various countries are at various stages in the type of leadership styles that are adopted to run affairs within the country. For instance, Democratic Republic of Congo is more control oriented in managing her systems while Mozambique, Rwanda, Burkina Faso and Botswana are more people oriented (Mazrui, 2007).

To address the myriad of problems confronting Africa, it has been uniformly suggested that Africa, in the new millennium, requires exceptional leadership to confront her political, cultural, poverty, illiteracy and developmental problems (Rotberg, 2004). Thus in Mombasa (and earlier in Gaborone), it was agreed that what Africa needs to face its challenges head on is positive leadership.

In Ghana, it appears no empirical research has been carried out regarding the leadership style that is dominant and also appropriate, particularly in public institutions. However, studies carried out in other Africa countries have some relevance to the Ghanaian situation because of the common environment. Some authors, notably Chondry (1986) and Kiggundu (1988) who have conducted some studies into the leadership styles in the Southern African Region, concluded that the dominant styles of leadership observed is authoritarian, personalized, inflexible and conservative.

There is however, some evidence in Ghana to the effect that Ghanaian managers and leaders also tend to exhibit similar traits of authoritarianism, inflexibility and conservatism. Some explanation offered on these observations attribute the trend to colonial experience and the traditional Ghanaian socio-cultural structure (Adei, 2003). It is believed that a paradigm shift from this style of leadership to a more open, consultative type, and yet decisive leadership would bring Ghanaian

institutions more productivity (Adei, 2003). Thus, public institutions, including academic institutions have been urged to adopt effective leadership as essential requirement for improving performance and productivity in their organizations.

In the organizational set up of the Ghana Education Service (GES), teachers' performance has been identified as bedrock of success for education in the country. The burden of achieving optimum performance of teachers in schools has also been laid on the shoulders of heads of such schools (Aghenta, 2000; Ige, 2001). The leadership styles adopted by heads of school, including Senior High Schools therefore become the fundamental determinant of teachers' performance in their schools.

On the part of assessing performance of teachers, research conducted over the years has shown that traditional performance ratings, using superiors or external evaluators may not be the best method for assessing teachers' performance (Nhundu, 2009). Rather, on the contrary, most teachers view self-appraisal as the most appropriate evaluation method compared with supervisor/administrator and peer evaluation which they ranked second and third, respectively (Stark and Lowther, 2004). Research findings also show that teachers are not enthused with traditional assessment practices that dwell on the opinions of external evaluators (McLaughlin, 2004; Reavis, 2008; Wolf, 2003). Hence, Levin (2009) and Paulin (2010) have found that teachers, individually or through their professional organizations, have expressed misgivings about being evaluated by external evaluators, especially when they do not trust the evaluator's expertise and also when they are not represented in both the design and implementation processes of the evaluation.

Self-evaluations, on the other hand, have been shown to have the greatest potential of producing changes in teaching practices because they provide teachers with the rare opportunity to reflect on their teaching and modify accordingly (Balsler,

2003). It thus appears that there is affinity for self-evaluation on the part of teachers than for other forms or methods of evaluation. Johnston (as cited in Balzer, 2003) compared the effects of traditional and self-evaluation practices on behaviour modification and found that self-ratings showed greater potential in changing teaching behaviour than traditional approaches. This finding is also supported by Natriello (2007) who cites similar evidence from his studies with some US community schools.

In Ghanaian Senior High Schools however, evaluation of teachers' performance is mostly done by the headmasters with occasional assistance from the respective heads of departments. The Regional Education Office may also, based on the external exams' results, assist in the evaluation of teachers' performance. However, in tandem with research findings, this study relied on the self-evaluation method by the teachers themselves in terms of assessing how the leadership styles of their heads influenced their job performance in school.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Even though issues of leadership and how they affect performance of workers within organizations have been reported in a number of literature (Chan, 2005; Parks, 2008; Engel, 2009), same cannot be said of the Ghanaian situation. Indeed, in other jurisdictions, studies have been wide and elaborate in this respect. For instance, there had been studies in the USA regarding how the type of leadership within the police force impact on the performance of police officers in Texas (Parks, 2008), in Malaysia, there had been revelations on the importance of how transformational leadership at an Islamic University led to improvement in staff performance (Nor, 2011). The relevance of the various types of leadership styles in influencing job performance of workers in various units and sectors within economies of other

countries have therefore been widely researched into, with the results usually informing future decisions in such sectors.

In Ghana, it appears various sectors, including the public education sector, have however, not experienced enough scientific scrutiny of the type of leadership behaviour exhibited by these heads of institutions and how such behaviours affect the job performance of its workers. Even, in spite of the much trumpeted significance and expected contribution of education to the overall economic development of the country, it cannot be declared that a specific type of leadership is more appropriate in achieving the desired goals in Ghanaian institutions than another. Furthermore, it cannot be empirically declared that certain type(s) of leadership have chalked a certain measure of success and therefore ought to be more desirable than other form(s) of leadership styles in our schools.

Headmasters are left to decide which type of leadership qualities they need to employ within their working environment. They are also not provided with examples of proven successes or failures in job performance of teachers that can be empirically attributed to the leadership styles of headmasters. The absent of evaluation of leadership styles of headmasters within the context of how leadership influences job performance of teachers therefore leaves a vacuum in knowledge that needs to be filled.

There are in fact certain fundamental questions that need to be answered. These include the following: Could the adoption and operation of certain types of leadership skills positively influence job performance of teachers working in such schools? Do poor leadership styles by some headmasters in Senior High Schools lead to poor job performance on the part of teachers? Are there different and more appropriate leadership styles that, when employed, can lead to optimum performance

of Senior High School teachers within the Kumasi Metropolis? All these issues point to gaps in knowledge regarding how leadership styles in high schools affect job performance of teachers in the Kumasi schools. It is this gap in knowledge that this study sought to fill. Thus, precisely, the study sought to find out how the leadership styles adopted by heads of Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis affected the performance of teachers.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to find out the impact of leadership style of heads of Senior High Schools on teacher job performance in Kumasi Metropolis.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to assess the effects of leadership styles of heads of Senior High Schools on the job performance of teachers within the Kumasi Metropolis. The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. Identify the specific leadership styles adopted by the heads of schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.
2. Investigate the leadership roles played by heads in the schools,
3. Evaluate the job performance of teachers in the Kumasi senior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis, and
4. Determine the relationship between the leadership style of heads and the job performance of teachers in the senior high schools in the Kumasi Meproplis.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to attain the stated objectives, the following relevant questions needed to be asked:

1. What type of leadership styles have the various heads of senior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis adopted?
2. What leadership roles do the heads of senior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis play?
3. How have the teachers in senior high schools in the Metropolis been performing their assigned duties?
4. What is the relationship between the leadership styles of heads and the job performance of teachers in senior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Despite the expanse of literature on the significance of leadership in organisations and the growing awareness of the importance of leadership styles in organizational success (Chan, 2005; Parks, 2008; Engel, 2009). First of all, on a policy level, the investigation of how leadership styles affect job performance of teachers in high schools would lead to the gathering of adequate and essential information on how Kumasi senior high schools are being handled by heads (leaders) of the schools. Premised on the information gathered, policy makers would be adequately informed on the leadership situation in high schools, and thus be in a position to formulate policies that will improve leadership roles for enhanced teacher performance. This brings out the significance of the study, since policy decisions regarding leadership roles and how it should be executed would be based on findings

from a scientific study rather than from other considerations such as political expediencies.

Furthermore, it is believed that results from the study can also aid school management in deciding and adopting leadership styles that will lead to prudent and effective management of teachers for enhanced performance of the teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis . This is because, from the study, managers of high schools would be in a position to ascertain the impact of leadership on the performance of teachers in the schools. Management would then be informed on the types of leadership styles that are oriented towards success in the Ghanaian school environment and the types that do not bring about improved performance of staff.

Also, management, from the findings, would be able to design valid and reliable guide that will aid headmasters/headmistresses in adopting workable leadership strategies. These strategies can then guide the heads in creating and delivering value, achieving teachers' job satisfaction that can lead to enhanced job performance, building a relationship of trust between heads and their teachers, and ultimately achieving the desired growth and development of education in Ghana.

Furthermore, it is believed that from the results of the study, headmasters would identify both strong and weak points associated with leading a group of teachers in achieving optimum performance. This will enable the headmasters/headmistresses and other officials reinforce the strong points as well as correct the weak points for future applications. Through this, the headmasters would be informed regarding how to appraise their current leadership styles, and thus determine whether some changes ought to be made to their current leadership behaviour, or improve certain aspects of their leadership styles.

Finally, the finished work may be used as a valuable secondary source of information to augment the existing store of knowledge on the subject, and also serve as a catalyst for future research.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study focused on the relationship between leadership and workers' performance at Senior High Schools within the Kumasi Metropolis. This decision was based on the proximity of the researcher to the selected institutions, which will make it easier and convenient to gather data from these schools for the study.

Contextually, the study was conducted within the framework of evaluating the leadership behaviours exhibited by headmasters/headmistresses in the selected senior high schools within the Kumasi Metropolis, and how such leadership styles were impacting on the job performance of the teachers found in these schools.

In terms of time, the study focused on data spanning a period of five (5) years, that is, from 2008/2009 academic year to 2012/ 2013 academic year. This decision was based on the fact that five years was not too much in the distant for teachers (respondents) to recall happenings in their schools regarding the leadership styles of their headmasters, and yet wide enough for the respondents to provide detailed and adequate data for the study.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The first challenge was the unwillingness of persons, both headmasters and teachers to participate in the study. This was understandable as the headmasters, for instance, were found to be very busy most of the times. Therefore, spending time on interviews came across as a departure from their tight daily schedules: prompting an

initial reluctance to participate in the study. Most of the teachers, on the other hand, were also not enthused about participating in the study as they claimed findings for such studies have never been implemented to improve relationships in the school environment. Others were also skeptical about participating because of fear of being victimized for expressing opinions about their heads.

To address this challenge, the purely academic nature of the exercise was explained to participants, who were also assured of the confidentiality of the results of the exercise. Also, a number of visits were arranged to enable the study capture the viewpoints of headmasters who appeared busy and pressed for time.

Secondly, the research was limited to data gathered from headmasters and teachers working in selected Senior High Schools within the Kumasi Metropolis. It is argued that if the study had covered headmasters and teachers of all Senior High Schools in the country, it would have given conclusions from the research exercise a more definite conclusion, reliability and generalizability. This notwithstanding, it is hoped that since the senior high schools, teachers, headmasters and headmistresses in Ghana have similar characteristics, a lot can be learnt from the findings of this study nationwide.

1.9 Organisation of the Study

The research work is divided into five chapters with chapter one being the introduction of the study, and includes, the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the objectives of study, the research questions, significance of the study, the delimitation of study, limitations of the study, and the organisation of the study. Chapter two presents review of the relevant literature on leadership. The chapter thus identifies various theories of leadership, explaining the various concepts underpinning

them, as well as the relationship between leadership and workers' performance. This will provide a conceptual framework for the study. Chapter three explains the methodology used in the study. Thus, the chapter concerns itself with research design, data sources, interview and questionnaire instrument development, sampling techniques and the data analysis methods. Chapter four presents an analysis of the results obtained from the survey and interviews conducted. Finally, chapter five presents a summary of the key findings, as well as conclusions and recommendations of the study.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the review of studies and literature of various researches pertaining to the topic. A review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of 'schools of thought' from the "great man" notion of heroic leaders, through trait theories, behaviourist theories, situational leadership, and contingency theory and on to transactional and transformational leadership. Each of these offers some insights into the qualities of successful leaders, but there has been a shift in focus from the characteristics and behaviours of the individual to recognition of the importance of responding to different situations and contexts and the leaders' role in relation to the followers. The review continues with leadership models and competency frameworks. These present a range of leadership and management frameworks currently being used in organizations. They define the qualities required of people in leadership positions and help to inform the leadership development process.

2.1 What Is Leadership?

Leadership remains one of the most relevant aspects of organizational context. For more than five decades, the term leadership has been a researchable topic. Mostly, the research work focuses on issues of quality of leadership, ability of a leader, or leadership effectiveness, or leadership styles. According to Adlam (2003), leadership is a complex concept. This has been proved true since several approaches have been employed to provide meaning to the term leadership and effectiveness. Therefore,

leadership has been defined from different sources and some of the definitions are discussed here.

Leadership is defined simply as getting things done through people. This happens when there is an objective to be achieved, or a task to be carried out, and when more than one person is needed to do it. All managers are by definition leaders in that they can only do what they have to do with the support of their team, who must be inspired or persuaded to follow them. Leadership is therefore about encouraging and inspiring individuals and teams to give their best to achieve a desired result. Leadership is required because someone has to point the way and that same person has to ensure that everyone concerned gets there (Armstrong, 1994). According to Steven and Glinow (2000), "Leadership is a process of influencing people and providing an environment for them to achieve team or organizational objectives".

Again, leadership can be defined as the process of inspiring and empowering others voluntarily to be committed to achieving the leader's vision. When leadership vision is consistent with the organization's mission, the leader becomes a constructive and powerful force for change, commitment and motivation. Thus, leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader wants done (Schiermerhorn, 1996; Wright & Noe, 1996). Stoner-Zemel, (1998), defines leadership as 'the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members'.

Several authorities have expressed their views and ideas on various topics associated with leadership; and several attempts have been made to integrate the large number of these topics written by these authorities into one comprehensive framework. Unfortunately, most of these integrations become so complicated that they end up confusing readers. The researcher has consequently connoted a practical

diagram for studying leadership and it is upon this that literature had been reviewed.

The diagram is thus presented below:



Figure 2.1: Diagram for reviewing literature on leadership

Source: Author's construct, 2014

2.2 Traits Theories of Leadership

There have been many research studies into the common traits of leadership. However, attempts at identifying common personality, or physical and mental, characteristics of different 'good' or 'successful' leaders have met with little success. Investigations have identified lists of traits which tend to be overlapping,

contradictory or with little correlation for most features. According to Yukl (2006), this traits approach emphasises leaders' attributes such as personality, motives, values, and skills.

The trait theory of leadership is an early assumption that leaders are born and due to this belief, those that possess the correct qualities and traits are better suited to leadership. This theory often identifies behavioral characteristics that are common in leaders. Trait theory of leadership is one of the first academic theories of leadership and attempts to answer why some people are good leaders and others are not. In fact the theory can be traced back to the nineteenth century, whereby a man called Thomas Carlyle used such understanding to identify the talents, skills and characteristics of men who rose to power. The trait theory of leadership is based on the characteristics of many leaders – both successful and unsuccessful – and is used to predict leadership effectiveness. The resulting lists of traits are then compared to those of potential leaders to assess their likelihood of success or failure. Once found, the theory is that these natural leaders can then be nurtured to become great leaders.

Underlying this approach was the assumption that some people are natural leaders, endowed with certain traits not possessed by other people. Early leadership theories attributed managerial success to extraordinary abilities such as tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasive powers (Yukl, 2006).

Stogdill (1948) is also one of the main scholars of traits theory approach to leadership, whose two surveys established certain traits which were consistent of leaders. His first survey concluded: intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability were traits found among leaders. These traits did not automatically make a person a leader. The person also

needed the right situation (a leadership opportunity) and work with others. The second survey added more traits which included: drive, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, and originality in problem-solving, personal identity, willingness to accept consequence for actions and decisions, ability to influence another person's behaviour.

To Mullins (2006), traits theory of leadership consists of certain inherited characteristics, or personality traits, which distinguish leaders from their followers. This approach focuses attention on the man or woman in the job and not on the job itself. It suggests that attention is given to the selection of leaders rather than to training for leadership. For example, Drucker (writing originally in 1955) makes the point that: Leadership is of utmost importance. Indeed there is no substitute for it. But leadership cannot be created or promoted. It cannot be taught or learned.

It is noticeable that 'individuality' or 'originality' usually features in the list of traits. This suggests that there is little in common between specific personality traits of different leaders. It is perhaps possible therefore to identify general characteristics of leadership ability, such as self-confidence, initiative, intelligence and belief in one's actions, but research into this area has revealed little more than this. Mullins goes on to say that there are two further limitations with this approach:

1. First, there is bound to be some subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a 'good' or 'successful' leader.
2. Second, the lists of possible traits tend to be very long and there is not always agreement on the most important.

Even if it were possible to identify an agreed list of more specific qualities, this would provide little explanation of the nature of leadership. It would do little to help in the development and training of future leaders. Although there is still some interest in the qualities, or traits approach, attention has been directed more to other

approaches to leadership. The qualities or traits give rise to the questions: whether leaders are born or made; and whether leadership is an art or a science. The important point, however, is that these are not mutually exclusive alternatives. Even if there are certain inborn qualities which make for a good leader, these natural talents need encouragement and development. Even if leadership is something of an art, it still requires the application of special skills and techniques.

Thus it was determined that leaders do not have a uniform set of personal traits, research turned their attention to trying to isolate the behaviours characteristic of effective leaders. The traits approach was therefore updated; which give way to transactional, transformational or charismatic leadership.

2.3 Leadership Styles

Reviewing the literature, leadership styles were found to be significantly related to several organizational factors where, transformational style registered positive impact, transactional style had uncertain effect. Further information about uncertain findings of transactional style is provided later in this paper. Laissez-faire style on the other hand, was related significantly.

A leadership style is defined as a pattern of behavior leaders prefer to use Marie (2011). Mosadegh (2003) views leadership behavior/style as a series of attitudes, characteristics and skills used by a manager in different situations in accordance with individual and organizational values. Studies have shown that different leader behaviour affect the work outcomes such as job satisfaction differently (Swanson & Johnson, 1975; Cheng & Yang 1977; Euske et al., 1982; Savery, 1994; and Mosadegh, (2003). Mullins, (2012) defined leadership style as ~~the~~ the way in which the functions of leadership are carried out, the way in which the

manager typically behaves towards members of the group.” Leadership doesn’t start with technology or innovation; instead, leaders need to believe in themselves, build relationships and trust, know their own values, and never stop learning Kouzes and Posner (2007).

The rule to remember when selecting the best leadership style for any situation is that past performance affects the present and future, and that subordinates’ behaviour affect the leader, just as the leader’s behaviour affects subordinates. The best leadership style is the one in which subordinate and task, as well as the leader and environment, are cohesive. Leadership is not about personality it is about behaviour; an observable set of skills and abilities that focus on how to impact those being led. The premise is that subordinates are more likely to work effectively for managers who adopt a certain style of leadership than others.

Snyder and Graves (2000) suggest that vision is the glue that binds individuals into a group with a common goal when shared by employees, it can keep an entire company moving forward in face of difficulties, enabling and inspiring leaders and employees alike, people follow more eagerly, with more enthusiasm and commitment, if their leader proves credible. Kouzes and Posner suggested that leadership development considers five practices (Bergen, 2011).

- a. They are to model the way - Modelling means going first, living the behaviours you want others to adopt. This is leading from the front. People will believe not what they hear leaders say but what they see leaders consistently do.
- b. Inspire a shared vision - People are motivated most not by fear or reward, but by ideas that capture their imagination. Note that this is not so much about

having a vision, but communicating it so effectively that others take it as their own.

- c. Challenge the process - Leaders thrive on and learn from adversity and difficult situations. They are early adopters of innovation.
- d. Enable others to act - Encouragement and exhortation is not enough. People must feel able to act and then must have the ability to put their ideas into action
- e. Encourage the heart - People act best of all when they are passionate about what they are doing. Leaders unleash the enthusiasm of their followers this with stories and passions of their own.

Leadership style may provide this freedom of intellectual stimulation, which enhances knowledge sharing and learning. This form of leadership also improves trust based relationships among subordinates by embracing a role model Brega, (2002) who is trusted by members. In terms of knowledge management trust based leaderships motivates employees to share their knowledge with others. Lastly a leader should know his followers well enough to identify their strengths and to place persons in positions where they can make positive contributions to the organization and attain rewards and recognition. When people know what they need to do to achieve rewards and they believe they possess the skills and the training to successfully accomplish the requisite tasks, it makes good sense that these persons are more likely to be motivated toward extra effort

In conclusion, the leadership style which a leader adopts in leading a team is very essential in creating a positive, motivation-oriented environment to satisfy the self-actualization needs as defined by Abraham Maslow (1998) in his hierarchy of needs to empower employees to maximum capability and high performance output

and organizations are constantly relying on the uniqueness of these diverse teams to generate a great variety of perspectives of solutions required for sustained business success (Goodnight, 2004).

2.4 Transactional, Transformational or Charismatic Leadership

Leadership style is defined as ~~inter~~interpersonal influence, directed through communication toward goal attainment." DuBrin (2006) It is defined as "the process of influencing leaders and followers to achieve organizational objectives through change" Lussier (2004). To ensure a holistic understanding for this concept, leadership is further defined as "the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals "Robbins, (1998). Among the previous definitions, it would be concluded that, leadership is the ability of interpersonal influence to direct followers through communication, and to achieve through change the organizational objectives. The reflection of these definitions in light of contemporary theories of leadership emerged three styles that are; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire.

The transformational leadership theory first appeared in 1978, when Burns made the attempt to study political leadership; as such it was derived from political science Burns (1978), and developed later by Bass (1985). The present believes that transformational leadership is a key of change, through its factors of influence (idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individual consideration). Transformational leadership refers to a process focusing on the exchange between leaders and followers by motivating followers' attitudes, it is the process of building employee loyalty to meet the organizational visions, missions, strategies and objectives by the leaders Yukl, (1989), not only because it is detrimental to the behavior of leaders and greatly affect individuals' performance, but

also because it built on creative exchange between the leader and followers to meet organizational vision through a change in values

In the beginning, there was a Max Weber's (1947) story of charismatic leader. According to Max Weber, charismatic leaders transformed and changed the world, until being ousted or succeeded by bureaucratic or traditional authority. Burns (1978) reasoned that the transactional leaders were like the bureaucrats, and charismatic heroic leaders were the transformation leaders, and thus Bass (1985) goes on to make a distinction between two (2) types of leaders-transactional and transformational-in which charismatic leadership constitutes a component.

2.4.1 Transactional Leadership

A leadership style whereby the objectives and goals are predefined and the leader uses reward and punishment to motivate his followers is known as Transactional Leadership. It focuses on improving the current situation of the organization by framing the steps and controlling the organizational activities. The basic purpose of this type of leadership is to revamp the existing corporate culture and to enhance current policies & procedures. In 1947, the style was first proposed by Max Weber followed by Bernard Bass in the year 1981.

In this leadership style, the leader uses his authority and responsibility as his power as well as the style has a formal approach. Prize and penalties are the two primary tools employed by the leader to inspire his subordinates i.e. if an employee achieves the target within the stipulated time he is given initiative for his work, whereas if the task is not completed within the required time, then he will be penalized for the same.

Transactional leaders recognize what followers want to get from work and try to see that followers get what is wanted if performance warrants it. Rewards and promises of renewal are exchanged with followers' efforts, and are responsive to the immediate self-interests of followers, if followers can fulfill by getting the work done. Thus, in transactional leadership, leaders recognize what followers need, clarifies how followers' need fulfillment will be exchanged for enacting role to attain designated outcomes, leaders recognize what followers must do to attain designated outcome, followers also recognize value of designated outcomes, and followers feel confidence in meeting role requirements.

Transactional leadership is based in contingency, in that reward or punishment is contingent upon performance. Despite much research that highlights its limitations, Transactional leadership is still a popular approach with many managers. Indeed, in the Leadership versus Management spectrum, it is very much to the management end of the scale.

The main limitation is the assumption of 'rational man', a person who is largely motivated by money and simple reward, and hence whose behaviour is predictable. The underlying psychology is Behaviourism, including the classical conditioning of Pavlov and Skinner's Operant conditioning. These theories are largely based on controlled laboratory experiments (often with animals) and ignore complex emotional factors and social values.

In practice, there is sufficient truth in Behaviourism to sustain Transactional approaches. This is reinforced by the supply-and-demand situation of much employment, coupled with the effects of deeper needs as in Maslow's Hierarchy. When the demand for a skill outstrips the supply, then Transactional Leadership often is insufficient, and other approaches are more effective. Leadership requires the

leader's qualities and skills to connect with people and their needs as well as the needs of the leadership situation.

He is of the opinion that by implementing the four leadership behaviours of attributed charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward, leaders can elevate the motivation level and increase the production from members of their staff. He further argues that leaders need to have a combination of confidence, a willingness to take risks, and the energy and conviction to try something new. Similarly, leaders should engage persons in developing mental pictures of new concepts and encouraging workers to discover the necessary solutions that transform visions into realities. Further, the leadership style should identify the need that persons have for personal recognition and the need to affirm the unique strengths and abilities of each person in an organization. Lastly, contingent reward may be perceived as knowing your members well enough to identify their strengths and to place persons in positions where they can make positive contributions to the church and attain rewards and recognition. When people know what they need to do to achieve rewards and they believe they possess the skills and the training to successfully accomplish the requisite tasks, it makes good sense that these persons are more likely to be motivated toward extra effort.

According to Mullins, in autocratic leadership style the focus of power is with the manager and all interaction within the group move towards the manager, and the manager has total control in decision-making, determining policy and procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationship and also controls the rewards or punishment (Mullins, 2006: 381).

This style of leadership, works well in a command and control organisation such as military, construction and manufacturing, where there is need for rapid

decision-making and need to reduce wasted time. Armstrong in his handbook of management and leadership argues that an autocratic leader would lead diverse teams efficiently when the leader is present because this type of leadership focuses the employees on a clearly defined task (Armstrong, 2012) but the limitation to this type of leadership in the diverse team is the lack of trust building amongst members, the employees tend to resent the leader and this can affect the result that is expected from diverse team (Weir, 2012; Burke, 2006).

The limitation of this style of leadership is that, it is time-consuming; it might not be effective when a leader has to make a quick decision in an organisation (Gastil, 1994). There are people who possess the appropriate knowledge and skills and appear to be the most suitable leaders in a given situation, but who do not emerge as effective leaders. Another limitation is that it does not explain fully the interpersonal behaviour of the different styles of leadership and their effect on members of the group. Finally, in the church organisation, it is not usually practicable to allow the situation continually to determine who should act as the leader (Mullins, 2005).

In the words of McGregor style can be defined as the method of coping with organisational reality which evolves out of trial and error and is not deliberately adopted or eventually recognised by the leader.” The predictable ways of coping with the reality of the work environment according to him may be termed as “Managerial styles.”

Davis (1975) is one among those who tried to study the effectiveness of various leadership styles in different situations. He pointed out one of the very important demerits of democratic leadership in saying that over a period of time group members develop a frustrating habit of expecting to be consulted on every issue, even those to

which they cannot contribute. When they are not consulted, they feel slighted, insulted and become resentful and uncooperative.

2.4.2 Transformational Leadership

This is a style of leadership in which the leader uses his influencing power and enthusiasm to motivate his followers to work for the benefit of the organisation. Here, the leader seeks the requirement for a change in the existing organisation culture, gives a vision to his subordinates, incorporates mission and implement the change with the dedication of his followers. In transformational leadership, the leader acts as a role model and as a motivator too who offers vision, excitement, encouragement, morale and satisfaction to the followers. The leader inspires his people to increase their abilities and capabilities, build up self-confidence and promotes innovation in the whole organisation. James MacGregor Burns first proposed the concept of this leadership style in the year 1978. The main idea of this leadership style is that both the superior and subordinate work for lifting each other for improving their morale and motivation (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leaders raise followers' level about the importance of designated outcomes and ways of reaching outcomes and get followers to transcend its own self- interest for the sake of the team, organization or nation. Thus, transformational leadership is viewed as leaders who as individuals inspire followers through its words, ideas, and behaviour (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leadership has been the subject of systematic inquiry in non-school organizations for several decades. Supplying conceptual grounding for transformational leadership, Burns (1978) focused on the relationship between the leader and the –followers.” When the relationship focuses on the continuing pursuit of

higher purposes, change for the better occurs both in the purposes and resources of those involved and in the relationship itself. Whereas the transformational leader plays a pivotal role in precipitating change, followers and leaders are bound together in the transformation process. The importance of developing followers to their fullest potential extended the concept of transformational leadership (Bass,1985; Bass & Avolio,1993). Transformational leaders motivate followers by raising their consciousness about the importance of organizational goals and by inspiring them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization. In their relationships with followers, this theory posits, transformational leaders exhibit at least one of these leadership factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Leithwood and colleagues have described and assessed the effectiveness of transformational leadership in schools (Leithwood,1994,1995; Leithwood, Dart, Jantzi, & Steinbach,1993; Leithwood et al.,1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood, Jantzi,& Fernandez,1994; Leithwood, Jantzi,& Steinbach, 1999). They have distinguished nine functions of transformational leadership clustering in three areas, those that are

- (a) mission centered (developing a widely shared vision for the school, building consensus about school goals and priorities),
- (b) performance centered (holding high performance expectations, providing individualized support, supplying intellectual stimulation),and
- (c) culture centered (modeling organizational values, strengthening productive school culture, building collaborative cultures, and creating structures for participation in school decisions).

By seeking to foster collaboration and to activate a process of continuous inquiry into teaching and learning, transformational leaders attempt to shape a positive organizational culture and contribute to organizational effectiveness (Fullan,1991; Leithwood et al.,1996). But even in collaborative cultures where principals' transformational efforts encourage teachers to contribute leadership and expertise in teaching and learning, principals have a central and explicit role in instruction (Sebring & Bryk,2000; Sheppard, 1996). When principals who are transformational leaders accept their instructional role and exercise it in collaboration with teachers, they practice an integrated form of leadership.

2.4.3 Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leadership theory states that followers make attribution of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when certain behaviours are observed. A charismatic leadership is based on the leaders' seemingly magical charm (charisma) that others follow. Charismatic leadership results when a leader uses the force of personal abilities and talents to have profound and extraordinary effects on followers. "Charisma" is a Greek word meaning "gift". Thus, charismatic leader, seeks to develop in subordinates the willingness and ability to share the responsibility for success.

What sets charismatic leaders apart is that they are –essentially very skilled communicators, individuals who are both verbally eloquent, but also able to communicate to followers on a deep, emotional level,” said Ronald E. Riggio, Ph.D., professor of leadership and organizational psychology at Claremont McKenna College, in his Psychology Today article –What is Charisma and Charismatic Leadership?”

Charismatic leaders are often identified in times of crisis and exhibit exceptional devotion to and expertise in their fields. They are often people with a clear vision in business or politics and the ability to engage with a large audience. A charismatic leadership definition is incomplete if it does not focus on the leader personally. More than other popular leadership styles, charismatic leadership depends on the personality and actions of the leader — not the process or structure. By focusing on sharing responsibility for the overall performance, a charismatic leader provides followers with the chance to have an impact.

2.4.4 Characteristics of the Charismatic Leaders

A charismatic leader is said to gather followers through dint of personality and charm, rather than any form of external power or authority. Thus, Conger and Kanungo (1994) describe five behavioural attitudes of charismatic leader and these include;

1. Vision and articulation
2. Sensitivity to the environment
3. Sensitivity to member needs
4. Personal risk taking
5. Performing unconventional behaviour.
6. Non maintenance of status quo (Conger-Kanungo, 1994).

Based on these, it can be said that a charismatic leader's skills and attitudes vary. A charismatic leader's skills are seen in the leader's vision, persuasive speaking, dominant body language, good listener, trustworthy and esteemed and good organizer and commander. The attitudes are also seen in having strong sense of responsibility; strong self- confidence; strong ethical beliefs and experiences; ready to provide

support; willingness for sacrifice and ready to challenge the rules. A charismatic leader is a person who is dominant, self-confident, convinced of the moral righteousness of one's beliefs and able to arouse a sense of excitement and adventure in subordinates. A charismatic leader is also an eloquent speaker and exhibits superior verbal skills, which helps communicate the vision and motivate followers.

2.5 Behavioral Theories of Leadership

According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1992), behavioural models are theories of leadership that focus on differences in the actions (behaviours) of effective and ineffective leaders. In other words, they look at what effective and less effective leaders actually do: how they delegate tasks to subordinates, where and when they communicate to others, how they perform their roles, and so on. Unlike traits, behaviours can be seen and learned. If behaviours can be learned, then individuals can be trained to lead more effectively. Thus, behavioural theorists identified determinants of leadership so that people could be trained to be leaders. They developed training programs to change managers' leadership behaviours and assumed that the best styles of leadership could be learned.

McGregor (1960) author of *The Human Side of Enterprise*, labeled this leadership models as Theory X and Theory Y. Each of these theories represents different ways in which leaders view employees. Theory X managers believe that employees are motivated mainly by money, are lazy, uncooperative, and have poor work habits. Theory Y managers believe that subordinates work hard, are cooperative, and have positive attitudes. He goes on to say that: Theory X is the traditional view of direction and control by managers. The assumptions under this theory are:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

Table 2.1: The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory

		Task Behaviors	
		Low	High
Relationship Behaviors	High	Participating Style Shares Ideas <i>(Followers able, unwilling, not confident)</i>	Selling Style Explain Decisions <i>(Followers unable, willing, confident)</i>
	Low	Delegating Style Turn over decisions <i>(Followers able, willing, confident)</i>	Telling Style Give Instructions <i>(Followers unable, unwilling, not confident)</i>

Theories X and Y

Theory X managers believe that:	Theory Y managers believe that:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. • Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational objectives. • The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all else. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest, and the average human being, under proper conditions, learns not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. • People will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives to which they are committed. • The capacity to exercise a relatively high level of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population, and the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life.

Source: Hersey and Blanchard, 1977

Theory X leads naturally to an emphasis on the tactics of control – to procedures and techniques for telling people what to do, for determining whether they

are doing it, and for administering rewards and punishment. It explains the consequences of a particular managerial strategy. Because its assumptions are so unnecessarily limiting, it prevents managers from seeing the possibilities inherent in other managerial strategies. As long as the assumptions of Theory X influence managerial strategy, organizations will fail to discover, let alone utilize, the potentialities of the average human being.

Theory Y is the view that individual and organizational goals can be integrated. The assumptions underlying this theory are:

1. The expenditures of physical and mental effort in work are as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing out effort toward organizational objectives.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the condition of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Theory Y's purpose is to encourage integration, to create a situation in which an employee can achieve his or her own goals best by directing his or her efforts toward the objectives of the organization. It is a deliberate attempt to link improvement in

managerial competence with the satisfaction of higher-level ego and self-actualization needs. Theory Y leads to a preoccupation with the nature of relationships, with the creation of an environment which will encourage commitment to organizational objectives and which will provide opportunities for the maximum exercise of initiative, ingenuity, and self-direction in achieving them. Thus the underlying principle of behavior theories of leadership is the law of effect: behavior that leads to a positive consequence for the individual tends to be repeated; in contrast, behavior that leads to a negative consequence tends not to be repeated.

2.6 Styles Theories (Leadership Styles)

A leadership style is a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterises a leader. The concept of style is therefore a logical extension of understanding leadership through behaviours, skills and practices. A leader must choose a leadership style that is appropriate for accomplishing results; it should also fit his or her personality.

According to Mullins (2006) and Rollinson (2002), there are many dimensions to leadership and many possible ways of describing leadership style, such as, for example: dictatorial, unitary, bureaucratic, benevolent, charismatic, consultative, participative and abdicatorial. The style of managerial leadership towards subordinate staff and the focus of power can, however, be classified within a broad three-fold heading:

2.6.1 The Authoritarian (or Autocratic) Style

Authoritarian leadership, also known as autocratic leadership, is a management style in which an individual has total decision-making power and

absolute control over his subordinates. An authoritarian leader makes decisions on policies, procedures and group objectives with little or no input from his or her team members or followers. In this style of leadership the focus of power is with the manager, and all interactions within the group move towards the manager. The manager alone exercises decision-making and authority for determining policy, procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationships, control of rewards or punishments.

2.6.2 The Democratic Style

The Democratic Leadership Style gives members of the work group a vote or a say in nearly every decision the team makes. When used effectively, the democratic leader builds flexibility and responsibility and can help identify new ways to do things with fresh ideas (Mullins, 2006). However, one must be careful of this style because the level of involvement required by this style and the decision making process can be very time consuming. In democratic style, the focus of power is more with the group as a whole and there is greater interaction within the group. The leadership functions are shared with members of the group and the manager is more part of a team. The group members have a greater say in decision-making, determination of policy, implementation of systems and procedures. Democratic leaders involved followers in decisions and delegated much more responsibility to the group. This was said to lead to higher-quality decisions, a much stronger team spirit, commitment to implementing decisions and satisfaction among followers (Rollinson, 2002).

It is also known as participative leadership, is a type of leadership style in which members of the group take a more participative role in the decision-making process. Everyone is given the opportunity to participate, ideas are exchanged freely,

and discussion is encouraged. While the democratic process tends to focus on group equality and the free flow of ideas, the lead of the group is still there to offer guidance and control. The democratic leader is charged with deciding who is in the group and who gets to contribute to the decisions that are made. Researchers have found that the democratic leadership style is one of the most effective and leads to higher productivity, better contributions from group members, and increased group morale.

2.6.3 Characteristics of Democratic Leadership

Some of the primary characteristics of democratic leadership include:

Group members are encouraged to share ideas and opinions, even though the leader retains the final say over decisions. Members of the group feel more engaged in the process. Creativity is encouraged and rewarded.

Again all good democratic leaders possess specific traits. These are very unique traits that help in defining what a true democratic leader should be.

Honesty, Intelligence, Courage, Creativity, Competence and Fairness are key and important attributes or traits of every good democratic leader.

Strong democratic leaders inspire trust among followers. They are sincere and base their decisions on their morals and values. Followers tend to feel inspired to take action and contribute to the group. Good leaders also tend to seek diverse opinions and do not try to silence dissenting voices or those that offer a less popular point of view.

Because group members are encouraged to share their thoughts, democratic leadership can lead to better ideas and more creative solutions to problems.

Group members also feel more involved and committed to projects, making them more likely to care about the end results. Research on leadership styles has also shown that democratic leadership leads to higher productivity among group members.

2.6.4 A Laissez-Faire (Genuine) Style

The laissez-faire style is where the manager observes that members of the group are working well on their own. The manager consciously makes a decision to pass the focus of power to members, to allow them freedom of action 'to do as they think best', and not to interfere; but is readily available if help is needed. There is often confusion over this style of leadership behaviour. The word 'genuine' is emphasised because this is to be contrasted with the manager who could not care, who deliberately-deeps away from the trouble spots and does not want to get involved. The manager just lets members of the group get on with the work in hand. Members are left to face decisions, which rightly belong with the manager. This is more a non-style of leadership of it could perhaps be labelled as abdication.

Translated from its French origins, laissez-faire means "let it be" or "leave it alone." In practice, it means leaders leave it up to their subordinates to complete responsibilities in a manner they choose, without requiring strict policies or procedures.

However, Garner (2007) in his article **Your Leadership Style** outlined four main leadership styles - the directive, consultative, problem-solving, and the delegated styles of leadership. According to him, if one wants to succeed as a leader, one-needs to be comfortable with moving around the spectrum of these leadership styles. Sticking with just one style means that the leader becomes predictable and hence, as a leader, dispensable. His identified styles are as follow:

2.6.5 The Directive Style

This leadership style is the style that most people equate with 'strong' leadership. When people say they want more leadership, they usually mean they want more direction. Directive leadership is similar to the autocratic style of leadership where the leader tells the subordinate what to do, and how to do it. The leader initiates the ideas, projects and tasks and gives the responsibility of completing these tasks to the subordinate, and usually telling them how to do it as well, specifying standards, deadlines and parameters. They exercise firm rules and expect their subordinates to work within the boundaries set by the leader or the organization. This kind of leaders are usually found in more traditional and long standing companies in countries that respect seniority and experience. Some examples will be China and Japan.

Also, they are found in most countries' military. As mentioned in autocratic leadership, directive leaders are absolutely necessary for survival and victory in the armed forces. In the corporate world, directive leadership means that employees are not required to give their suggestions or feedback. They are mainly judged by how well they do the tasks that have been assigned to them.

In military terms, this is leading from the front or by example. Although the directive, -- or command-and-tell — style, is out of favour today, it is still the style one must use in new, unfamiliar, or critical situations when the team face a threat. This has its disadvantages because the unique perspectives or talents of individual employees cannot be maximized. For most employees who feel stifled and unfulfilled, they may even talk behind the leaders back instead of confronting for fear of repercussions.

2.6.6 The Consultative Style

Consultative leadership is also task oriented. It focuses on the end result almost as much as the directive leadership style. The consultative leader also does something over and above the directive leader, which is to ask his subordinates for opinions. While he ultimately has the authority to make the final decision, he is willing to listen to the viewpoints of his team. This is likely because the consultative leader is in a position where he does not know the whole situation and he requires the views and opinions of the team on the ground that he may be able to make an informed decision. This could happen in either a huge corporation in a specialized industry where the experts are the engineers and scientists working in the frontlines.

Another reason a leader can choose the consultative leadership style is because he is humble enough to listen and consider all views before coming to a final decision. Despite having the complete authority to make a final decision, he chooses to listen to the team because he knows that he does not know everything.

As a result, the quality of decisions he makes will often be far better than if he would have made them himself.

If the directive style puts task before team, the consultative style puts team before task. This is the style one will use when one needs to talk to the team, hear what they have to say, understand them, and take them with him or her. If the directive style calls for a typically masculine approach, the consultative style calls for a typically feminine approach: hard versus soft.

2.6.7 The Problem-Solving Style

This style of leadership goes under various names. Ken Blanchard calls it the 'selling' style (in contrast to 'telling'). Other writers call it the participative style or

negotiating style or the win-win style. If the directive style is top-down (that is from the leader downwards) and the consultative style is bottom-up (that is from the subordinate upwards), then the problem-solving style is sideways. The problem-solving style is the right style to use when there is conflict in the team.

2.6.8 The Delegated Style

This style looks like an abdication of leadership. It is the style where the leader takes a back seat and appears to do nothing. In reality it is one of the hardest of styles to use. It means letting go of control so that the team can make their own decisions. The leader trusts them and first time round that can be hard.

Tendai (2006) in his article *Leadership styles that affect performance of subordinates*, also sees Styles theory of leadership from two perspectives: The authoritarian or formal type of leadership; and the supportive and more flexible type of leadership. The authoritarian leadership is characterised by the dominance of the leader who controls all aspects of the work, gives detailed orders and makes all decisions. The quality most required of followers under the leadership style is obedience. The supportive style on the other hand is more flexible, incorporating participatory decision-making and a certain degree of professional freedom and initiative.

According to Bill (2006), in citing Goleman (1996), indicates that approach to leadership could be looked at from six different angles. These six styles are in connection with the Goleman's theory of 'emotional intelligence'. His model which is simple and all-encompassing are not farfetched. They are: coaching, pacesetter, democratic, affiliative, authoritative, and coercive leadership style models.

Managers using the delegating leadership style share authority and responsibility with their employees. Employees are given the ability to complete projects and tasks on their own. This doesn't mean leaders give no direction; the act of delegating requires a manager to have a conversation with an employee to assign a task, ensure the employee understands the task and give the employee the tools necessary to complete it.

Delegation has a number of advantages. Employee satisfaction tends to be higher when employees feel they have agency and authority within an organization, and people with a high degree of self-motivation can thrive under a delegating leadership style. It also has the advantage of helping employees learn valuable skills that they can use to grow into leadership positions, and it can give them a better understanding of the workings of the company.

Delegation is a hands-off leadership style in comparison to others, but employees still require attention. Managers must delegate correctly to be effective, and ineffective delegation can lead to tasks being assigned to individuals who have neither the skills nor the authority necessary to complete them. Delegation also runs the risk of undermining group cohesion within the organization. Finally, it's not the right style for every employee. Some employees need a high degree of supervision and may not work effectively under a delegation leadership style.

2.6.9 Coaching Leadership Style

Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard in the late 1960s were the first to describe the coaching leadership style. In 2002, Daniel Goleman went on to document the coaching leader as one of his six leadership styles. Coaching leaders clearly define

roles and tasks of followers, but seeks their input and suggestions too. Decisions are still made by the leader, but the communication style is truly two-way.

Coaching leaders are very effective in settings where performance or results need improvement. They help others to advance their skills; they build bench strength, and provide a lot of guidance. The coaching leadership style is most effective when followers are more responsible, experienced, and agreeable.

The coaching leader directs and guides; including providing encouragement and inspiration to help motivate the followers. They create a positive workplace environment; followers know exactly what's expected of them, and they understand the overall strategy of the company.

In the Coaching Leadership Style, the leader focuses on helping others in their personal development and in their job-related activities. The coaching leader aids others to get up to speed by working closely with them to make sure they have the knowledge and tools to get their job done. This leadership style works best when the employee already understands their weakness and is receptive to ideas on how to improve.

2.6.10 Pacesetting Leadership Style

Daniel Goleman in 2002, describes the pacesetting leadership style as one of six leadership types documented. Pacesetting leaders set very high performance standards for themselves and their followers, and exemplify the behavior they are seeking from other members of the group.

Daniel Goleman believed that certain leadership styles were more effective under certain conditions. This is known as situational leadership. The pacesetting leadership style works best when followers are self-motivated and highly skilled. For

example, when a group has been functioning together as an effective team and the leader needs to increase the pace at which the group is working to meet a deadline for an important project.

The pacesetter leader either gives little or no performance feedback to the followers, except to take over when the followers seem to be lagging behind schedule.

When employees are self-motivated and highly skilled, the Pacesetter Leadership Style is extremely effective. The pacesetter leader sets very high performance standards for themselves and the group and exemplifies the behaviours they are seeking from other members of the group. This leadership style needs to be used sparingly since workers can often "burn out" due to the demanding pace of this style.

2.6.11 Affiliative Leadership Style

The Affiliative Leadership Style is most effective in situations where morale is low or teambuilding is needed. This leader is easily recognized by their theme of "employee first." Employees can expect much praise from this style; unfortunately, poor performance may also go without reprimand.

2.6.12 Authoritative Leadership Style

The Authoritative Leadership Style is an expert in dealing with the problems and challenges at hand and can clearly identify goals that will lead to success. This leader also allows the employees themselves to figure out the best way to achieve those goals. If one's business seems to be drifting aimlessly, the authoritative leadership style is very effective in this type of situation.

2.6.13 Coercive Leadership Style

The Coercive Leadership Style is based on "command and control" and as such should be used with caution. It causes a decrease in motivation among those interacting with this type of manager. The coercive leader is most effective in situations where the company or group requires a complete turnaround. It is also effective during disasters or dealing with underperforming employees - usually as a last resort.

In fact, Goleman's research revealed that leaders that were able to master four or more leadership styles - especially the democratic, authoritative, affiliative and coaching styles - often provide superior performance from their followers and climate in which to work. That being said, it's not easy to master multiple leadership styles. That's because in order to master a new way of leading others, we may need to unlearn old habits. This is especially important for leaders that fall back on the pacesetter and coercive leadership styles - which have a negative effect on the work environment. Learning a new leadership style therefore takes practice and perseverance. The more often the new style or behaviour is repeated, the stronger the link becomes in our brains between the situation at hand and the desired reaction.

From the above researches conducted by the various researchers, it is obvious that there are several categories of leadership styles under the Styles Theory of Leadership; but the leader's ability to move around these styles, and the shades in-between, will tell others just how good a leader the person is. One won't always get it right. Sometimes, the leader has to call the team for a chat when they want decisiveness. Sometimes, he has to try to sell his ideas when what they want is for him to leave them alone. But as one develops one's reading of situations, one will come to know instinctively just what one's best action should be.

2.6.14 Contingency and Situational Theories of Leadership

Taking the concept of leadership styles one step further, the diagram for reviewing literature indicates that leaders often practise contingency and situational leadership - that is, they choose the right style to match the situation. The situational theory of leadership begins with the assumption that there are no traits and behaviours that automatically constitute effective leadership. To be effective, the leader's style must fit the situation. For example, a low-key consultative style might work well with competent professionals but would be less effective with inexperienced team members with a weak work ethic.

The situational perspective on leadership, explains that leaders must correctly identify the behaviours required in a given situation. After diagnosing the situation, the leader must then be flexible enough to select behaviour to match the situation. Assume, for example, that an organisational unit is facing the crisis of a downsizing. The effective leader would diagnose the insecurity, ambiguity, and stress faced by team members. His or her response would be to support team members emotionally to help them through the crisis (DuBrin 1995).

Closely associated with the Contingency and Situational theories of leadership are: Fiedler's Contingency theories of Leadership. Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership, Path-Goal Model of Leadership, and Vroom Yetton Jago Participation Model of Leadership. Thus DuBrin (1995) shows his opinion on the four leadership models as:

2.6.15 Fiedler's Contingency Theories of Leadership

This theory postulates that there is no best way for managers to lead. Situations will create different leadership style requirements for a manager. The

solution to a managerial situation is contingent on the factors that impinge on the situation. For example, in a highly routinized (mechanistic) environment where repetitive tasks are the norm, a certain leadership style may result in the best performance. The same leadership style may not work in a very dynamic environment. Fiedler looked at three situations that could define the condition of a managerial task:

Leader member relations: How well do the manager and the employees get along?

1. The task structure: Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between?
2. Position power: How much authority does the manager possess

Managers were rated as to whether they were relationship oriented or task oriented. Task oriented managers tend to do better in situations that have good leader-member relationships, structured tasks, and either weak or strong position power. They do well when the task is unstructured but position power is strong. Also, they did well at the other end of the spectrum when the leader member relations were moderate to poor and the task was unstructured. Relationship oriented managers do better in all other situations. Thus, a given situation might call for a manager with a different style or a manager who could take on a different style for a different situation (Fiedler, 1967).

2.6.16 Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership

The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership theory is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the "level of maturity" of the followers. Task behaviour is the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the

duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behavior the leader engages in one-way communication. Relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors. In relationship behavior the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support. Maturity is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his or her own behaviour. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined.

The four leadership styles are telling, selling, participating, and delegating. High task/low relationship behavior (S1) is referred to as "telling." The leader provides clear instructions and specific direction. Telling style is best matched with a low follower readiness level. High task/high relationship behavior (S2) is referred to as "selling." The leader encourages two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part of the employee, although the leader still has responsibility and controls decision making.

2.7 Path-Goal Model of leadership

The path-goal theory developed by House (1971) is based on the expectancy theory of motivation. The manager's job is viewed as coaching or guiding workers to choose the best paths for reaching their goals. The best path is judged by the accompanying achievement of organizational goals. It is based on the preception of goals of the organisation. It has to engage in different types of leadership behaviour depending on the nature and demands of the particular situation. The leader's job is to

assist followers in attaining goals and to provide direction and the support needed to ensure that their goals are compatible with the organisation's goals

A leader's behavior is acceptable to subordinates when viewed as a source of satisfaction and motivational when satisfaction is contingent on performance, and the leader facilitates, coaches and rewards effective performance Path goal theory identifies action-oriented, directive, participative and supportive leadership styles In action-oriented leadership, the leader sets challenging goals for followers, expects them to perform at their highest level, and slums confidence in their ability to meet this expectation. This style is appropriate when the follower suffers from a lack of job challenge. In directive leadership, the leader lets followers know what is expected of them and tells them how to perform their tasks. This style is appropriate when the follower has an ambiguous job. Participative leadership involves leaders consulting with followers and asking for their suggestions before making a decision. This style is appropriate when the follower is using improper procedures or is making poor decisions. In supportive leadership, the leader is friendly and approachable. He or she shows concern for followers' psychological well being. This style is appropriate when the followers lack confidence.

Path-Goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their style, as situations require. The theory proposes two contingency variables (environment and follower characteristics) that moderate the leader behaviour-outcome relationship. Environment is outside the control of followers-task structure, authority system, and work group. Environmental factors determine the type of leader behaviour required if follower outcomes are to be maximized. Follower characteristics are the locus of control, experience, and perceived ability. Personal characteristics of subordinates determine how the environment and leader are

interpreted. Effective leaders clarify the path to help their followers achieve their goals and make the journey easier by reducing roadblocks and pitfalls. Research demonstrates that employee performance and satisfaction are positively influenced when the leader compensates for the shortcomings in either the employee or the work setting.

2.8 Vroom-Yetton-Jago leader Participation Model of Leadership

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago leader-participation model relates leadership behaviour and participation to decision making. The model provides a set of sequential rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situations. It is a decision tree, requiring yes and no answers incorporating contingencies about task structure and alternative styles. The following contingency questions must be answered to determine the appropriate leadership style in the leader-participation model.

1. Quality Requirement: How important is the technical quality of this decision?
2. Commitment Requirement: How important is subordinate commitment to the decision?
3. Leader's Information: Do you have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?
4. Problem Structure: Is the problem well structured?
5. Commitment Probability: If you were to make the decision yourself, are you reasonably certain that your subordinates would be committed to the decision?
6. Goal Congruence: Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?

7. Subordinate Conflict: Is conflict among subordinates over preferred solutions likely?
8. Subordinate Information: Do subordinates have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?

2.9 Educational Leadership

Educational leaders play important role with the intension to make teaching and learning more effective and to give quality education to students. Most educational experts consider educational leaders (also known as school administrators) as the driving force and main source of the organizational development and academic growth of students (Mirkamali, 1995). The educational leader's (school administrators) leadership style influences the efficiency and also the effectiveness of the organization and it is the function of other several inter-related factors like the employee's level of psychological and social maturation at work and their main expectations (Alageheband, 1997). In most cases, what the principal does is management. It is concerned with the running of the school system. Leadership style of a principal really depends on the leaders assumptions about human being, human nature and human learning. These assumptions consciously and unconsciously are the main foundation for decision making and choosing a leadership style (Bayst, 1998). Educational leadership is a key factor to improve the condition of any department and also the same in school aspects. Functional schools and outstanding performance do not exist without effective leadership style. The mode in which schools are spiritual beliefs, ideas and attitudes that make learning more connected, value driven and meaningful (Deal and Peterson, 1994).

Educational leadership has to do with the active use of a person's (the leader or the teacher's) ability, and the talents towards influencing others in the achievement of a common or mutual goal. Leadership is important in educational administration and management because of its overarching effects on the accomplishment of school objectives, policies, programmes and plans (Afful-Broni, 2004). Muijs and Harris (2007) in citing several authors in their article "Teacher Leadership" in (In) action see teacher leadership as follows.

Effective or purposeful leadership is generally accepted as being a central component in securing and sustaining school improvement. The evidence from the school improvement literature consistently highlights that effective leaders exercise an indirect influence on schools' capacity to improve upon the achievement of students, though this influence does not necessarily derive from senior managers, but can also at least partly lie in strengths of middle-level leaders and teachers (Leithwood et al., 1999; Harris, 2004). While the quality of teaching most strongly influences levels of pupil motivation and achievement, it has been demonstrated that the quality of leadership matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching in the classroom (Sergiovanni, 1999; Fullan, 2001).

One of the main areas of capacity building for teacher leadership suggested by previous research is the need to improve teachers' self-confidence to act as leaders in their schools (Gehrke, 1991). Through collaborating with teachers in other schools, engaging in training new teaching approaches, disseminating their findings to colleagues and engaging in action research the potential for teacher leadership is significantly enhanced (Darling-Hammond, 1995). Such activities help to develop teachers' confidence and reflection on their practice and some research suggests that

more democratic styles of leadership emerge where schools work in clusters or networks directly supported by a HEI (Romerdahl, 1991).

The success or otherwise of teacher leadership within a school can also be influenced by a number of interpersonal factors, such as relationships with other teachers and school management (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). The importance of these is evident, both with respect to teachers' ability to influence colleagues and with respect to developing productive relations with school management, who may in some cases feel threatened by teachers taking on leadership roles. There may also on occasion be conflicts between groups of teachers, such as those that do and do not take on leadership roles, which can lead to estrangement among teachers (Gehrke, 1991). Overcoming these difficulties will require a combination of strong interpersonal skills on the part of the teacher leader and a school culture that encourages change and leadership from teachers (LeBlanc & Skelton, 1997).

2.10 Concept of “Followership”

In fact 'followership' is not an English word. Gibson (2004) argues that if we can have a word like leadership, we should also have 'followership', which means the art of following a leader. The best followers do not follow a leader blindly; they know how to follow a leader because they usually follow the best leaders. Gibson goes on to enumerate seven points that help define a good practitioner in the art of 'followership'.

Good followers understand the vision: A good follower knows so much about the vision that they could find it without the leader even being there. This is the key point of good followership — knowing where you're going, and knowing how you're getting there. Some leaders are not always forthcoming about their destination — some of them do not know it themselves until they find it — but the best leaders have

a vision of where they are going, and they transmit that vision to their followers. Great followers learn to share that vision -- because they have learned to see it themselves. Those well-versed in followership learn to ask questions in order to understand the vision, and then learn to share it.

Followers learn to trust their leader -- but remember that the leader has his or her best interests at heart, not necessarily those of the follower. This seems to be contradictory, but it is really not. Left to their own devices, most people look out for their own best interests, not necessarily those of the followers who may come behind them. That means as a follower, we have got to watch out for our own best interests -- because nobody knows them better than we do. Some company leaders will recruit followers, build up a plan, form a vision, and then quickly leave the company for greener pastures. Sometimes it is because they specialize in turning around a company - more often than not, it is because they "got out while the getting was good." Followers need to keep their own needs in mind, because the leaders may or may not be keeping an eye out for those people who follow behind.

Followers learn to make themselves more useful to their leaders: It is a truism that the more useful you are, the more chance you have of staying around. Like it or not, your worth as an employee or a business owner is dependent on the amount of value you return to the company. The best followers learn this, and work to maximize their perceived value – through training, learning, team playing, and individual initiative. Most leaders learn which followers are most important to their vision – and assign added value to those followers. This does not mean that the follower is a "yes-man" here – only that as a follower, you learn which way the company is moving and maximize your value in that area.

Followers learn to bring important things to a leader's attention: 'Important things' in this context does not mean the follower has to rat on their coworkers, bootlick, brown nose, or any of those other disgusting things that weasel employees often do. What it means is that the follower becomes a good sounding board for their leader; he or she also brings appropriate news to share with the team and also they bring up important data even if it contradicts the leader's assumptions and also the follower has to work to help define what the future is going to be.

Followers maintain enthusiasm – or suffer the consequences. Really, this is more the responsibility of the leader to foster enthusiasm in his or her recruits, but it is important that followers take responsibility for their own mood swings. Leaders soon identify non-enthusiastic employees as dead weight – and it takes a pretty good leader to realize that much of the problem is his or hers. Most often, blame will be assigned to the person with the problem – the employee.

Followers keep an open mind – but still have a mind: A follower needs to keep a critical eye on proposed solutions — he owes it to the company — but he also needs to try and keep an open mind. When a follower has been with a company, or in an industry, for a while, it's easy to believe they've seen everything - and label anything new as unworkable, unusable, or just plain evil. But the truth is that while not every bit of management-speak is intelligent, it's not all drivel, either.

A follower needs to take a critical look at everything, but they must strive to keep an open mind when solutions, destinations, or fixes are promised or outlined. As followers, we need to follow a path a bit in order to see where it leads.

Followers should be leaders themselves: Sounds strange, know -- but it is important. Just as a leader has a vision, and a follower learns to follow and share that vision, so we must become leaders if we are not currently acting as such. A follower

needs to build their leadership skills up -- they need to become incredible leaders in their own right. They need to develop who they are, what they will become, and what they have to share.

Some people believe that leaders are born, not made – but while a great hairline and high cheekbones may make you look like a leader – Hollywood style – it does not make you learn to lead. Leadership is something that can be developed, and often is developed before we even realize that we have it.

Gray (1991) has also expressed his views about fellowship. He has opined that being a follower does not mean the fellow is a zombie with no will of his own; a copycat who lacks originality; a sheep easily duped or led astray. He thinks that just as there may be 'bad' leaders, there may also be 'bad' followers. He thus follows his argument up with qualities of 'fellowship'. To him a good follower:

1. **accepts direction and instruction:** Good followers can handle training, directions and criticism. They are open to new ideas and suggestions and do not become defensive. They are flexible. They will ask questions to clarify goals or values. They contribute to discussions and participate in decision making.
2. **is responsible:** Good followers accept responsibility for their own actions and for the decisions of the group. This may require questioning or even opposing leadership that is against the good of the group or against greater values. A young person who tries to take his friends out of an act of vandalism is one example. Another is the Scouter who points out possible negative consequences of a program activity.

3. **is creative and resourceful:** Good followers do not need to be told everything. (Given a task, they will find ways and means to accomplish it without further direction.
4. **is loyal and dependable:** Good followers accept being a part of a whole and recognize that they cannot always have their own way. They feel good about themselves by contributing to the group and its goals and helping achieve those goals. Once a patrol has decided Bill will arrange transport to the lake, for instance, they must be confident that Bill will arrange that transport, even though he wanted to camp somewhere else. In the final analysis, the only person one can truly lead is oneself. Young people should however, be trained to learn how to follow.

2.11 Performance Management

According to Byars and Rue (1994, p. 289), performance is the degree of accomplishment of the tasks that make up employee's job. This shows how an employee is seen doing his or her work and it is measured in terms of results. Performance is dependent on such factors as efforts, ability, motivation, hard work, zeal, etc. Performance is generally seen to be the contribution made by employees towards achieving the organizational goals.

To McNamara (2007), performance management includes activities to ensure that goals are consistently being met in an effective and efficient manner. Performance management can focus on performance of the organization, a department, processes to build a product or service, employees, etc. Performance management is therefore the means through which managers ensure that employee activities and outputs support the organisation's goals. Performance management thus

consists of defining what performance is desired, measuring actual performance and providing feedback.

2.11.1 Motivation and Performance

According to Mullins (2006), the study of motivation is concerned, basically, with why people behave in a certain way. The basic underlying question is 'why do people do what they do?' In general terms, motivation can be described as the direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems. The underlying concept of motivation is some driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goal in order to fulfill some need or expectation. People's behavior is determined by what motivates them. Their performance is a product of both ability level and motivation.

Mullins (2005) goes on to say that, organizations achieve their goals and objectives by the coordinated efforts of their members. Organizational success is dependent upon members being motivated to use their full talents and abilities, and directed well in the right areas. According to a major international study undertaken by **Proudfoot Consulting**, a major reason for productivity loss was poor working morale. Aspects of poor working morale included: people feeling undervalued and poorly rewarded; an absence of positive team-spirit; low motivation; lack of attention to quality; unwillingness to see a job well done, and a poor sense of belonging.

Thus with a positive motivation philosophy and practice in place, productivity, performance, quality and service improve; because motivation helps people towards: achieving goals; gaining a positive perspective; creating the power to change;

building self-esteem and capability; and managing their development and helping others.

Conceptual Framework

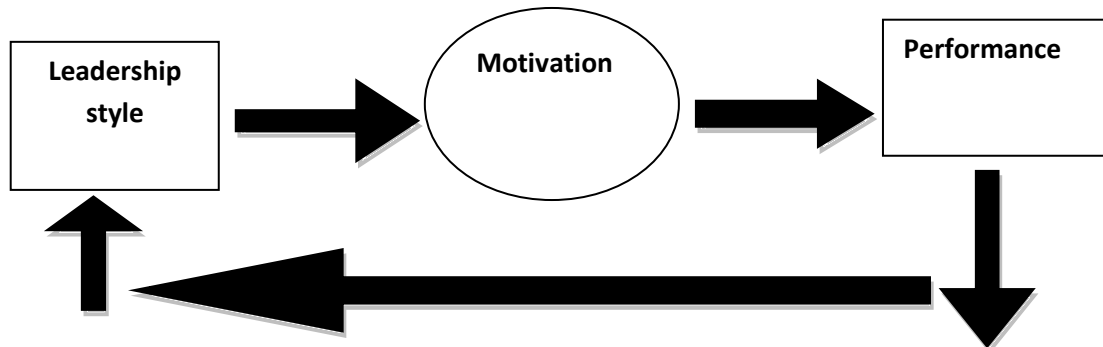


Figure 2.2 A conceptual framework of the study

Source: Author's construct

The researcher now presents a conceptual framework grounded in and extending the findings from this review of the literature. It documents key understandings about leadership, motivation and performance and suggests a way through which the kind of leadership style exhibited by the leader can really motivate employees to perform in order to achieve organizational goals. In essence, the conceptual framework suggests a theory of action for employee performance. There are three major components in the framework. The first one (leadership style) serves as the foundation upon which employees' performance is achieved and it is largely drawn from the literature. The second component (motivation) suggests a path by which leadership style affects performance of the employees. The last component is the performance itself.

The overall framework simply shows how performance is achieved. It portrays that it is not only the kind of leadership of the leader that really matters or gingers the employees to strive for organizational goals; but it is the driving force (motivation) behind the leadership style which really leads to employees' performance. Hence, leadership style leads to motivation and motivation also leads to performance. That is to say that when the needs and expectations of employees are met, they really learn to subordinate their individual parochial interest to achieving the organization's vision; thereby achieving overall performance.

The feedback loop of the framework (from performance to leadership styles) suggests that if performance is 'good' or positive, the kind of leadership style that led to that 'good' performance is encouraged or maintained; on the other hand if the performance is not encouraging enough, then there is a just reason for the leader to take a second look at that leadership style that led to the 'weak' performance.

2.12 Effect of Leadership Style on Job Performance

Schools depend on leadership throughout the organization to shape productive futures through a process of self-renewal (Senge, 2000). Yusuf (2008) is of the view that performance of any school should not only be considered from the academic outcomes only, but should also focus on the other education outcomes such as the affective domains and psychomotor domains. In the same vein Mumbe (1995) conducted a study to investigate principal leadership styles and influence on academic achievement in secondary school. In the study, he concluded that democratic leadership style affected student and general school performance positively and motivated teachers to work with principals towards the achievement of school

objectives. The present fall in standard of education coupled with the saying “No school can be greater than their leaders” Odewunmi (2008).

Focusing on school leadership relations between principals and teachers, this study examines the potential of their active collaboration around instructional matters to enhance the quality of teaching and student performance. The analysis is grounded in a comparison of two conceptions of leadership transformational and instructional. Functioning as leaders, principals can serve to transform school cultures or to maintain them (Firestone & Louis, 1999; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Transformational leadership, put briefly, provides intellectual direction and aims at innovating within the organization, while empowering and supporting teachers as partners in decision making (Conley & Goldman, 1994; Leithwood, 1994).

Instructional leadership, developed during the effective schools movement of the 1980s, viewed the principal as the primary source of educational expertise. Aimed at standardizing the practice of effective teaching, the principal’s role was to maintain high expectations for teachers and students, supervise classroom instruction, coordinate the school’s curriculum, and monitor student progress (Barth, 1986). For principals who lacked the skills to accomplish these tasks, coaching and on-site assistance were in short supply. Instructional leadership in practice fell far short of the ideal (Cuban, 1984; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987). Moreover, the hierarchical orientation of instructional leadership conflicted with the democratic and participative organization of schools that emerged in the late 1980s with school restructuring and the movement to empower teachers as professional educators (Marks & Louis, 1997). Because critics had attributed to the educational bureaucracy schools’ failure to educate effectively (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986), a fundamental restructuring initiative entailed decentralizing to schools authority over

such matters as budgets, hiring, curriculum, and instruction. When principals adopted this model fully, they shared management decisions with teachers and other constituents (Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1990).

Because teachers possessed critical information about their students and how they learn, teachers needed discretionary authority to make their own curricular and instructional decisions (Hallinger, 1992). The latitude to make such decisions would improve both teachers' work life and student achievement (Darling-Hammond & Goodwin, 1993; Maeroff, 1988). Moreover, educational reform had a greater chance of success when teachers were involved (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Conley & Goldman, 1994). Functioning in leadership capacities (e.g., site council chairs, staff developers, or lead teachers), teachers could shape the goals and cultures of their schools while retaining their ties to the classroom (Conley & Goldman, 1994). In so doing, teachers gained greater legitimacy as leaders (Little, 1988).

Transformational leadership affirmed the centrality of the principal's reform role, particularly in introducing innovation and shaping organizational culture (Conley & Goldman, 1994; Leithwood, 1994). While concentrating on renewing the organization and its personnel, however, transformational leadership lacked an explicit focus on curriculum and instruction (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1998).

To improve organizational performance (Hallinger, 1992), transformational school leaders focus on the individual and collective understandings, skills, and commitments of teachers. Transformational leaders may challenge teachers to examine their assumptions about their work and to rethink instructional processes; they may establish expectations for quality pedagogy and support teachers' professional growth (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1998; Leithwood, Leonard, & Sharratt, 1998). To our knowledge, no study has investigated

these relationships empirically. Moreover, although transformational principals can enhance student engagement in learning, studies have not shown any direct effects on student achievement (Leithwood, 1994).



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to gather data for the study. This involved the research design, population and sampling techniques, sample size, instruments used, and the procedure for data analysis. The ethical consideration as well as the reliability and validity of the research instrument used are also explained in this chapter.

3.1 Research Design

A research design gives an overall view of the method chosen and the reason for that choice. It also includes the data collection methods, instruments used for the data collection, and how data collected are analyzed (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were adopted for this study. In terms of the qualitative aspect of methodology, the case study design was adopted. The type of case study used was exploratory in nature. According to Yin (2011), an exploratory form of case study approach is employed where the questions of ‘how’ and ‘why’ ought to be addressed by the researcher. In this study, the research sought to assess ‘how’ leadership styles of the headmasters and headmistresses in the five selected study schools affected the performance of staff in those schools. Further, the study sought to find out ‘why’ certain leadership styles of the heads as leaders resulted in certain job performances on the part of the teachers.

Also, according to Yin (2011), the use of case study becomes particularly useful where one needs to understand a particular phenomenon, system or situation in great-depth (rather than for generalization purpose), and where one can identify cases

that have abundant information in respect of the phenomenon being investigated. Therefore, since the study sought to have a deeper and in-depth understanding of the actual effects of leadership styles on the job performance of high school teachers in the selected schools, the case study approach was appropriate in that regard. The information provided by the heads and teachers of the study schools, together with the other findings by the study provided the in-depth understanding required from the use of case study approach to research.

In terms of the quantitative aspect however, a survey approach that relied on the use of questionnaires was adopted. The questionnaires were distributed among the teachers of the selected schools for the needed information. The results gathered were then subjected to statistical computations using frequencies, percentages and graphs.

3.2 Population

A research population is generally a collection of individuals or objects that serve as the main focus of a scientific query (Saunders et al., 2009). It is also the entire frame from which a sample is taken to be studied extensively (Yin, 2011). The population of this study is all headmasters and headmistresses as well as all the teachers who teach in Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Since the study sought information on leadership styles of heads and its effect on the job performance of teachers, it was appropriate to gather such information from the very players who lead (headmasters/headmistresses), and whose style of leadership may impart on the job performance of the other players (teachers) in the equation. For instance, by virtue of their work experience as well as interactions with their heads, teacher-respondents may be able to easily provide information that would answer the research questions posed. The headmasters and headmistresses being part of the population would also

afford the study the opportunity to gather information regarding how teachers have been performing based on the leadership style of the heads concerned.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, there are nineteen (19) public High Schools, each with its separate head as well as a number of teachers responsible for the teaching and learning activities within the schools. Within the metropolis, four (4) of the schools are made up exclusively of male students while five (5) of the schools are also made up exclusively of female students. The remaining ten (10) schools are however made of students of mixed sexes. Also, some of the schools within the metropolis are non-denominational while others also have affiliations with certain churches and Muslim sects. The data (Table 3.1) below thus provides the characteristics of senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The number of senior high schools, gender dichotomy, number of teachers and number of students in each school within the Kumasi Metropolis as at the 2012/13 academic year are presented in Table 3.1.

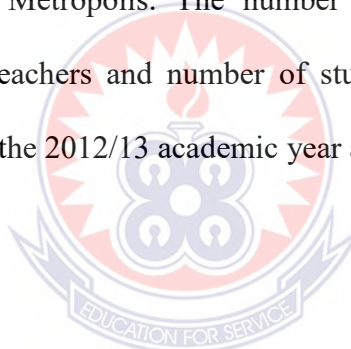


Table 3.1: Data on Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis

No	School	Gender	Student Population	Teacher Population
1	Prempeh College	Male	2,985	104
2	Opoku Ware School	Male	2,913	117
3	KNUST Senior High	Mixed	2,140	104
4	T. I. Ahmadiyya Senior High	Mixed	3,007	133
5	Anglican Senior High	Mixed	3,865	115
6	Kumasi Academy	Mixed	2,918	102
7	Kumasi High School	Male	2,427	111
8	Yaa Asantewaa Girls	Female	2,486	119
9	Kumasi Girls Senior High	Female	2,514	101
10	Serwaa Nyarko Girls School	Female	1,778	96
11	Adventist Senior High	Mixed	2,534	103
12	Asanteman Senior High	Mixed	2,170	87
13	Armed Forces Senior High	Mixed	2,124	105
14	Osei Kyerekyie Senior High	Mixed	2,924	112
15	St. Hubert Seminary	Male	655	45
16	Kumasi Senior High/Tech	Mixed	2,952	126
17	Kumasi Wesley Girls High	Female	2,627	115
18	St. Louis Girls Senior High	Female	2,021	86
19	Islamic Senior High	Mixed	1,460	71
TOTAL			46,500	1,952

Source: GES, Kumasi Metro, 2013

3.3 Sampling and Sample Size

Due to the usually large sizes of populations involved in research works, researchers often cannot test every individual in the population because it may be too expensive and time-consuming. To address this issue, researchers usually rely on sampling techniques that enable them to select some of the members or events to research on, instead of researching on the entire population (Saunders et al., 2009).

For this study, two categories of respondents were used for the two data collection techniques adopted for the research: interviews and questionnaire. For the interviews, five heads from the five selected study schools in the Kumasi Metropolis were chosen using the non-probabilistic technique of purposive sampling. This is because according to Saunders et al. (2009), the purposive sampling methodology becomes appropriate where the researcher requires information about an event, situation or phenomena and can identify a source that can provide the needed information than other sources in the same category. In this study, heads of the five selected schools were relied upon to provide information for the study. To give a fairer representation of all the category of schools found in Kumasi to be part of the study, a head in each of the exclusively boys' schools, exclusively girls' schools, mixed schools, religious denominated schools, and exclusively day schools were chosen for the study. One head each from the listed categories was selected to give in-depth details of how teachers in their schools performed due to the leadership style of the heads.

Also, in selecting teachers for the survey questions, the Slovin's sampling method (Guilford & Fruchter, 1973) was used in determining the sample size of the teachers who served as respondents for the survey. This formula is presented as; $n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$ (where n = sample size; N = sample frame; and e = margin of error/

confidence level). A teacher population from Opoku Ware School (117 teachers), St. Louis Girls Senior School (86 teachers), Kumasi Anglican Senior High (115 teachers), Asanteman Senior High (87 teachers), and Ahmadiyha Senior High (133 teachers) totaled 538 teachers in the five (5) selected schools. Using a margin of error of 5%, a sample size of 230 was thus obtained. The researcher therefore gathered information from 230 respondents in order to draw reliable conclusions in consonance with the objectives set for the study.

$$\frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{538}{1 + 538(.05)^2} = \frac{538}{2.345} = 230$$

To select the 230 teachers, the study adopted the probabilistic sampling method of simple random sampling. This technique is appropriate because, according to Saunders et al. (2009), the simple random sampling technique becomes appropriate where the study provides equal, non-bias chance to respondents to provide uniform information about a phenomenon. Since it was considered that all the staff at the schools had experienced the leadership styles of their heads, everyone could be given equal chance of providing information on how the leadership styles of their heads had affected their job performance: thus making the use of the simple random sampling method for selecting respondents for the survey appropriate.

Thus, specifically, the researcher used the proportionate simple random sampling to make sure that, the teachers selected from each school is a true representation of the entire teacher population in the school. In doing this, the lottery method to select the required number of teachers from each school. Table 3.2 gives a breakdown of the proportion from the various sampled schools.

Table 3.2: Proportionate Sample of Teachers

School	Total Teacher Population	% Selected	Sample
Opoku Ware School	117	21.7	50
St. Louis Girls SHS	86	16	37
Kumasi Anglican SHS	115	21.4	49
Asanteman Senior High	87	16.2	37
Ahmadiyha Senior High	133	24.7	57
Total	538	100	230

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

3.4 Research Instruments

Two sets of instruments (Semi-structured interview guide and questionnaire) were used in gathering data for the study. The Semi-structured interview involved using prepared, flexible, list of questions referred to as interview guide that allows for expansion and explanations beyond the questions that have been written. It was used to gather detailed information from headmasters and headmistresses of the selected schools. The interview guide was designed to elicit information such as the nature of the leadership styles the heads exhibited in the schools, as well as the specific characteristics of the leadership qualities they applied in overseeing the performance of teachers in the school. Information on the performance of teachers in their schools was also accessed through the interviews.

The questionnaire was used to gather information from all the teachers who responded to the study. It was used to gather uniform, consistent and non-bias information from the respondents. It was also used because the respondents (teachers)

were many and literate. In dealing with large numbers of respondents, questionnaires are preferred to interviews which may require a lot of time to administer.

The questionnaire was structured into three sections, A, B and C. Section A sought information on the background of the respondents. Section B sought information on the leadership styles of the heads while Section C sought information on how the leadership styles used affected teachers' performance on the job.

3.5 Reliability and Validity of Instruments

Reliability

Reliability is concerned with whether the results from a study will be repeated in a subsequent study, if the subsequent study is undertaken under the same conditions as the previous study. According to Yin (2011), the role of reliability is to minimise errors and biases in a study. The term is commonly used in relation to the question of whether the measures that are devised for arriving at conclusions in the study are consistent. This is done by ensuring the repeatability of the study such that, should a similar research be conducted using the same methodology, one becomes assured of getting a very similar result. In this study, the methodology used was appropriate while the respondents chosen were the right people who could give a better view of the subject matter being investigated. The researcher thus believes that the results of the study can be reproduced under a similar methodology. Besides, the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was computed to be .78, which suggests the internal consistency of the research instrument was high and therefore reliable.

Validity

Validity refers to the accuracy of measurements or whether an instrument correctly measures what it is supposed to measure (Yin, 2011). Conscious effort was

made to ensure validity of the instruments. The questionnaire and interview guides were peer reviewed by colleagues on the master's programme and further scrutinised by the research supervisor. Besides, the instruments were pilot study in two schools in the metropolis which had similar characteristics as the selected schools used in the main study. Based on the pilot test, the instruments were modified to help elicit the required responses in the main study.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The study utilized both primary and secondary sources to obtain the necessary data for the study. The information gathered in this regard was spanned a period of five years. This data was obtained directly from respondents through interviews and survey. The secondary source of information was obtained from selected texts, journal articles, and other publications as well as documents from schools such as teachers' attendance books, and data of students' performance (WAEC results) over the study period, i.e. 2008/2009 to 2012/ 2013 academic year.

Questionnaires and interview schedules with cover letters indicating the importance and nature of the study were distributed to the respondents. Follow ups were made to respondents to make sure that the questionnaires were filled and collected for analysis. A total of 230 questionnaires distributed to the teachers and 5 interview guides developed for selected teachers to probe further some of the issues emanating from the responses on the questionnaire for their various interview session with the researchers. The teachers returned 188 and the interview, the researcher had all the five. The return rate for the questionnaires was 81.7%.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure

Since the study adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches in gathering the data for the study, both techniques were similarly adopted in analysing the data gathered. In terms of the qualitative analyses, the responses from the interviewees were transcribed and reported in consonance with the research objectives. The themes that emerged were then discussed. The responses were then checked against the objectives of the study and the research questions to ensure compliance with the research objectives and questions. The questionnaires were also checked to ensure there were no missing data, coded and inputted into the computer and processed with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The data relating to all the research questions were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means and percentages.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

One very important consideration a researcher must not overlook is the issue of ethics in research (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The researcher in accordance with this principle took steps to make sure that respondents and any participants in this research work were not harmed in any way. The researcher avoided contacting the headmasters, headmistresses and the teachers on the blind side of the school authorities. The study thus made sure that permission was sought from the authorities in the schools and the aims and objectives of the study made known to the management as well as the respondents before the interviews. Both management and respondents were also assured of the fact that the study was only for academic purposes and not for any other use. Participants were therefore not forced but rather encouraged to voluntarily participate. Finally, the study made sure that all information gathered were kept and treated as confidential.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to analyze the data collected from the field. The chapter focuses on analyses of the data collected from the respondents: headmasters and headmistresses as well as teaching staff (TS). The analyses in this chapter place particular emphasis on the specific objectives of the study, focusing on issues such as assessment of the specific leadership styles adopted by the various heads of schools in the metropolis, the leadership roles played by head masters in the various schools, the relationship between leadership style and job performance of teachers in senior high schools, and how the leadership styles of heads of schools affect the job performance of teachers in the schools. The selection of these main issues or variables was based on the specific objectives of the study. Questionnaires were given to the teachers whilst interview guides were used to gather information from the headmasters and headmistresses.

In terms of the questionnaires, the study earmarked 230 teacher-respondents and questionnaires were distributed to the participants in the five selected schools as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Sample Distribution of Teachers by School

School	Sample		Total
	Male	Female	
Opoku Ware School	33	17	50
St. Louis Girls School	22	15	37
Kumasi Anglican School	27	21	49
Asanteman Senior High	25	12	37
Ahmadiyha Senior High	38	19	57
Total	145	84	230

Source: Field Data, 2014

This chapter provides an analysis of the data gathered from both the interviews and questionnaires. 188 questionnaires representing 81.7% were completed and returned. Afterwards all the heads from five (5) listed schools were interviewed.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

First of all, it is expedient for the demographic characteristics of the respondents to be discussed before analysing the main issues outlined in the introduction of this chapter. Saunders et al. (2009) explains that the data provided by respondents to a study is usually influenced by their background and experiences. Thus, the demographic information about the teachers who responded to the questionnaires was vital in determining the extent to which the data they provided could be depended upon. The demographic data related to their gender, age and the number of years served in the present school.

Gender of Respondents

The responses with regard to the gender of the respondents are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Gender Distribution of Teacher Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	106	56.4
Female	82	43.6
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

Table 4.2 shows the gender distribution of the respondents. It is observed that 106 teachers, representing 56.4 percent of the respondents were males while 82 teachers representing 43.6 percent were females. This observation shows that the number of male teachers in the senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis is almost twice the number of their counterpart female teachers. This observation is consistent with the observation that male teachers are more found in Secondary or high schools than female teachers while female teachers are more found at lower levels such as primary schools.

Age of Respondents

The age distribution of the respondents for the study were also taken and examined. It is important to note that, the age ranges used for gathering the data started from 18 years and ended at 60 years; as these were the legally allowed ages for a person to start work or retire from public service respectively. The results with regard to the age distribution of the respondents are presented in Table 4.3. It is the

belief that age relates to respondents level of experience and maturity and their ability to provide the relevant information.

Table 4.3: Age Distribution of Teachers

Age	Frequency	Percent
18 – 30	16	8.3
31-40	47	25.0
41-50	78	41.7
51 – 60	47	25.0
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

From the results gathered in Table 4.3, it is observed that majority of the teachers fell within the age bracket of 41 – 50 years. This category was made up of 78 teachers representing 41.7 percent of the entire respondents. This was followed by those in the age bracket of 31 – 40 years, as well as those in the 51 – 60 years bracket, both of which were made up of 47 teachers representing 25 percent of the respondents. Those in the 18 – 30 years bracket constituted the least number of respondents. This was made up of 16 teachers, which represented 8.3 percent of the entire respondents.

From the analysis, it can be argued that very few teachers in the secondary schools were below the age of 31. This may be inferred from the fact that most of the teachers in the secondary or Senior High Schools are almost 24 years, after their university education when they qualify to teach in the Senior High School. Thus, the

small percentage of those within the 18 -30 years bracket (8.3 percent) as found by the study is understandable.

4.2 Years Served at Present School

The study also sought to find out the number of years each respondent had spent in the present school. The study did not consider the number of years respondent had spent in other schools. This was because the main objective of the study was to assess the leadership style of heads in respondent's present schools, and not to confuse the gathered data with information on the leadership styles of headmasters or headmistresses in previous schools. Table 4.4 illustrates respondents' number of years at present school.

Table 4.4: Number of Years at Present School

Number of years at school	Frequency	Percent
Below 1 year	17	9.1
1 – 5 yrs	46	24.2
6 - 10 yrs	102	54.5
Above 10 yrs	23	12.2
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

From Table 4.4, it is observed that majority of the respondents had been at their present school for 6 to 10 years. This category of teachers (102) constituted 54.5 percent of the entire respondents. This was followed by those who had spent 1 to 5 years in their school, representing 24.2% of the respondents. Those who had spent less than 1 year in their schools constituted the least number of respondents, which

represented 9.1 % of the entire respondents. Having identified the demographic dynamics of the teachers-respondents involved in the study, the next section presents and discusses the data gathered from both the headmasters and teachers of the study schools as related to the research questions. These gathered data centered on leadership styles of the various heads of schools in the metropolis, leadership roles played by head in the various schools, job performance of teachers in the senior high schools, and relationship between leadership style of heads and job performance of teachers in the schools.

4.3 Analysis of the Main Data

The analysis of the main data is organized under some specific themes in relation to the research questions.

Research Question 1.

Leadership Styles of the Various Heads of Schools in the Metropolis

In assessing the leadership styles of the various heads of the study schools as a specific objective of the study, the teachers (respondents) were made to assess the leadership styles of their headmasters and headmistresses in the survey. The questionnaire for the survey consisted of a section that contained a number of questions, all of which were targeted at soliciting information on the leadership styles of the heads of schools. These information were largely centered on leadership characteristic and behaviour of the heads, sensitivity to the needs of employees, and the nature of leadership skill that were exhibited by the heads in the execution of their work. The following sections provide an account of the responses gathered in this respect.

Leadership characteristic and behavior.

Regarding the leadership characteristic and behaviour as assessed by the teachers, the results of the field survey as shown in Table 4.5 revealed a number of leadership characteristics and behaviour. For instance, 51.5% of the teachers classified their headmasters and headmistresses as being innovative while 21.1% of the respondents described their heads as aggressive. A similar 21.1 percent of the teachers also described their heads as results oriented personalities. Finally, a paltry 6.1 percent of the respondents declared their heads to be persons who are unable or avoid taking decisions. These observations are illustrated in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5: Leadership Characteristic and Behaviour

Character and Behaviour	Frequency	Percent
Innovative	97	51.5
Aggressive	40	21.2
Results oriented	40	21.2
Avoid taking critical decisions	11	6.1
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

It is very clear that the dominant leadership trait among the heads was the fact of being innovative. Being innovative on the part of leadership in organisations has been defined by Mullins (2006) to mean constantly challenging the status quo by seeking out new ideas, ways and strategies of performing tasks. Mullins (2006) further explains that there is always the likelihood for leadership in democratic settings to be questioned on their decision to deviate from norms, conventions, or statutes which have been established to regulate the performance of specific duties.

This, he observed, usually limits the innovativeness of many leaders, and thus to attempt to be an innovative leader is a decision that comes with a lot of challenges including fear of what may happen if the attempt at innovating backfires.

In corroborating the viewpoints of the teachers, a number of headmasters described themselves as innovative leaders, and in the process, provided ample evidence regarding a number of innovative programmes and projects that they had undertaken during their tenure as heads of the studied schools. For instance, one headmaster indicated that,

“Ever since I assumed office as headmaster in 2008, I have engaged the teachers in undertaking a number of innovative projects. For instance, under my leadership, we have started a readers’ club where teachers and parents come together to fund the activities of the club, aimed at improving the reading skills of certain identified weak students”

He also added that,

“The building of two additional staff bungalows, the purchasing of a truck for kitchen activities, and the furnishing of the library are all initiatives that were funded through innovative means during my tenure”

On the part of another Headmaster,

“Recent happenings within the education sector require leadership that is innovative enough to meet the exigencies of contemporary leadership demands. There are a number of activities that have gone on in my school that would not have been possible but for my innovative leadership. Examples include the institution of the novel parent-teacher interaction programme that allows parents to visit our school to interact with teachers on the performance of their wards, the institution of teachers’ motivation fund that ensures that teachers are motivated by parents to put in extra effort, and the

monthly mock exams that are written by candidates in form three in preparation for the final WAEC exam”.

Also, for 21.2 percent of the respondents to have indicated that their heads were result oriented is to imply that some of the heads have put some programmes or projects in place and were ensuring that certain desired results are yielded to the schools they lead. This observation is consistent with the observation made by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001) when they assessed the John Adair Action-Centered Leadership as put forward by John Adair where leaders who were observed to have taken steps to execute self-initiated projects to address identified problems were described as result oriented leaders. In this study, about one-fifth of the teachers revealed that their heads were result oriented judging by the efforts they had put in to ensure that projects and programmes were initiated and executed at their schools. In this respect, one headmaster commented that,

“I believe that it is the duty of every good leader to scan and identify the problems that confront his organization, and put in measures that will address such problems. Schools are no exceptions: we, as heads, must be result-oriented”.

Furthermore, from the data gathered in the survey, a few of the teachers, representing 6.1 percent, revealed that their heads avoid taking critical decisions in the running of the schools. This observation authenticates Stogdill's (1948), first survey on traits approach to leadership; where he indicates that usually, there is a percentage of leaders in every industry who have a difficulty in taking decisions as leaders of organizations in such industries. Even though Stogdill (1948) went on to ascribe reasons such as fear of failure, fear of the unknown, fear of hostile reaction from persons who may be affected by the decision, among other reasons, as the factors underpinning the reason why some leaders avoid the taking of critical decisions when

leading, this study did not seek to find out the reasons why heads some of the Senior High Schools avoided taking critical decisions from the teacher respondents.

However, when the study sought to find out, from the perspectives of the heads, the reasons why some of them were unable to take critical decisions, a number of them disagreed with the opinion of the teachers in that respect. Some ascribed patience as the reason why they hesitated to take decisions sometimes. For instance, one headmistress revealed that:

“I take decisions when I need to take them. There is also a virtue in being patient at certain times and observe how things will unfold naturally”.

Finally, the study asked the respondents for their overall view on the type of leadership characteristics and behavior that have not been touched on but, nevertheless, have to be deployed by the heads in order to ensure an optimum performance from the teaching staff. Generally, the respondents agreed that this depended on the kind of head as well as subordinates that the heads deal with. It can thus be gleaned from the responses of the respondents that characteristics such as: harsh commands, influential speaking, dominance, and participatory decision making featured commonly as the other leadership characteristics and behaviour that have the potential to influence teachers performance at the schools.

Sensitivity of the leader to employees' needs.

In consonance with the position of Conger and Kanungo (2008), the study sought to find out if the heads, as leaders, were sensitive to the needs of the teachers. This was because, according to Conger and Kanungo (2008), a leader who desire to achieve optimum performance of his employees must endeavour to find out the needs of the employees. It is when he is sensitive to the employees' needs that he can

adequately satisfy them within necessary limits for the employees to give off their best.

The result of the survey on whether the heads are sensitive to needs of the employees is shown in Figure 4.1. The chart indicates that 66.67 percent of the teacher-respondents indicated in the affirmative, while 33.33 percent of them answered in the negative. According to those who believed that the heads were sensitive to their needs (66.67 %), their leaders provided support such as transporting of staff from certain designated places to the school compound, ensured that the general welfare of staff was considered as paramount, and assisted in solving personal problems of some individual employees.

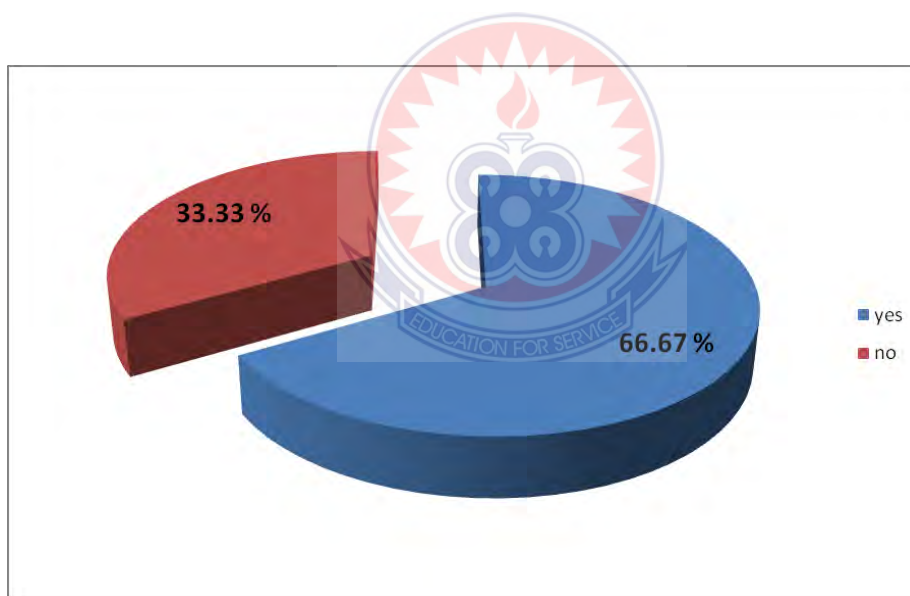


Figure 4.1: Sensitivity of the leader to employees' needs

Source: Field data, 2014

The study further sought to find out if there was a relationship between the leadership characteristics and behaviour of the heads, and of their sensitivity nature. The outcome of this relationship is shown in the table below in the form of a cross tabulation.

Table 4.6: Cross tabulation showing leadership characteristics and behaviour and sensitivity of the heads to teachers' needs

		Characteristics and behaviour of the leaders				Total
		Innovative	Aggressive	Result oriented	Avoid taking critical decisions	
Sensitivity of the leader to employees needs	Yes	65	18	27	7	127
	No	32	22	13	4	61
Total		97	40	40	11	188

Source: Field Data, 2014

From the Table 4.6, it is obvious that 97 respondents saw their heads to be innovative, 65 of them declared that the heads were sensitive to the needs of employees. Again, out of the 40 respondents who opined that their leader was result oriented one, 27 declared their head was sensitive to the needs of the teachers. It is however important to note that the survey also revealed that leaders who are aggressive show less sensitivity to the needs of employees; thus out of the 40 respondents who concluded that their leader was aggressive, 18 of them, representing less than half of them said their leader was sensitive to the needs of employs. This revelation confirms the position of House (2007) under the Path-Goal theory of leadership theory. Under the theory, House established that a sensitive leader exhibits supportive leadership style and is friendly and approachable. He or she showed concern for followers' psychological well being and was sensitive to their needs, and

that leaders who tend to be aggressive in their leadership characteristic tend to be more focused on the results than on the welfare of their staff (House, 2007). Figure 4.2 gives an illustration of the findings on the cross tabulation of leadership characteristics and behaviour and their sensitivity to the needs of their employees.

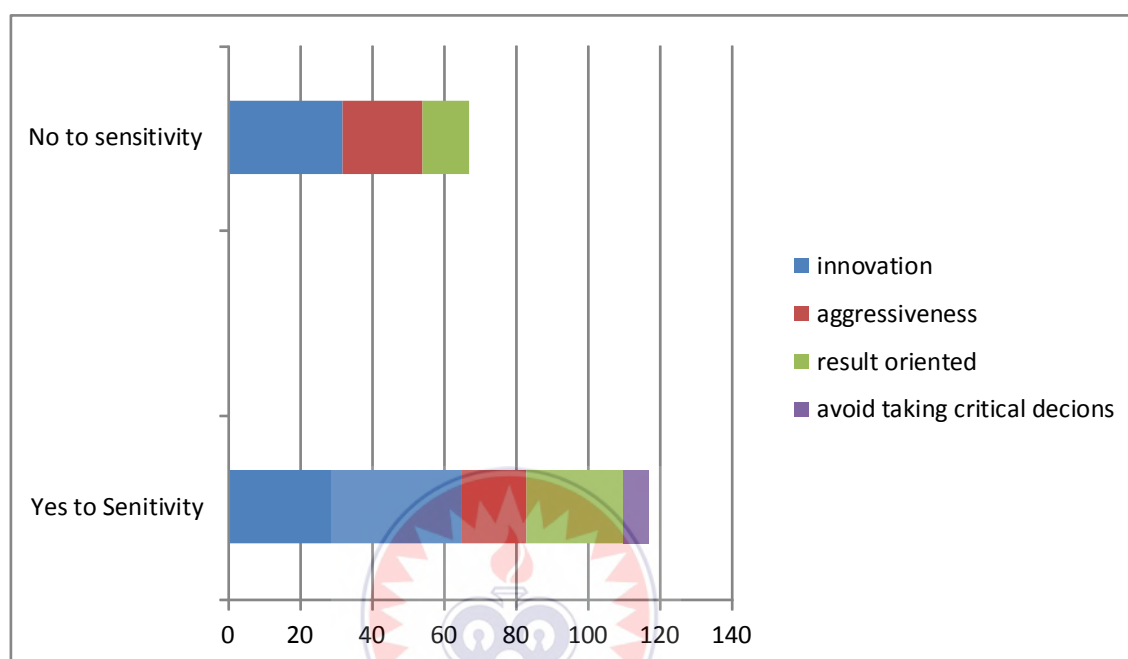


Figure 4.2: Leadership characteristics and Sensitivity of heads to teachers' needs

Source: Field Data, 2014

Leadership skills.

The study further sought to assess the leadership skills exhibited by the heads in the schools. According to the study by Conger and Kanungo (2008) on the leadership skills of selected schools in Pakistan and India, most heads of secondary schools were found to be charismatic leaders. According to their findings, a charismatic leader is the one who gathers followers through dint of personality and charm, rather than any form of external power or authority. They thus concluded that, certain behavioural characteristics were commonly found in majority of the heads in the studied schools (Conger & Kanungo, 2008).

However, Freeman (2011) also concludes that charismatic leadership skill and attitude vary from industry to industry, and sector to sector. Table 4.7 shows the variations in the leadership skills in Senior High Schools within the Kumasi Metropolis as declared by the teacher respondents.

Table 4.7: Leadership skills of Heads

Skills	Frequency	Percent
Persuasive speaker	70	37.0
Good listener	62	33.3
Firm	16	8.3
Good organiser and commander	40	21.4
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

From Table 4.7, it is observed that majority of the teachers saw their heads to be persuasive. This was evident in the 37 percent of the respondents who declared their heads to be persuasive. It was also revealed from the interviews that some of the heads assessed themselves as having the ability to persuade and influence the followers to a greater extent. Thus, Conger and Kanungo's (2008) assertion that a leader who is charismatic is evidenced by his or her ability to share his or her vision, persuasive when communicating, firm, good listener, trustworthy, and a good organiser and commander is also confirmed by the results from this study.

Research Question 2.

Leadership roles of head in schools.

There are many dimensions to leadership and many possible influences a leader can exert in ensuring that he or she achieves the desired results for his organisation. According to Mullins (2006) and Rollinson (2002), the way this role is played thus ensures the effectiveness of the leader. This study thus sought to investigate how such leadership roles are played by the various heads of the studied schools. The data gathered in this respect were done along the lines of areas where the influence of the heads has been effective, whether heads are able to motivate subordinates well enough to achieve the desired results, and the extent to which the heads involve their teachers in their decision making processes.

Areas where the influence of the heads has been effective

A number of useful determinants are used by scholars and researchers to assess the influence of heads of schools in the performance of duties of their subordinates. These determinants have been severally listed, with slight modifications, by a number of researchers including Stodgill and Mullins. Owing to the nature of the setting of this study (educational environment), this study adopts similar determinants as adopted from Mullins (2006) and used by Conger and Kanungo (2008) in their study of the influence of leadership style on the performance of teachers in selected second cycle institutions in India and Pakistan. These determinants are attendance to work, improvement in school environment, making resources available, and interpersonal relationship between leader and employees. The respondents were required to indicate, in their opinion, the areas where the influence of the heads has been very effective. The result from an analysis of the gathered data in this respect is presented in the Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Areas where Influence of Heads has been very Effective

Areas	Frequency	Percent
Attendance to work	78	41.7
Improvement in school environment	16	8.3
Interpersonal relationship between head and teachers	94	50.0
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

Table 4.8 illustrates that 50 percent of the respondents, representing 94 teachers declared that the area where the influence of the heads had been very effective was 'interpersonal relationship between the head and the teachers'. While 41.7 percent representing 78 teachers also declared that their head had been very effective in 'attendance to work', 8.3 percent representing 16 teachers indicated that the area where their head had been very effective is 'improvement in school environment'. Surprisingly, none of the respondents selected the variable 'making resources available', and thus, consequently, that variable was not illustrated on the table. This raises the question of whether there have been some monetary issues within the studied schools.

Also, from the interviews, it was discovered that there was a high degree of interpersonal relationship between the heads and their teachers. This observation was succinctly declared by the Asanteman headmaster that,

“Leadership is all about one's ability to influence people to move to a certain direction, and therefore if interpersonal relationship is missing, then there is no leadership”.

One of the headmistresses also corroborated the significance of interpersonal relationship with their teachers and further stated that,

“I rank the importance of interpersonal relationship in my establishment at 90% on a scale of 100. I must quickly add, however, that some of my staff are natural introverts while others also draw themselves away from leadership for reasons best known to them”.

It is however, important to note that the concept of interpersonal relationship of leaders for success hinges on certain important factors. Thus, in consonance with the assertion on interpersonal relationship, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), were of the opinion that the success or otherwise of teacher leadership within a school can be influenced by a number of interpersonal factors, including relationships with other teachers and school management.

Leadership and Motivation in Senior High Schools

Steven and Glinow (2000) observed that "leadership involves influencing people and providing an environment for them to achieve team or organizational objectives". Thus, if a leader inspires followers to put aside their personal goals and aspirations in favour of the overall vision of the organisation, then the leader is offering a form of motivation (Mullins, 2006). Therefore, pursuant to assessing the role of leadership styles of heads and how it may impact on teachers' performance, the study sought to find out the relationships between leadership and motivation in the studied schools.

In assessing motivation the study notes that the ability to empower subordinates stems from one's ability to inspire and motivate the subordinates (Mullins, 2006). To Mullins (2006), the underlying concept of motivation is some driving force within individuals by which they attempt to achieve some goals in order to fulfill some needs or expectations. People's behaviour is determined by what motivates them: their performance is thus a product of both ability level and motivation (Mullins, 2006). This study therefore sought to find out whether the teachers feel inspired and motivated by their heads. To do

this, the teachers were asked to indicate whether they feel inspired and motivated to perform optimally or not. Table 4.9 presents an illustration of the responses.

Table 4.9: Ability of Heads to Inspire and Motivate Teachers

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	141	75.0
No	47	25.0
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

From the table, 141 respondents representing 75 percent of the teachers answered 'yes' to the question, "Does your head inspire and motivate teachers in your school?", while 47 of the teachers representing 25 percent responded 'no' to the question. One can therefore infer that majority of the heads in the studied schools had the ability to inspire and motivate their teachers to perform optimally.

Also from the interviews, it was revealed by the heads that they had been doing everything possible to ensure that the teachers were inspired and motivated to perform. For instance, one of the headmasters commented on the need to motivate his subordinates, declaring that,

“A number of motivational packages have been instituted to ensure that the teachers give off their best without second thoughts. These packages are spread across evenly to ensure that there are no disagreements which in itself can also mar the motivation to perform”.

On the part of the St. Louis headmistress, she declared that,

“It is about time that the issue of non-monetary motivation was seriously considered in our schools. Non-monetary motivation can even include smiling at a teacher who is doing well, provision of decent accommodation to staff, and rescheduling of time tables to

enable those staff who are pursuing post-graduate programmes the flexibility of combining teaching with schooling”.

The study went further to ascertain the levels at which heads of schools, in the opinion of the respondents, inspire and motivate the teachers in the studied schools. To do this, the teachers were asked to rate how their heads inspire and motivate them. The result is presented in the table below.

Table 4.10: Rating of Heads' Ability to Inspire and Motivate

Ratings	Frequency	Percent
Above 80%	32	16.7
70-79%	16	8.3
60-69%	62	33.3
50-59%	62	33.3
Below 50%	16	8.3
Total	188	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2014

Table 4.10 shows that 16.7 percent representing 32 respondents rated the leader's ability to inspire and motivate staff as 80 percent and above. Also, 8.3 percent of the respondents, represented by 16 teachers rated their heads' ability to inspire and motivate them to give off their best to be between 70 – 79 percent, while 62 teachers (33 percent) rated the ability of their heads to inspire and motivate them between 60 and 69 percent. A similar 33.3 percent, representing 62 teachers also rated the ability of their heads to inspire and motivate them to perform to be between 50 and 59 percent. Finally, less than 10

percent, precisely 8.3 percent of the respondents declared that their heads ability to inspire and motivate them to work rates less than 50 percent.

In essence, over 90 percent of the teachers declared that the heads of the studied schools had been able to inspire and motivate them to perform at their optimum. The study can thus conclude that the type of leadership style adopted by the heads in the studied schools ensures that the teachers are inspired and motivated to perform. Having established that the teachers were adequately inspired and motivated to perform, the next section sought to find out the extent to which the leadership style of the heads allowed for the involvement of the teachers in making critical decisions at the schools.

Involvement of Teachers by their Heads in taking Decisions

From the interviews, the heads were asked about whether they had been involving their teachers in their decision making processes. Also an item in the teachers' survey on the same subject matter sought to find out whether the teachers had been involved in the decision making process by their heads. The study went further to evaluate the extent to which the teachers were involved by their heads in the decision making processes. This was necessary because according to Mullins (2006), even though some leaders may appear to be involving the employees in decision making, such acts are only limited to the peripheries of the decision making. The decisions on the very fundamental issues are mostly preserved for very senior members of organisations such as the Board of Directors, Governing Council or an Executive Body. Most middle and lower ranked officers are left out. Thus this study asked the teachers to rate, from their own perspective and experience, and in percentage terms, the extent to which they had been involved in taking critical decisions of the school. Their responses are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Involvement of teachers by their heads in decision-making

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	170	89
No	18	11
Total	188	100

Source: Field Data, 2014.

First of all, the Table 4.11 shows that majority of the respondents (89 percent) representing 170 respondents declared that their heads had been involving them in the decision making process. The position of the remaining 18 teachers, representing 11 percent who revealed that their heads do not involve them in the decision making process is somewhat corroborated by one of the headmasters, who declared that,

“I involve various persons at various levels of the hierarchy of authority based on the subject matter being discussed, the exigency of the matter, and the time within which a certain decision ought to be taken for an emergency action to follow. I do not think the activities of the school can be carried out effectively if all manner of decisions have to involve taking the opinions of all the staff in this school”.

Again, the fact that there was variation in the responses of the teachers when it came to the extent to which they were involved in the decision making process, as illustrated in Table 4.9, confirms the position of the 11 percent who denied the involvement of teachers in the decision making processes. Perhaps, this may be stemming from the fact that they consider peripheral involvement as ‘no involvement’ at all. Table 4.9 shows that out of the 188 respondents, 33.3 percent representing 62 teachers declared their involvement as 80 % and above; while 41.7 percent, representing 78 respondents also declared the extent to which they take part in critical decisions affecting the school as rated between 50 % and 79 %. The remaining 25 percent, representing 48 teachers could

thus be classified as teachers who interpreted their extent of involvement in their heads decision making to be below 50 percent. The table below illustrates this observation.

Table4.12: Rating of Involvement of Teachers in Decisions

Ratings	Frequency	Percent
Above 80 %	62	33.3
(70 – 79) %	52	27.4
(60 – 69) %	18	10.2
(50 – 59) %	8	4.1
Below 50%	48	25.0
Total	188	100

Source: Field Data, 2014

The results from the interviews of the heads also corroborated the position of the teachers that the heads actually involved teachers in most of the decisions taken at the schools. For instance, the heads were unanimous in declaring that they had been involving their subordinates in taking decisions. Some intimated that they had been doing so through formation of committees where the teachers were fully represented. Some had also been delegating power, while others revealed that they did wide consultations, all in a bid to avoid taking unilateral decisions.

These observations by the study is strongly in consonance with Mullins (2006) and Rollinson's (2002) outlook of democratic style of leadership which sees the focus of power more with the group. Here, the leadership functions are shared with members of the group and the manager is more part of a team. The group members have a greater say in decision-making, determination of policy, implementation of systems and procedures. Democratic leaders involved followers in decisions and delegate much more responsibility

to the group. This, they both argue, lead to higher-quality decisions, a much stronger team spirit, commitment to implementing decisions and satisfaction among followers (Mullins, 2006, Rollinson, 2002). The study can thus conclude from the analyses of the gathered data that majority of the heads in the studied school operated as democratic leaders.

Research Question 3.

Teachers' performance in the various Senior High Schools

Another objective of the study was to assess the performance of the teachers in the studied schools. The study, however, noted that there were several ways of evaluating the performance of teachers in the schools. As gleaned from literature, there are a number of indicators that show whether a teacher was performing optimally in his school or not (Byars & Rue, 1994; Mullins, 2005; McNamara, 2007). The literature also provides a number of methods in assessing these performance indicators to determine the performance of a teacher in his or her school. These assessment methods include: assessment by students; assessment by other teachers, popularly referred to as peer assessments; self evaluation; assessment by employers; assessment by heads of institutions; and assessment by alumni (old students of the school). After considering the advantages and disadvantages of each system as well as time and financial constraints associated with each method, the study decided to adopt the 'self evaluation' approach. Consequently, the study used the opinions of the teachers in evaluating their own performance based on certain predetermined indicators.

To do this effectively, the performance indicators that literature has identified as a measure of optimal performance of teachers in second cycle institutions (Senior High Schools) were assessed. In this respect, results of studies by Byars and Rue (1994), Mullins (2005), and McNamara (2007) when put together, showed a list of the seven (7)

indicators that measured optimal performance of teachers in second cycle institutions in North American and Australia respectively. These seven (7) performance indicators are: demonstrates knowledge of content, demonstrates professional leadership, designs and plans instructions, creates and maintains learning climate, implements and manages instruction, assesses and communicates, and evaluates teaching and learning process. The study therefore used these indicators to determine whether the teachers in the studied schools had been performing optimally or not. Thus, the respondents were asked to consider each of the seven (7) indicators and personally assess how they had been faring in terms of each indicator.

The teachers were thus asked to rank their performance in each of the 7 listed indicators. The study used the five-point Likert rating scale in the ranking. The ranking was done as illustrated below:

1 – Very low: Where a teacher is of the opinion that his or her performance in a particular indicator is very low, he or she was required to indicate it as 1.

2 – Low: Where a teacher is of the opinion that his or her performance in a particular indicator is low, he or she was required to indicate it as 2.

3 - Not sure: Where a teacher was uncertain as to whether his or her performance in a particular indicator is low or not, he or she was required to rank it as 3. The number 3 thus signified a position of neutrality.

4 –High: Where a teacher is of the opinion that his or her performance in a particular indicator is high, he or she was required to indicate it as 4.

5 – Very high: Where a teacher is of the opinion that his or her performance in a particular indicator is very high, he or she was required to indicate it as 5.

The mean scores for the listed indicators of optimum performance were then calculated. Thus, on a scale of 1 to 5, a mean score of less than 3 for a particular

performance indicator meant that, relatively, the teachers did not consider themselves as having performed well when it comes to that indicator. On the other hand, a mean score greater than $\underline{3}$ for a particular indicator meant that the teachers considered themselves as having performed well when it comes to that indicator. Hence, on a scale of $\underline{1}$ to $\underline{5}$, the closer the mean score of a particular indicator is to $\underline{1}$, the lower the performance of the teachers in that indicator. Conversely, the closer the mean score of a particular indicator is to $\underline{5}$, the greater the performance of the teachers in that particular indicator. The mean scores from the data are thus illustrated in Table 4.13.

Furthermore, the respondents were asked to indicate whether per their total output in their schools, they could conclude that they have been performing optimally or not. They were required to aggregate all their experiences together and answer a \underline{yes} or \underline{no} to whether they have been performing to their very best or not. Those who recognise that they have been performing to their very best were to rank their opinion as $\underline{1}$, while those who contend that they could do bit more than they are doing presently were to rank their opinion as $\underline{0}$. A binary regression was then run on the responses gathered from the teachers. The output in this respect is also contained in Table 4.13

Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Optimum Performance and its**Indicators**

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.
Optimum performance	188	.67713	.4686254
Demonstrates knowledge of content	188	3.95067	.6453486
Demonstrates professional leadership	188	3.76516	1.005082
Designs and plans instructions	188	3.53991	.8353529
Creates and maintains learning climate	188	3.63228	.8324704
Implements and manages instructions	188	3.56306	1.017087
Assesses and communicates	188	3.62991	1.187235
Evaluates teaching and learning process	188	2.93722	1.206441

Source: Field data, 2014

From Table 4.13, the mean score for whether or not the teachers were performing optimally was given as 0.67713. This average of 0.67713 implies that 67.73 percent of the teachers in the studied schools declared that they had been performing at their very best. On the other hand, the output in the table also shows how the teachers had been performing in each of the indicators. As illustrated earlier, the value 3 served as the neutral point. Thus, from the output, it was observed that apart from evaluates teaching and learning process which had a mean score of 2.9; that was less than 3.0, the mean score of each of the remaining indicators was above 3.0. This observation meant that the teachers in the studied schools performed optimally in all the remaining six performance indicators that were posed to them in the questionnaire. For instance, the results showed that demonstrates knowledge of content had a mean score of 3.95 which was greater than 3. This meant that the teachers performed well in school by demonstrating that they understood the content which they were teaching in their schools. The mean score of

‘demonstrates knowledge of content’ was also seen as the highest mean score among the listed performance indicators. This was followed by their ability to demonstrate professional leadership in their schools as the next area of performance where the teachers had been doing very well, with a mean score of 3.76. The teachers had also been performing well in terms of creating and maintaining a learning climate in their schools (3.63). Their least area of performance was their evaluation of the teaching and learning process, where it was shown that the teachers had not been performing well (with a mean score of 2.94). This implied that in the opinion of the teachers, they had not been doing well when it comes to evaluation of their teaching and learning processes.

Research Question 4.

4.5: Relationship between the leadership style of heads and performance of teachers

The path-goal theory recognizes that performance can depend on leadership style. In pursuit of the last objective of the study, the study sought to assess the relationship that existed between the leadership style exhibited by the heads and the performance put up by the teachers in the studied schools. Firstly, the teachers were asked to indicate a ‘yes’ or ‘no’, whether their performance was influenced by the leadership style of their heads. The table below shows the responses for the teachers.

Table 4.14: Performance of Teachers Attributed to Leadership Style of Heads

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	126	67
No	62	33
Total	188	100

Source: Field data, 2014

From Table 4.14, it is observed that 126 teachers representing 67 percent of the respondents indicated that their performance was attributed to the leadership style of their heads while 62 of the teachers representing 33 percent, on the other hand, also declared that their performance was not attributed to the leadership style of their heads. Hence, from the results of the gathered data, the study can conclude that there was a relationship between the leadership style of the heads and the performance put up by teachers. The study went further to determine whether this relationship between the leadership style and the teachers' performance was significant. To do this, the Pearson Chi-Square test was done to determine the relationship between the two variables. The result of the tests is displayed in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Correlation between Teachers' Performance and Attribution of Performance to Heads' Leadership Style

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.500 ^a	3	.682
Likelihood Ratio	2.093	3	.553
Linear-by-Linear	.066		
Association		1	.797
N of Valid Cases	188		

Source: Field data, 2014

Thus, from the Pearson Chi-Square test ($P > 0.1$), the study established that there was a significant relationship (0.682) between the teachers' performance in the schools and the leadership styles of the heads. The value also meant that there was a direct relationship between the leadership style and the kind of performance that it induces from the teachers.

Thus, overall, it could be inferred that the teachers at the schools had been performing well; and that leadership had a significant influence on the performance of the teachers.

The heads were also interviewed to gather more information for an assessment of the relationship between their style of leadership and the performance that such leadership induces from the teachers. Generally, the heads concluded that the kind of leadership style they portrayed had a bearing on the kind of performance that their teachers put up in school. Majority of the heads opined that if they are disciplined, punctual, and exhibit good interpersonal relationship with the teachers, then the teachers will similarly exhibit optimum performance in their duties. A number of reasoning went into these conclusions drawn by the heads. For instance, one of the headmasters declared that,

“One of the key attributes of a good leader is to operate an open door policy where staff can walk in to discuss issues without fear of being rejected. I believe that when you do that, the teachers are also willing and motivated to give off their best of performances. Indeed, our leadership style plays a critical role in their performance as staff”.

Another headmaster also explained that,

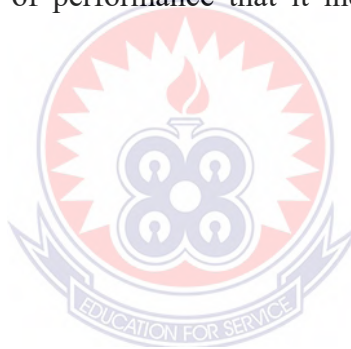
“I believe that there is no one leadership style that ought to be adopted by a headmaster to influence desired performance from staff. It is rather the situation and the persons involved that should prompt the style to adopt. For me, I am result oriented and focus much on the approach I need to adopt to arrive at the desired results”.

This observation is further buttressed by the remarks of one headmasters that,

“The teachers come from diverse academic, religious, ethnic and social backgrounds - and that it would be suicidal for a leader to adapt to a particular leadership style ad infinitum. For me, the best leadership style that could really improve performance at the schools is 'a mixture of styles' - a mixture of being among the employees, and telling them what they ought to do in order to improve upon performance; and sometimes putting one's

feet down against any employee's personal philosophy that is not in consonance with the overall philosophies of the school”.

These assertions buttress the position of the contingency and situational theories of leadership that say that a leader should choose the right style to match the situation. The situational theory of leadership begins with the assumption that there are no traits and behaviours that automatically constitute effective leadership. Hence to be effective, the leader's style must fit the situation. This study can therefore conclude from the narration by the heads that they often adopted the most appropriate leadership style that could induce the desired performance from the teaching staff. There was enough evidence from the data gathered to show that there was a positive relationship between whichever style a leader adopted and the kind of performance that it induced in the subordinates at the schools.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The main focus of this chapter is to summarize the main findings of the study; as well as draw conclusions and provide recommendations to address the findings made. The primary aim of this study has been an attempt to assess leadership style of heads of Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis, and their effects on the performance of the teaching staff.

5.1 Summary of Key Findings

The study found out that there was no specific leadership style that really has the ability to influence employees' performance in general; and that leadership style should be based on the situation on the ground. Thus, the study found out that a number of the heads have been acting based on the situation at hand. In this sense, it was revealed that a leader could be democratic, authoritative or laissez faire depending on the situation at hand. In terms of handling issues, the study revealed that majority of the teacher saw their heads to be innovative (51.5%), aggressive (21.2 %), and result oriented (21.2). the study revealed that very few of the teachers saw their heads to have the ability to take hard decisions. Furthermore, regarding the leadership skills exhibited by the heads in the studied schools, majority of the teachers declared their heads to be persuasive speakers (37.0 %), good listeners (33.3 %), and good organiser and commander (21.4%). A few of the teachers (8.3%) however saw their heads to be firm.

In terms of the leadership role played by the heads in the schools, the study sought to identify roles through which heads are able to exert influence on the performance of the teaching staff. To assess this effectively, the study, focused on

areas where the influence of the heads has been effective, whether heads are able to motivate subordinates well enough to achieve the desired results, and the extent to which the heads involve their teachers in their decision making processes. In these respects, it was found out that the heads have been very effective in building inter personal relationships with the teaching staff: and that it was based on these relationships that the heads are able induce optimum performance from the teachers. It was also found that majority of the teachers (75 %) declared that their heads have been motivating them to perform to their very best. Finally, the study found that the heads have been involving the teaching staff in taking critical decisions that affect the school. It was, thus, found that 89 percent of the teaching staff have been involved by their heads in decision making at their schools.

The study also made some findings in terms of the performance of teachers in the studied schools. The study found out, that out of the seven predetermined indicators of performance used in assessing the teachers' performance, it came out that the teachers ranked demonstration of knowledge of content as the area in which they performed best at school. This was followed by demonstration of professional leadership and then creation and maintenance of learning climates in schools.

Finally, the study sought to examine whether there was a relationship between leadership style and performance of the teachers. The analysis of the results gathered showed that there was a significant positive relationship between leadership style and performance of the teaching staff. However, the study found out that even though a positive relationship existed between leadership style and performance, this was not limited to one particular style of leadership but rather, varying forms of leadership styles.

5.2 Conclusions

From the objectives of the study and the subsequent findings made, the study can now draw some useful conclusions. First of all, it can be concluded that the leadership styles observed on the field point to the fact that leadership is not static but evolves with time. Hence, an approach to solving an issue that proved relevant on a given day may not be appropriate on a different day. To remain relevant to organizational goals and objectives, applicable leadership styles ought to be contingent on the situation at hand.

From the findings of the study, it can also be concluded that various roles played by heads of secondary schools such as execution of projects and programmes involves the contributions of staff in the eventual decision made. Such contributions come in the form of committee discussions, delegated functions and normal consultations by the heads. Thus, various skills are used by the heads to play their vital roles. It can again be concluded that skills used at particular times depends on the situation at hand.

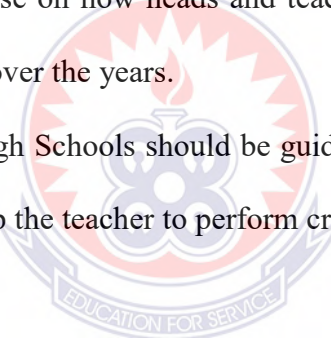
In terms of performance of the teachers, the study can conclude that the leadership styles adopted by the heads have resulted in optimum performance of the teachers. This is seen in the various indicators of performance where respondents recorded relatively greater outputs. The fact that the teachers' performance was lower in only one out of the seven indicators show that the teachers in the studied schools were performing creditably.

Finally, it can be concluded that the positive relationship found to exist between leadership style and teachers' performance is synonymous with the conclusion of a number of studies: appropriate leadership therefore leads to optimum and desirable performance.

5.3 Recommendations

In consonance with a number of findings and observations made, the study proffers some recommendations to address these findings and observations.

- First of all, the study recommends that leadership seminars and workshops organized by the District Education Office be made a regular feature on the calendar of in service training for Heads of Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.
- Also, it is recommended that performance appraisal should be conducted for Senior High School heads and their teachers in a regular fashion, and the results used to build a data base on how heads and teachers of each Senior High School have been performing over the years.
- All heads of Senior High Schools should be guided by the laid down principles of leadership styles to help the teacher to perform creditably.



5.4 Areas for Further Research

- This study suggests further study in the area of the leadership style of Heads of Departments and its effect on the performance of teachers in such departments.
- There is also the need for a study to be conducted to ascertain the kind of effect that leadership styles of heads of schools have on the performance of students in Kumasi schools.
- This is because in the context of education delivery, the performance of the students is as important as the performance of the teachers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

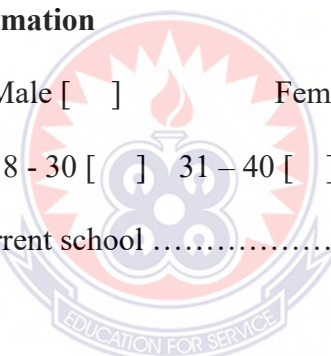
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is to help the researcher to collect data on leadership styles of heads of senior high schools and it is purely for academic purpose thus, your responses and comments will be treated with absolute confidentiality. You are therefore kindly requested to provide sincere and objective responses to the questions. Any information provided will be treated confidential.

Section A: Background Information

1. Sex Male [] Female []
2. Age 18 - 30 [] 31 – 40 [] 41 - 50 [] 51 – 60 []
3. Years of working at current school



Section B: Leadership styles of heads

The following are the characteristics of various leadership styles, tick [√] where applicable.

KEY: 1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
My headmaster.....					
let the staff members know what is expected of them					
allow the teachers a high degree of initiative and creativity in their work					

is concerned with the interest and welfare of the teachers while making decisions					
considers the ideas/suggestions of teachers while making a decision					
permit the staff members to use their own judgements					
try my ideas in the group					
encourage interpersonal relationship					
allow the teachers to go about their work the way they want					
decide what shall be done and how it shall be done					
assign a task, then let the members handle it					
organise for my staff to attend workshops and seminars					
is accommodative of other teachers' opinions					
give advance notice of changes					
schedule the work to be done					
is willing to make changes					
is reluctant to explain my actions					
act without consulting the group					
urge the group to beat its past target					
allow the group to set its own pace					

Section C: Leadership roles of heads

The following are the various leadership roles, tick [√] where applicable.

KEY: 1. Disagree 2. Not Sure 3. Agree

Statement	1	2	3
Ensures the delivery of quality education service to students			
Provide ongoing support to all teachers in order to ensure that the overall academic objectives are achieved for each student			
Manages the implementation of teaching, support programmes including counseling, curriculum enrichment etc			
Manages the impact of teaching and learning within the classroom			
Facilitates, along with the Assistant head teachers, the use of a variety of strategies to monitor and evaluate students' performance			
Supports continuing professional development programmes of teachers			
Encourages teachers' mutual support and cooperation to improve their practice			
Assesses the training needs of school staff and manages their performance and behaviour			
Implements appropriate models for instructional supervision and ensures the development of overall performance of the school through linkages with relevant stakeholders			

Communicates and collaborates effectively with the community including the SMC, PTA etc			
Supports principles and practices of school quality assurance and ensures appropriate school budgeting, financial management etc.			

Section D: Performance of assigned roles of teachers

Rate your performance by ticking [√] where applicable.

KEY: 1. Poor 2. Satisfactory 3. Good 4. Very Good 5. Excellent

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Optimum performance					
Demonstrates knowledge of content					
Demonstrates professional leadership					
Designs and plans instructions					
Creates and maintains learning climate					
Implements and manages instructions					
Assesses and communicates					
Evaluates teaching and learning process					

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADS

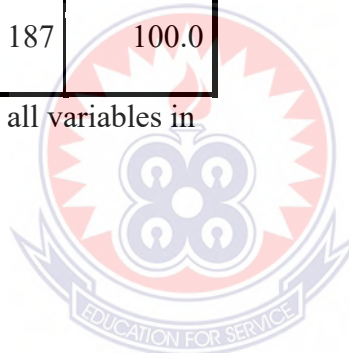
1. What is your general view of leadership styles?
2. What are the various ways you handle your staff?
3. What is your leadership style?
4. Why do you think that is your leadership style?
5. What roles do you perform as the head of this school?
6. Is there any relationship between your style of leadership and the performance of your staff?



APPENDIX C**Reliability****Scale: ALL VARIABLES****Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	188	99.3
	Excluded ^a	1	.7
	Total	187	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.779	54