

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

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**LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HEADTEACHERS AND PUPILS' ACADEMIC
PERFORMANCE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORTHERN GHANA**

ERIC DUORINAAH



2020

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BY

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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



**THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND
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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTORATE OF PHILOSOPHY IN
SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION**

SEPTEMBER, 2020

DECLARATION

Student

I, Eric Duorinaah, declare that this thesis is the outcome of my own effort guided by my supervisors. It has not been presented anywhere as a whole or in part for award of a degree. All references have also been duly acknowledged.

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We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation/thesis was supervised per the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

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ABSTRACT

Schools would become effective in reaching their vision of improved learner academic performance if their systems prioritize and consider the importance of school leadership. This thesis sought to examine the leadership styles of Headteachers and how these contribute to pupils' academic performance in Basic Education Certificate Examination in selected Junior High Schools in Northern Ghana. Through a mixed method design, the study covered 42 Junior High Schools and 384 respondents. Data was collected and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Themes and testimonies from interviews were strengthened by t-test and ordinary least squares. The study revealed that some Headteachers employed a blend of participatory leadership styles, transformational, transactional and servant leadership styles which were more participatory while others centred everything on themselves and were less consultative in their approaches. Pupils achieved higher scores in BECE under Headteachers who employed participatory leadership styles than those who were less consultative and rigid. The study also revealed that Headteachers perform in predominantly rural context characterized by inadequate school inputs and very limited professional development support. Some Headteachers also encountered certain difficulties such as role ambiguity, interference from superior officers, inaccessibility of schools and lack of support from stakeholders which combined to make their work difficult. More in-service training on school leadership should be offered to Headteachers. Ghana Education Service should adequately resource schools, increase supervision and mentorship and put mechanisms in place to prevent senior officers from undue interference in the work of Headteachers. Successes in the provision of infrastructure and policies are clear demonstration that with increased commitment to improving school leadership Ghana can achieve her vision of quality education for all its citizens.

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While taking absolute responsibility for shortcomings (if any), credit should go to those I have acknowledged in the work and all authors whose work I read and assisted me in finalizing this thesis.



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my daughter, Leah Mwinyella Duorinaah.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADs	Assistant Directors
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
CS	Circuit Supervisors
DDE	District Directors of Education
EDMAT	Education and Management Training
EMIS	Education Management Information System
GEQAF	General Education Quality Analysis Framework
GES	Ghana Education Service
GPA	Grade Point Average
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
JHS	Junior High School
KG	Kindergarten
KVIP	Kumasi Ventilated Improved Pit
LDQ	Leadership Dimension Questionnaire
MLB	Manager's Leadership Behaviours
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MOE	Ministry of Education
NEA	National Education Assessment
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
PIMRS	Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale
PTA	Parent-Teacher Associations



SEA	School Education Assessment
SMC	School Management Committee
SPIP	School Performance Improvement Plan
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SQ km	Square Kilometers
T&T	Travel and Transportation
TIMSS	Trends in International Math and Science Study
TLMs	Teaching and Learning Materials
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
USA	United States of America
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas
WAEC	West African Examination Council
WASSCE	West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination



CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

Formal education for all children is considered the most effective investment in poverty reduction and sustainable growth (UNESCO, 2017). Countries strive to ensure that all people have access to quality education. In spite of this effort, vast differences exist in literacy levels and universal access to education in different education systems. For instance, literacy rate reached 86% in 2017, however over 750 million adults, largely Africans, still lack basic reading and writing abilities (UNESCO, 2017).

In their quest to improve student performance, education systems across countries often face many challenges. Factors such as leadership, management practices, availability of school inputs, accessibility of school infrastructure, gender responsiveness or otherwise of the school environment, school curriculum, education policies, funding and other socio-economic happenings in the wider environment combine to thwart access to quality education across the world. At the macro level, global development policies and priorities, economic conditions, peace

and security all contribute to the quality of education that children receive. School leadership has, particularly, been identified by many researchers as being central to the provision of quality education (Menon, 2011; Shortbridge, 2015; Suleiman, 2015). Barber, Clark and Whelan (2010) posit that apart from classroom teaching nothing influences school standards more than the quality of school managers as majority of struggling schools across the United Kingdom were found to have poor leadership and the vice versa.

To improve on the quality and accessibility of education in order to transform the lives of citizens and empower them to meet today's challenges, countries across the globe have devised



various ways of ensuring effective teaching and learning at all levels of education. For instance, a child between the ages of 0-4 is already qualified to begin to access formal education (OECD, 2011), beginning with early childhood education, through primary school, secondary school, post-secondary level and to the tertiary level. At any of these levels, pupils are introduced to a set of skills and knowledge that commensurate with their ages. In terms of institutional structures, larger Ministries, Councils and Board of Directors and agencies that are in charge of formulating and implementing educational policies, the actual implementation is done by teachers in the classroom under the supervision of their Headteachers (Hallinger and Murphy (1986 cited in Menon, 2011).

Nuchie and Moonman (2008) found out that the conditions of teachers' working life are affected by the administration and leadership provided by Headteachers and this further affects their performance and effectiveness which in turn affect the academic achievement of pupils. Headteachers in Europe and America are continuously challenged to not only serve as managers but also to display effective leadership skills which are very crucial in achieving the goal of equipping young people with skills, knowledge and capabilities that are needed in this dynamic global universe of ours (OECD, 2011).



Many educational systems of many states in Africa have been modelled after the European standard which is of course the internationally accepted standard (Peeraer, 2015). For example, Rwanda has a system of education which provides two years of pre-primary school, six years of primary school, three years of junior high school (JHS), three years of senior high school (SHS) and four years of tertiary education. From the pre-primary to secondary school, the immediate leadership of the teachers, pupils and school properties is done by the Headteachers. Day et al. (2009) found out that Rwanda places high emphasis on the effectiveness of Headteachers because they have significant impact on pupils' academic performance. Headteachers are, among other things, to facilitate

teachers' access to updated information through regular in-service training, provide ICT facilities for both pupils and teachers, provide favourable facilities for in-school conflict management and link the school to the outside community (Peeraer et al., 2015). The education policy makers believe that if a Headteacher is able to perform these effectively, it will provide a congenial environment for teaching and learning activities to take place thus improving pupils' academic performance (Day et al., 2009).

The commitment of the government to improving the effectiveness of Headteachers shows how valuable the role of a Headteacher is to the Rwandan government. In 2013, the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the UK Department for International Development (DFID) trained Headteachers in various dimension of leadership such as budgeting, coordinating, enriching the curriculum and managing staff-pupils' relationship.

In South Africa, the racially stratified system of education was replaced by a more unified system in 1996 by the passage into bill of the South African Schools Act (SASA) (Bush and Glover, 2010). SASA focused considerably on school leadership and management by recognising the contribution of Headteachers to developing a fully functional system which would improve teaching and

learning and consequently learner outcomes. By the year 2007, it became compulsory for every Headteacher in South Africa to possess at least a Diploma in School Leadership which would equip the Headteacher with basic educational leadership and school management skills (Bush and Glover, 2010)

In Ghana, while the Education Ministry formulates educational policies, the Ghana Education Service plays a complementary role of implementing those policies through various levels of leadership, beginning from the Director General through his deputies, the regional and district directors, the headteachers to the class teachers in the classroom (GES, 2010a). In conformity to



global standard, Ghana has segmented its pre-tertiary educational system into pre-primary, primary, junior high and senior high schools. Each of the schools is headed by a Headteacher. Ghanaian learners write two levels of public examinations: The Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) and the Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) both conducted by the West African Examinations Council on behalf of the government. The academic performance of learners is measured by their performance in these examinations (GES, 2010b).

Headteachers at the basic schools are mandated with the responsibilities of managing teachers, learners, school resources, serving as links between the school and the District Education Office (GES, 2010a). Donkoh (2014) and Ojo and Olaniyan (2008) also enumerated the duties of a Headteacher in Ghana to include planning, curricular and instructional development, appraisal of teachers, and maintenance of school-community relationship. Lonyian and Kuranchie (2018) observed that the discharge of these responsibilities by Headteachers in Ghana may have direct and indirect influence on teaching and learning and consequently on pupils' academic achievement. This study set out to investigate the influences of Headteachers on pupils' academic performance in Northern Ghana.



1.2 Problem Statement

For over a decade now, only about 60% of pupils who normally write the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) pass this examination (Ministry of Education, 2016). In exploring solutions to the poor performance of pupils in BECE in Ghana, the debate and interventions tend to emphasize on the training and deployment of more teachers, increasing funds to schools as evidenced in the institution of school capitation grant and supply of other school material resources (Amuzu, Ankalibazuk & Abdulai, 2017). Jef et al. (2009), however, identified good leadership from Headteachers in Rwanda as a crucial element in improving quality education in Rwanda. Leadership and management of junior high schools in Ghana remain crucial but have received less attention. Fuller (2017) also found out that schools can be effectively managed to improve student performance if the education systems prioritise leadership training at all levels of the teacher training programme. Dady and Bali (2014) also argued that the quality of education depends largely on how schools are run much more than the abundance of material and other inputs.

In countries like Rwanda and South Africa, there are regular in-service trainings for teachers so as to equip and update teachers' skills in school leadership. In Ghana, however, the Ministry of

Education is yet to institutionalize leadership skills-building programmes for basic school heads.

Ghana places less emphasis on school leadership at the basic level (Donkor, 2013). Apart from the limited attention given to leadership roles of Headteachers of junior high schools in Ghana, school leadership as a course is not taught in any of the colleges of education yet trainees who eventually become Headteachers are expected to possess leadership skills and successfully lead their schools (Donkor, 2013). One of the very few known effort has been the *Leadership for Learning* Programme which was piloted by Cambridge Centre for Commonwealth Education and the Ministry of Education (Oduro, 2008). As one of the few interventions on leadership this



intervention aimed to improve the quality of pedagogy by focusing on leadership for learning principles across Ghanaian schools. Beyond testing the applicability of leadership for learning principles within Ghanaian context which was the primary objective one of its core outcomes was that leaders of the approach and head teachers indeed embraced the principles. The intervention also caused enthusiasm among head teachers, thus laying a foundation for a sustained capacity building for school leadership (Oduro, 2008). However, as observed by Oduro (2008), the Leadership for Learning Programme benefited only a few Headteachers and has not been sustained. There are also recent pronouncements by the Ministry of Education to roll out a national programme for headteachers to be delivered through a private sector provider.

In Northern Ghana, Non-Governmental Organizations occasionally support the Ghana Education Service to conduct training for serving Headteachers. These trainings are not just adhoc and limited in scope but accessible only to some selected schools to the exclusion of so many other schools which are in dire need of competent Headteachers as leaders. The influence of Headteachers' leadership, especially their leadership styles on pupils' academic performance in junior high schools, has not been adequately investigated and understood, particularly within the context of Northern Ghana. This is the gap this study has filled.



1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Main research question

The main research question addressed by this study was:

What factors influence the leadership styles of headteachers and how do these affect the academic performance of school pupils in Northern Ghana?

1.3.2 Specific questions

The specific research questions were the following:

1. What leadership styles exist among heads of junior high schools in Northern Ghana?
2. How do head teacher leadership styles and management approaches influence pupils' performance in Basic Education Certificate Examination?
3. What factors shape the leadership styles and approaches headteachers dopt in leading their schools?

1.4 General Objectives

The study sought to examine the factors that influence the leadership styles of headteachers and how their leadership affect the academic performance of school pupils in Northern Ghana

1.4.1 Specific objectives

The specific research objectives of the research were:

1. To examine the leadership styles that exist among heads of junior high schools in Northern Ghana
2. To establish ways the leadership styles and management approaches that head teachers adopt influence the performance of pupils in Basic Education Certificate Examination
3. To determine factors that shape the leadership styles and approaches of headteachers in their effort to lead their school

1.5 Hypothesis

The considered the following hypothesis:

H₀: There is no difference in Basic Education Certificate Examination results under both participatory and leader centred Headteachers



H₁: Basic Education Certificate Examination results are significantly different under participatory and leader centred Headteachers.

The hypotheses were validated using the paired t-test specified by Bluman (2009) as follows:

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

t = t-test value

\bar{X}_1 = Means of sample 1 (average Basic Education Certificate Examination results of schools under heads with participatory leadership styles)

\bar{X}_2 = Mean of sample 2 (average Basic Education Certificate Examination results of schools under participatory leadership styles)

S_1^2 = The variance of BECE results under headteachers with non-participatory leadership styles and

S_2^2 = The variance of BECE results under participatory leadership styles.

$\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$ = The observed difference between sample means. That is the difference in BECE results under Headteachers with participatory leadership and BECE results under non-participatory

leadership styles. The expected value $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$ is equal to zero when no difference between population means is hypothesized. The samples are n_1 (number of schools under the leadership of

leaders self-centred heads) and n_2 (number of schools under the leadership of participatory heads).

The term in the denominator represents the standard error of the two means.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the body of literature on school leadership. Globally, there is emerging interest in how Headteachers' leadership styles impact on pupils' achievement. Significant evidences are being generated around this subject in other countries. There is, however, limited



research on this at the pre-tertiary level in Ghana. As a country, Ghana is a lower middle income country which has been striving in the last decade to secure a good education for all citizens. This calls for adequate evidence on what works and what does not, especially as to what pertains to school management and leadership.

The limited literature in the country seems to either focus on only challenges facing school heads or performance of pupils. Within the northern part of Ghana, a study that documents possible links between the leadership styles of the school heads and academic performance of pupils at the junior high school level is important for increasing knowledge, confirming general beliefs and serving as foundations for further studies. This possible linkage is what this research offers.

The research report may be accessible to the education offices in the study districts and also Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education at the national level. This may go a long way to inform them about the realities regarding pupils' performance and how Headteachers lead their schools in these rural areas. As policy makers, the Ministry of Education may feel challenged and be intentional in equipping teachers with school leadership skills through in-service and professional development. The Headteacher self-score and follower rating provided by the study may help draw the attention of Headteachers to their leadership styles on the need to either change or maintain their styles of leading their schools.



1.7 Delimitations

This research was not aimed at attributing every variation in student performance entirely to the leadership styles of Headteachers. The researcher recognized that many other factors could influence how a student performs in a particular way at the junior high school level. Additionally, an effort has been made to ensure fair representation of all key stakeholders in the study. However, with a research comprising of so many qualitative issues, it was not possible to cover every

geographic area and stakeholders in the business of providing education at the junior high school level. Again, the study excluded private schools because in public schools there is always clarity on who is the headteacher, his roles, and who he reports to but at the private sector, the proprietor may play much of the roles that are played by headteachers so to avoid complications in the study, private schools were technically left out.

The study was justifiably situated in Northern Ghana. However, the researcher believes that it would have generated some other perspectives if the entire country was considered. Due to resource and time constraints, only selected public junior high schools located in Northern Ghana have been used for the study. The inclusion of private junior high schools in the study area could have added more value but they have been excluded from the study based on the above reasons and also to minimize potential complexities.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This thesis has been organized into eight chapters. Chapter one contains the background and the problem being investigated. It emphasized that quality education is important and pupils' performance in BECE is crucial for their progression.

Relevant and related literature is reviewed under chapter two clarifying the scope of leadership as against management and including evidence that shows how more participatory/consultative and less participatory Headteachers contribute to pupils' performance in examinations.

In chapter three, the methodology adopted is presented. It contains the research philosophy, theory development approach, the research design and strategies used and the sampling and sampling techniques that were adopted for the study.

Chapter four contains the context and environment under which Headteachers lead their schools. Their academic and instructional experience and how these affect pupils' performances are all



presented in this chapter. Chapter five contains the key styles that Headteachers employ in leading their schools, ranging from the more participatory to those that are more leaders centred, strick and exclusive styles.

Chapter six contains a presentation and discussion of the effects of the leadership styles employed by Headteachers on pupils' academic performance in BECE. Chapter seven presents key factors that combine to improve or hinder Headteachers' effectiveness in school leadership.

The study concludes with chapter eight which provides the summary of the key findings and conclusions. It also includes key recommendations, notably the need to provide leadership training for Headteachers so as to improve on their capabilities in visioning, planning, budgeting and transformational approaches to lead their schools.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the outcomes of a review of existing literature. It begins by clarifying the concepts of leadership, school headship and academic performance. It also espouses on leadership styles, school leadership practices and the functions of the Headteacher in basic schools in Ghana. The chapter also reviews the empirical works of other researchers on the impact of leadership on the academic achievement of pupils. There is also a theoretical review which looks at theories that explain leadership styles and academic performance of pupils. The chapter ends with a diagram that connects all the concepts that have been used in the study.

2.2. Conceptual Review

2.2.1. School leadership

Leadership remains a broad and contested term. In its basic form, it is understood as the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Bolden, 2004).

Leadership at the school level often receives varied emphasis, overlapping with management and administration; over time and context (Day & Simmons, 2013). The distinction, however, is that school leadership focuses on the vision, strategic and transformation issues which condense into making teachers and pupils to understand and do the right things for effective teaching and learning whereas school management stresses the implementation of agreed decisions, day to day operational matters, the means to having something accomplished and transactions within the education systems (Day & Sammons, 2013).



Cranston (2013) posits that leadership and management can be differentiated based on the purpose or functions they perform. In the view of the purpose, leadership in lower secondary schools involves either a group of people with distributed roles or an individual who is tasked with the overall responsibility for coordinating and directing the activities of a school. The focus of this research is on the individual as a leader since it is noted that in every public organization, there exists a leader who is either a male or a female (Mensah & Mensah, 2015). Majority of English speaking countries notably United States, South Africa, New Zealand and India use principal or head of school. In Ghana, the individual entrusted with responsibility for leading and promoting teaching and learning in basic schools is commonly and officially referred to as a Headteacher. The act of leading is often considered headship. It is not uncommon, however, to find such a head being referred to with the gender specifics as headmaster or headmistress.

2.2.2. School headship

A Headteacher is charged with the direct supervision of both academic and extra-curricular activities of a school in Ghana. The duties of headteachers are presented along themes such as visioning, instructional, administrative and relational. The role expected of a school head varies depending on the context and education system. Jull, Swaffield and Macbeath (2014) maintain that a headteacher's professional development and leadership practices in Sub-Saharan Africa have experienced less variation from the model established during colonial times. The Headteacher is the chief executive of the school. The Headteacher has the mandate and responsibility for playing multiple roles. Depending on the education system, the Headteachers' responsibilities may cover the entire school or specific departments. School heads are seen as supervisors, managers, school climate developers and change facilitators (MolokoMphale & Mhlauli, 2014; Esia-Donkor, 2014). In specific terms, a Headteacher's duties reflect key themes such as instructional, administrative,

visioning, collaborative, and relationship building. Vision is crucial to the Headteacher's role. The cardinal role of driving vision for school development is to set a clear and focused goal which is pursued as the mission of the school. This role therefore includes target setting and general planning. The failure to plan properly deprives schools of desired results. Success in school improvement is therefore incumbent on how the school head visions and blends relationships with values (Kieti, Maithya, & Mulwa, 2017).

Nyagosa (2011), Helterbran and Sue (2004) also stress the influence of instructional leadership in promoting effective schools. They argue that among the most important characteristics of effective schools is the existence of strong instructional leadership whose core business is promoting actual teaching and learning. The instructional leadership is wide in scope but emphasizes the headteacher's routine duties around identifying opportunities for improving classroom learning, planning and conducting professional development training for teachers. Embedded in this sub-role are planning and managing the school curriculum, allocating resources meant for teaching and learning, supervising and reviewing day to day teaching and learning (MolokoMphale, 2014).

Regular monitoring of learners' progress and delivery of teachers are other instructional tasks school heads carry out. The rest are mentoring of teachers and learners in some contexts (Vaillant, 2015). These instructional practices are similar to what is done in Ghana's basic schools. The gap is that they are silent on the level and limits of the headteacher's supervisory duties. In Ghana, the junior high school head has the first level responsibility for supervising the school but significant responsibility is entrusted in Circuit Supervisors.

Administratively the Headeacher's duties extend from managing correspondence between the school and the external community to an interface between and among teachers, pupils and School Management Committee members. The Headteacher does not only build relationship but promotes



effective communication and collaboration in order to ensure achievement of agreed plans. Ensuring that school records are effectively kept and easy to retrieve, making timely student records to parents and other district education managers are key administrative tasks undertaken by the Headteacher. Discipline of both teachers and pupils represents core administrative role of school heads likewise promotion of safe and conducive environment. Heads of lower secondary schools are also expected to build positive home-school relations. This includes ensuring that parents remain aware and involved in school-based matters that affect their children (Nyagasia, Waweru & Njuguna, 2013). As a leader of such a public organization where people are the key ingredients, misunderstandings are inevitable. The head therefore is expected to resolve conflict by mediating between and among stakeholders within the school environment. As long as conflicts occur in a school setting, the role of the head in resolving them is crucial (Kor & Opare, 2017).

2.3 Appointment and Role of Junior High School Headteachers in Ghana

Given the central role of Headteachers in school achievement, it is expected that effort would be made to get people who are very qualified and identified through an effective recruitment system for appointment as headteachers.



Ghana's education system comprises of pre-school, primary, junior high, senior high and tertiary levels. The combination of two years of pre-school, six years of primary and three years of junior high school make up basic education. This level is considered the foundational stage on which every child is expected to participate in order to achieve minimum literacy and numeracy. As at the beginning of 2019, the Ministry of Education was taking steps to extend basic school to cover senior high school. Ghana Education Service (GES) remains the implementing agency of the Ministry of Education. It has a division for basic education within which headteachers of junior high schools fall.

The cardinal role of a headteacher in the junior high school is to rally other stakeholders around in order to raise student academic performance (Esia-Donkor, 2014; Kusi, 2008). The Ghana Education Service has outlined a number of key duties of heads of basic schools in the country. These are contained in a Headteachers' Handbook (2010) and include the following;

1. Administrative work including school records. This also includes delegating administrative duties to teachers
2. Promoting community-school relationship including setting up school committees and mobilizing material and financial resources from them
3. Promoting discipline including teachers' adherence to code of conduct, sanctions to teachers and learners
4. Promoting teamwork and collaborative action among teachers. These include regular staff meetings
5. Developing staff and pupils. This role covers identifying and promoting positive personal qualities in teachers and learners
6. Instructional duties such as overseeing school curriculum, inducting new teachers and support to them in their understanding of school syllabuses.



While these are crucial roles, a top down and bureaucratic model of leadership characterized by central control as commonly practiced in most Sub Saharan countries impact negatively on their delivery (Salfi, Virk & Hussain, 2014).

2.3.1 Qualities of a good headteacher

To be a successful school head, the individual must possess and proactively exhibit some qualities. Ndyali (2013) reiterates that a very positive personality that has a high level of energy, enthusiasm, organization and willing to take initiative while being positive at all times are key qualities. Other

qualities are being analytical, possessing a high sense of humour in order to broker and succeed in even the most tensed situations, tolerance and a good listener. Ndyali did not stress confidence as a key quality of a good headteacher. In an interview with a cross section of best headteachers from the United Kingdom, Sutcliff (2013) found that vision, courage, passion, emotional intelligence, judgment, resilience, precaution and curiosity are key qualities every good headteacher must exhibit.

Day and Sammons (2016) maintain that the dimensions of qualities of a good headteacher anchor on the actions they take and their outcome. As a consequence, good headteachers should have a blend of facilitation skills, creativity and the ability to influence. One should therefore be able to identify a good headteacher based on their ability to define a clear vision, uphold the values of the school, enhance teaching and learning, demonstrate and lead good relationship, both internally and externally.

2.4 Academic Performance

The debate around the influence of school leadership on academic school performance is still on going as maintained by Pianthra et al (2019). Quality education comprises of a wide range of things.

Children from birth learn in many ways but formal and structured education of a good quality provides them the route for concretizing their knowledge, skills, beliefs and attitudes. For a quality education, appropriate systems, inputs, good processes and desired outcomes must be emphasized. These must include ready learners who are willing to participate and relevant content within a safe, congenial environment (UNICEF, 2000). UNESCO (2012), through its International Bureau of Education, has developed a General Education Quality Analysis Framework (GEQAF) that helps to focus and enables countries easily assess education quality. This framework emphasizes ensuring equity and inclusion in education systems with the ultimate outcomes in mind. These



outcomes include the acquisition of some basic competencies and lifelong learning. GEQAF and related studies also stress that no education can be presumed to be of quality without a number of key ingredients like the background and readiness of learners (Casely-Hayford, 2013). These learners must be healthy, well-nourished and ready to learn and supported by their families and communities (UNICEF, 2010).

The quality of a teacher is also crucial and so are the extent to which learners access educational resources, a safe learning environment as well as the content and processes of teaching and learning. In addition to these is an assessment system that gauges and measures the progress against agreed objectives. Such minimum objectives include the knowledge, skills and attitudes, all linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society (Angus, MacNeil, Prater & Busch, 2009; UNICEF, 2010).

Embedded in the indicators of quality of education is academic performance of learners. Used interchangeably with academic achievement, this refers to a successful accomplishment or performance in a particular subject area. Academic performance is mostly reflected in attainment in literacy, numeracy and basic problem solving. It is one of the critical indicators of how well children are learning and by extension how a school system is functioning to produce the benefits for which it has been established.

Both Ministry of Education (2016) and Iddi (2016) note that one in three pupils who write BECE annually do not get admission into the senior high, technical and vocational schools. In 2010, 60% of pupils passed BECE nationally. In 2016 out of the total number of pupils who wrote BECE, 51% passed in the core courses nationally and this improved marginally to 53% in 2017 (Ministry of Education, 2017). While these findings reflect the reality in pupils' performance, the Ministry



of Education sector performance reports fail to present the entire picture as its analysis excluded other subjects and also excluded how boys and girls perform in these key subjects.

Performance in examinations in Northern Ghana falls below the national average. In 2015, 21% of boys performed above average in English language compared with 23.5% for girls. The reverse, however, happened in mathematics where the boys scored much better, at 23.9% compared with 20.9% for girls nationally. Only 3.5% and 6% were above average in Upper East and Upper West Regions respectively. Indeed, the Upper East and Upper West recorded the greatest proportions of pupils below average in all these subjects. The MOE (2016) has observed that this trend has been the same in the last five years. The Ministry of Education (2016) sector performance report, however, did not include detailed reasons for the trend of performance.

The internal and external factors that affect academic performance of pupils have received considerable academic attention. Singh (2016) carried out a study in Sri Lanka to determine how the level of preparedness of the individual learner, the ability to withstand peer influence, participation in school and the learner's absorption ability determine the grades that would be achieved. Adane (2013) in a survey in South Africa, found out that gender differences at the level

of pupils, teachers and school leaders and the availability of school inputs such as teachers, books and teaching aids are key factors that affect pupils' academic performance at the post-primary level.

Singh and Sign (2016), in their expo factor study on over 200 school leaders and pupils, confirm that learning facilities, communication skills and parental guidance statistically and positively affect academic performance. Mushtaq and Khan (2012) support this position adding that family stress does also impact academic performance. Raychaudhuri et al. (2010) remain one of the few researchers that emphasize the level of education of a learner's parents particularly their mother as having positive impact on the academic performance of such a student. Folk (2017), Elias (2013),



Hungi and Postlethwaite (2009) all found out that any of a parent's economic status, qualification of teachers, availability of counselling services and quality of teaching contribute to pupils' academic achievements. Studies into student academic performance in Ghana tend to conform to some of these global findings.

2.4.1 Measuring academic performance

Student academic performance has received considerable attention of educational research but how to clearly measure it remains challenging (Mushtaq & Khan, 2012). The United Nations Education, Cultural and Scientific Organisation is one of the global institutions that provides some guidance and assurances regarding how to assess what has been gained after a given period of student learning. Standardized tests have been considered key and commonly adopted. This is due to the ease in its use compared with other outcomes that may be more complex and less tangible (UNICEF, 2010; Day & Sammons, 2016). Other standardized tests for assessing pupils include Grade Point Average (GPA), and other capabilities beyond test scores such as learner competencies, the values they acquire and the ability to practically solve puzzles (UNESCO, 2012).

What and how tests scores are generated vary from one education context to the other. In Ghana, tests scores are popularized in the measure of student learning. These scores are generated from regular class tasks including routine exercises. Test scores are also generated from structured systems of testing notably School Education Assessment (SEA) and National Education Assessment (NEA) which are both administered at the primary school level. At junior high school level, continuous assessment and Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) are the sources of generating scores to determine how much a student has performed after three continuous years of junior high school. The continuous assessment constitutes 30% of the total score of the junior high school student. The remaining 70% is expected from Basic Education Certificate



Examination. Beyond the junior high school, the West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) remains the source of scores for certification and admission into tertiary institutions (Iddi, 2016).

The Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) is an external examination organized by the West African Examination Council (WAEC) for all pupils after eleven (11) years of the basic schooling (Adamoah & Acquah, 2016). The examination covers what pupils must experience in basic school in order to acquire the essential knowledge and skills, which are the minimum levels of educational goals each individual is expected of, as a right. Learners are assessed on a number of agreed subjects. The subjects include Ghanaian Language and Culture, English, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Agricultural Science, Pre-Technical Skills (which includes Technical Drawing), Environmental Studies, Life Skills, Religious/Moral Education, Music and Dance, and Physical Education. Over the years, there has been slight variation in the number and scope of the subjects. A notable variation in recent times is that French is an optional subject while Physical Education is no longer examinable.

The Basic Education Certificate Examination results are generated through a standard examination conducted externally by the West African Examination Council (WAEC). WAEC computes the scores using a stanine grading system. The stanine system is a norm grading method of scaling raw tests scores on a nine-point standard scale. In practical terms, the grades are derived from the raw marks and are distributed such that grades 4 to 6 represent the average performance in the national cohort, then 1 to 3 are above average and 7 to 9 are below the average (Ministry of Education, 2016). These are depicted in the Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Basic Education Certificate Examination Grading and Interpretation

Grade	Numeric value	Interpretation	Grade	Numeric value	Interpretation
A	1	Excellent	D	4	Credit
B	2	Very Good	E	5	Pass
C	3	Good	F	9	Fail

Source: Ministry of Education (2016)

The stanine system has a mean of five and a standard deviation of two. It allocates the lowest 4% a stanine of 1, the next 7% a stanine of 2 in that order. Learners that achieve between grades 6 and 36 qualify for admission into secondary or technical schools. Scores above 36 are considered fail.

Using BECE test scores as a measure of learners' performance at junior highschool level has been criticized for its limitations in comparing candidates' grades year on year (Addadzi-Koom, 2012; Mereku, 2008). The Ministry of Education (2016) also notes that the grading for any year is mutually exclusive and is not suitable for comparing with that of the previous years while it is difficult to determine if standards are improving or not. There have been calls for the adoption of a different method of assessing student performance at the junior high school level. To this effect, a technical committee recommended the use of Criterion Reference Testing (Mereku, 2008). These proposals are however, yet to be implemented. The suitability of using the BECE scores in this study in spite of the criticism therefore is based on the fact that until a new measure is introduced there appears to be some consensus that it remains the only viable determinant of learners' ability to progress beyond the junior high school.



2.5 Styles of Leadership

A leadership style is the approach used by a manager or head of an organisation in the exercise of their leadership function (Armstrong, 2012). According to Haque et al (2015) it reflects a particular behavior a leader in an organization employs with an ultimate aim of motivating followers especially employees towards the achievement of a defined objective. In the context of the school leadership style may therefore refer to the strategies or behaviours employed by head teachers in relating to their teachers, learners well as the community members in order to ensure that the objectives of the school are achieved. Just as in other organizations, school heads tend to employ different styles in their duties. When compared, the various styles are said to reflect in a continuum; from the most basic low level leader centred to more advanced and result-oriented level. Classically, leadership theorists and researchers categorize these as self centred and very strict, laissez-faire and bureaucratic while the high levels are more participatory, transformational, transactional and servant-leader leadership styles (Aviolo and Bass, 2004, Nawaz and Khan, 2016). As argued by Nawaz and Khan (2016) the more dictatorial and more leader-centred leadership styles are those that have power concentrated in the leader with little or no involvement and or consultation with followers. On the other hand, the more inclusive or participatory styles of leadership involve providing room for some consultations and inclusion of the views of the followers. Under these, the leader's style is influencing and facilitative, assigning critical roles and responsibilities to followers but assuming absolute responsibility for the outcomes of actions.

A laissez-faire style is almost the opposite of participatory and leader centred, as this is characterized by little to no action by the leader. Khan, Nawaz and Khan (2016) maintain that in laissez-faire style of leadership, there is an open-ended autonomy and freedom given to the followers and the leader makes no input into what goes on. Creative leadership, which is also known as situational

leadership, is one of the most advanced and contemporary behaviours. The creative leader has no fixed structure or behaviour but occurs as quick solution to emerging and unexpected situations. The key characteristics of creative or situational styles include timely innovation, a drive and stimulation of followers to respond to emerging situations.

In transformational styles of leadership, the leader is fixated on the vision of the school. The leader aims to attain long term goals while concurrently developing others, taking advantage of emerging issues and building systems critical to improving the organization. Researchers including Avolio and Bass (2004) categorize the features of transformational leadership into four key areas with each reflecting the styles the leader exhibits. These are individualized consideration, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. Under inspirational motivation, Boateng (2014) sums up the leader as having a style that is more concerned with the followers and is more enthusiastic and optimistic. The leader makes effort to inspire the followers with the hope that this would lead to increased commitment and performance. On the other hand, individualized consideration reflects the leader's focus on the unique needs of each follower and what can be done to bring out the best taking advantage of their unique strengths, with an ultimate aim of eventually

making the followers self-leaders. Coaching, mentoring and support to growth are therefore the key features. Styles akin to idealized influence involve the leader acting more as a strong role model to followers. Beyond winning the trust of followers, the leader has a shared vision and is able to articulate the vision. Intellectual stimulation involves the leader's effort to promote creativity and innovation in the followers, doing this with passion and empowering them to become true change agents. Transformational leadership has distinguished itself over the years. This type of leadership is more about people and known to strongly lead to job satisfaction, improve subordinates' motivation and values (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016; Nanjundes & Swamy, 2014). What has been

strongly stated in a number of these researchers' work is that, the various leadership types are not mutually exclusive. This implies that when deciding and supporting a process to adopt a most preferred style certain situations do demand the inclusion of even the most basic ones.

It is known that where individuals in leadership positions tend to be relatively consistent in their own behaviour over time they tend to influence the behaviour of others, ultimately leading to varied results (Shehu, 2013). Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) had earlier revealed that the personality of a leader impacts the institutions. In the same way a good, consistent behaviour of a school head plays an important role in school effectiveness as it influences teachers, pupils, parents and others in more positive ways (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016). At the instructional level Eyal and Roth (2011) argue that leadership style significantly contributes to how well motivated teachers are and the higher they are motivated, the higher the performance their pupils. Schools become effective when the heads have the quality, ability and consistency in not only communicating but also modelling their mission (Nyangosia, 2011). Leadership styles must not be understood as being static but dynamic. The United Nations Panel on Leadership (2012) confirms that though some may be better than others, there is no one single style that best fits all conditions. What is critical therefore is that,

as leaders, headteachers should be able to adjust their style to suit varied situations and their followers.

2.5.1 Measuring head teacher leadership styles

The act of leadership and for that matter school headship is quite complicated. Wallace (2011) notes that to measure leadership, all depends first on establishing what frame under which things are to be measured, what and how much is to be measured. The theoretical basis, number and depth of variables measured as well as the method used are also relevant factors that should be considered. Where the variable to be measured is only one, very few or applied separately, the effects are less



insignificant. It is therefore imperative to apply a combination of variables in order to clearly establish the extent to which Headteachers contribute to learners' achievement (Wallace, 2011).

There are many means and tools for establishing whether a school head makes specific contribution to performance. Each method has its strengths and limitations. The notable ones which emphasize the leader, process and results or performance of the organization that the leader leads include Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Manager's Leadership Behaviors (MLB), Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and Leadership Dimension Questionnaire (LDQ). The models include Full Range Leadership Model, Gender Aware Model, Value Added Model and Effective Leadership Model.

Among these measures, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been identified as one of the most preferred by researchers. Its extensive and wide acceptance is also based on the fact that it is closely linked to concepts in transformational and full range leadership and its suitability in assessing relationships (Rowold, 2005). Its strength in measuring the full range of leadership styles has also made it more suitable for use in this research. The MLQ provides description of one's leadership style based on a set of descriptive statements (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

Following the leader's self-assessment, the followers also apply same in rating their leader. Over the years, there have been modifications and different versions of the MLQ. While some versions add other scales to the tool, others contain revision of the wording of the scales to make it easier to understand by both researchers and non-researchers. This study has adopted version 6S (with 21-statements) based on its extensive acceptance and use among leadership researchers particularly in the academia. Its key elements are explained in the following table.

In practical terms, the leadership styles of the heads are measured first by enabling them to self-assess using the MLQ. Their school teachers in turn apply the same tool in rating the heads with



the ultimate aim of comparing the results. The results enable the determination of the competencies, effectiveness or professional delivery of headteachers.

Before applying the MLQ, biographical, resources and environment/context-related data are required in order to gauge the context and circumstances under which each school head functions. The sex, age, family background, basic academic and professional qualification and other personal qualities are the biographical data. Availability or otherwise of basic education inputs, policy, plans and support systems in place by school management committee, parent teacher associations, district and national GES are the school environment data.

2.6 Factors that hinder the effectiveness of Headteachers

Even though headteachers play very key role in student performance, many encounter challenges that tend to limit their roles as heads of school. Some of these challenges may include; in-school relationships, availability of resources, personal qualities, policies and opportunities for support. Skills and other personal qualities of the headteacher are important. Where the headteacher possesses the minimum qualification and basic skills, they function effectively. On the other hand, where the heads lack the basic qualification and skills to deliver as transformational leaders, the impact can be great and negative. Schools and their learning environments are increasingly becoming dynamic. They therefore require a leader with up to date knowledge, ability and innovation to be able to function effectively. In instances where school heads even possess the minimum skills, the ability to integrate a sound grasp of basic knowledge and skills within a broad and balanced curriculum is important but found to be limited (Day & Sammons, 2016).

Building sound relationships is crucial to the role of the school head. Headteachers play the role of building not only trust but strong internal relationships especially with teachers and learners (Kusi, 2008). A headteacher with good interpersonal skills and the ability to utilize them to the optimum



improves his/her delivery. Where the head is unable to do this, cooperation and trust may not be achieved. Outside of the school environment, building partnerships with communities and parents in support of the school is crucial but this is not easily achieved as sometimes the tension between the school community and the local community may go very high and become unmanageable for headteachers.

Material and financial resources promote the work of headteachers. However, where these are inadequate, they serve as a major barrier to the head's ability to improve on the performance of their schools. Qutoshi and Khaki (2014) found, in their study, that lack of basic resources such as funds, the required number of teachers and teaching and learning materials are key impediments to headteacher's delivery. Where resources abound, some heads lack the ability to manage them in a strategic and accountable manner, leading to an indictment on their own credibility and support from followers.

A large amount of literature emphasizes that headteachers spend a larger amount of their time on routine administrative tasks and this was affecting their effectiveness (Vaillant, 2015). Such tasks include receiving and responding to correspondence with other departments of the system, monitoring and supervising physical and human resources. The Ghana Education Service in particular, lacks up to date policies that provide and support leadership development, thus affecting negatively the effectiveness of headteachers' delivery. Jull, Swafield and Macbeath (2014) observe that since colonial times, there has been very little variation in headteacher professional development programmes. Where there appears to be some policies and programmes for school heads, they remain limited in terms of selection, promotion and professional training, and as a result these impede the ability of headteachers to deliver (UNESCO, 2018).

2.7 Empirical Review

The factors that influence the academic performance of learners have featured prominently in academic articles, journals and other publications. UNICEF (2016) carried out a study in the three countries of Eastern Africa; Kenya, Zambia and Tanzania to determine the factors that account for the variability of academic achievements of pupils in various second cycle schools in these countries. Using a cross sectional survey with a sample size of 385 participants, they found that teaching and learning resources such as textbooks, maker boards, and syllabi were not equally distributed to schools within those countries. They also found that infrastructural facilities such as classrooms, staff common rooms, headteachers' offices and libraries were statistically significant to the effectiveness of headteachers in their attempt to improve the academic performance of pupils but were not equally distributed across schools in those countries as well. The study concluded that, the availability or not of such resources and facilities in the various schools accounted for the variability in the academic performance of learners in the second cycle schools of Tanzania, Kenya and Zambia. UNICEF (2016) failed to consider the management of such resources by headteachers to see if it has any impact on learners' academic performance. This study has sought to fill this gap.



Barber, Clark and Whelan (2010) conducted a study which compared school leadership using a sample of 1,800 principals across high performing schools in Europe to determine the factors that influence pupils' performance. Using an online survey to solicit participation from respondents, they found out that apart from classroom teaching, nothing was found to influence improvements in school standards more than the quality of headteachers' leadership. Even in the context where the researchers tend to believe that it is individual teachers other than principals that tremendously impact student achievements, multiple in-school factors were found to act together in order to achieve such an impact and the school leader plays the strategic role of linking all these together.

Effective schools are those that have correlations with learners' success in learning and clear instructional leadership (Kirk & Jones, 2004). There appears to be consensus that headteachers impact the academic achievement of their pupils considerably (Wallace Foundation, 2013, cited in Krasnoff, 2015).

Day and Sammons (2016), in a study covering 180 schools in three districts in North America, concluded that there was no school which was doing well without what they considered a talented leader. In the United Kingdom, the results of an Ofsted School Inspection (2016) revealed that for every 100 schools with good leaders, 93 had good achievement, and for every 100 that did not have good leaders, only one had good student achievement ((Barber, Clark & Whelan, 2010).

The Factsheet of the Department for Professional Employees (2016) confirms that in the United States, school heads continually exhibit key role in schools considered as high performing. Seashore, Karen, Dretzke and Wahlstrom (2010), and Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008) all found that there is a strong positive relationship between school heads and academic performance adding that headteachers play a vital role in reducing disparities between learning outcomes for various groups of pupils.

In another dimension of leadership and academic performance, a study aimed at exploring the role of school leadership in the academic achievement of pupils using a survey strategy by Wallace (2014), found out that in Malawi, 73% of headteachers who were superintendents and had been classroom teachers before had their pupils achieving better academic grades in public exams than the 27% who were appointed headteachers without passing through the various stages of teaching experience. Even though Wallace's study reinforces the importance of headteacher's instructional experience, the study, however, did not expand on how inexperienced teachers become headteachers in Malawi.



Majoni (2015) analysed the styles of leadership of school heads and their impact on school administration in basic schools in Zimbabwe and how this impacts on student's academic achievement. Using a descriptive survey method and with a sample size of 175 teachers, the study concluded that most school heads were adopting more open and participatory style of leadership and this was bringing improvement in the target schools. Mojoni (2015), however, did not consider the variability in the school environments of headteachers who applied other leadership styles and those who adopted the transformational leadership style. Sometimes, the environment would determine the best leadership style to adopt.

In an inclusivity of quality of education study in Northern Ghana, Casley-Hayford et al. (2013), using a cross-sectional survey, collected data from 230 respondents which revealed among other things that headteachers who demonstrated strong leadership were key facilitators of quality education. The study, however, did not explore how the unavailability of teaching and learning resources and school facilities can undermine the effectiveness of headteachers in facilitating quality education. In their descriptive survey design covering 269 teachers of primary and junior high schools in South Tongu District of Ghana, Minadzi and Nyame (2016) found a strong effect

of headteachers' leadership style on teachers' classroom performance. Though the study provided more information on teachers' perception of headteachers' styles on their performance, it did not include how the heads perceive their own styles. Majoni's study in 2015 also contained more females in the sample than males which is rare in most studies that involve school teachers and heads across Sub-Saharan Africa. The study was limited to only teachers' perception about their heads with no information on what the heads themselves believe.

Adamoah and Acquah (2016) also conducted a study into the poor performance of pupils in Basic Education Certificate Examination in Kassena Nankani West District, Upper East of Ghana. Using



a semi-structured questionnaire to gather data from 263 respondents, they concluded that age of pupils, discipline and level of parents' education significantly contribute to the academic performance of pupils at BECE. Adamoah and Acquah did not analyze the role and influence of school leadership in their study. Their study is also silent on how the availability or otherwise of basic inputs in the junior high school contributed to student performance. In whatever view the role of headteachers may be, the conclusion is that as long as the principal interacts with others and stimulates what goes on in the school, he or she does greatly contribute to learning outcomes.

This study is set to contribute to the global debate on the factors that influence pupils' academic achievement by exploring how the leadership styles of headteachers in the less endowed schools within Northern Ghana impact on pupils' academic performance within the regions.

2.8 Theoretical Review

The work is rooted in the transformational, transactional and servant-leader theories of leadership to explain the relationship between the influences of headteacher's leadership and pupils' academic achievements. A detailed discussion and explanation of these theories are provided below.

2.8.1 Transformational leadership theory

Developed by Burns (1978), transformational theory emphasizes an ideal leader's role in reaching organisational goals. Transformational theory posits that leadership is concerned with task and relationship and the leader is responsible for transforming individual interests of followers into the collective goal of the organisation by establishing a special relationship with them based on mutual respect. A transformational leader is responsible for all the dimensions of the organisational goal. In school settings, these dimensions include visioning and setting educational goals and creating a congenial learning environment. The school head is expected to transform this goal into results by



providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, demonstrating best practices and important organizational values and high performance expectations (Leithwood, 1994 cited in Denmark, 2012).

The leader is considered to have better relevant experience and should lead the way to a positive change (Denmark, 2012). A transformational leader envisions a desirable future, articulates with followers how this desired future can be achieved and leads the way to the goals with determination and confidence. Delegation of task to followers is crucial and is done based on the conviction that though the organizational goal attainment is the end result, follower growth intermediates (Growth Consulting and Training Pte, 2016). A transformational leader anticipates a reciprocal process and trust is a key success factor. When followers trust and believe that they stand to receive some benefits from the leader they do more to improve themselves and also the organization.

2.8.1.1 Dimensions of transformational leadership

There are four dimensions of transformation leadership and they are:

2.8.1.2 Attributed idealized impact (Attributed Charisma)

This is a significant factor in leadership transformation. It demonstrates the perspective of the employee as the leader in terms of strength of impact, self-confidence, confidence in others, consistency and values that people strive to imitate. The leader has thus become a target of admiration, regard, and feeling of accountability, trust and increasing optimism (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Idealized influence behaviours include the leaders' values, beliefs, moral considerations, moral behaviour and selfless acts. An essential aspect of idealism is the establishment of a common vision. A transformative leader plays a part in assisting others think about the future (Jung and



Avolio, 2000). This happens when inspiration is produced through conformity of personal values with the group's interests (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Jung and Avolio, 2000). Transformational leadership implies being tolerant and risk-sharing with followers. In a school situation, the headteacher could communicate clearly the vision and mission of the school to teachers, help teachers in preparing lesson plans, assist teachers to understand the syllabi and help them in the preparation of the scheme of work. Additionally, the headteacher should be tolerant, empathic, objective and just in managing in-school conflicts. The headteacher serves as a role model to many teachers so his or her moral values, conducts and personal values are of great significance to the teachers.

2.8.1.3 Inspirational motivation

For their supporters, a transformative leader sets an example. He or she communicates vision, fosters hard work, and clearly expresses significant objectives (Bass, 1994). Transformational leaders motivate others through purposeful, difficult tasks (Avolio and Bass, 2002). Arousing passion and optimism while inspiring team spirit (Bass, 1998) are major characteristics of a transformational leader. Transformational leaders make effort to create relationships with their supporters through interaction that serves as a cultural connection between them. This contributes



to a shift in both parties' values toward a common ground. By realizing expectations and showing dedication to objectives and common vision, the leader generates crystal-clear vision of the future in their supporters. This dimension is evaluated by the capacity of the leaders to achieve, trust in their values and vision.

2.8.1.4 Individualized considerations

The leader offers steady responses and combines the requirements of people with the function of the organization. The leader demonstrates special and personal interest in the growth and

accomplishment of supporters (Avolio and Bass, 2002). A leader functions as a referee and supervisor for this purpose, helping to create the skills necessary for followers towards elevated potentialities. In terms of their demands and wishes, a leader must consider individual differences between and among supporters. By efficient interaction with them, he or she performs a double role (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Bass, 1998). By delegating duties and secretly observing them being enforced, a leader can improve supporters' skills that guarantee the quantity of assistance and oversight required. Above all the beneficial impact of individualized evaluation and transformative behaviours is the empowerment of supporters (Behling and McFillen, 1996). This can be measured by the leader's interest in the followers' needs for development and growth, and being careful in training and guiding followers (Bass, 1994).

2.8.1.5 Intellectual stimulation (Creative)

Transformational leadership stimulates individuals to be able to be creative and excel by introducing ideas and timely solutions to problems (Avolio and Bass, 2002). However, it highlights and re-evaluates old beliefs and values and considers difficulties as issues that need to be resolved and seeks logical solutions to these problems. Transformational leadership does not publicly criticize followers for their errors. Rather, the leader gives them challenging tasks and encourages them to solve problems in their own way.

2.8.2 Transactional leadership theory

Routed in Weber's ideas, transactional leadership was developed by Burns in 1978 and advanced by him in the early 1980s. According to Yukl (2010) the individual leader is central and the organizational results key but short term. Transactional leader functions in organizations with people but tend to be more focused on the task than relationships. The leader sets performance criteria for followers which are often based on pre-determined deliverables. The followers' ability

to reach agreed targets is characterized by performance reviews and a leader-follower exchange where sanctions and rewards are applied in order to promote follower performance (Kabeyi, 2018).

Cilliers et al. (2008) also regard transactional leadership as a mechanism of social exchange by agreeing and clarifying duties between the leader and the follower on the grounds that a properly finished job will result in penalty being rewarded and avoided. According to Adler and Reid (2008:26), the leader-follower relationship is viewed by a transactional leader as a give and take contract where both sides agree to a mutual trade-off. A transactional connection between leader and follower is regulated by contractual rather than trust agreements. Shokane, Slabbert and Stanz (2004) contend that transactional leadership involves managing the behaviours and organizational resources of staff to achieve short-term goals.

Therefore, the transactional leader can be regarded as a manager focusing on day-to-day administrative tasks, adopting a conservative strategy to job, so that instant outcomes can be achieved. The leader can also be seen as an individual marginally concerned with empowering supporters to participate in personal development in order to go beyond their self-interest. The transactional leader is therefore perceived as a more challenge than a relationship-oriented individual, who relies on the need for authority to participate in positive operations with supporters (Andreassen et al., 2011).

Its relevance in educational setting is reflected in the emphasis placed on structure and management of the process for achieving school goals. Educational institutions are organized based on rules, regulations and frameworks. And as teachers, pupils and other administrators are required to follow the regulations (Thakur, 2014).



2.8.2.1 Dimensions of transactional leadership

There are two dimensions of transactional leadership and they are:

2.8.2.2 Constructive transaction

According to Emery and Barker (2007), a key characteristic of transactional leadership is the link between employee requirements and what the leader wants to achieve as well as to provide benefits required by supporters. The exchange arrangement between leader and follower is positive, where followers are confident and convinced that when tasks are finished effectively, they will receive benefits. This claim is properly endorsed by Oldham and Hackman's (2010) job characteristics model, where feedback from the job, knowledge of the real outcomes of work operations, outcomes in followers' fulfilment are considered key in constructive transaction. Furthermore, the need for accomplishment will lead to the incentive to strive for outstanding outcomes in pursuit of accepted objectives.

By contrast, failure to attain accepted objectives may lead to a sense of incompetence or failure thereby demotivating adherents to pursue such actions. Failed efforts can also give followers a perception that objectives are far-reaching or unattainable. Followers may also be demotivated when they perceive inequity in their reward structures where attempts are inconsistent with incentives, as described in Adam's (2001) equity theory. In a school situation, the positive exchanges between a headteacher and teachers can lead to improve staff performance and consequently higher academic achievement by pupils.

2.8.2.3 Passive management by exception

The leader's passive style is a main transactional leadership dimension. Under this style, the leader intervenes only when issues become apparent. Therefore, followers may encounter some



satisfaction in their autonomy requirements, which is backed by Oldham and Hackman (2010) work traits model. Furthermore, the fear of failure would be integrated in followers' minds because of the leader's reactive approach that involves intervening only when performance does not fulfil expectations, often responding with adverse effects. Results of research carried out by Emery and Barker (2007:84) show that there is an exceptionally adverse correlation between employee performance and leadership. According to Madlock (2008), prevalent factors leading to work discontent are mainly influenced by leader-follower interpersonal relationships. When followers view the leader as less supportive and absent when necessary, particularly during the original phases of issue detection, there can be work discontent. In a school setting, the headteacher may try to give autonomy to followers such as teachers as much as possible in managing their classes and intervene only when there are issues that the teacher may not be able to handle.

2.8.3. Servant leadership theory

Servant leadership theory emphasises that the leader leads by doing. It is a philosophy and set of methods known to enrich people's life, build better organisations, and eventually create a world that is more just and caring (Emery and Baker, 2007). Created by Robert K. Greenleaf in the 1970s



Greenleaf (1997) espoused that even organisations could also be servant leaders, not just only people. Wong and Page (2003) maintained that servant-leadership in itself suggests completeness.

To make a clear distinction regarding the value that such style brings to organisational improvement, Arlene Hall (1991) noted that "doing menial tasks does not necessarily imply a servant leader". Instead, a servant leader is one who invests in allowing, enabling and empowering others, assisting them to be and to do their utmost best. Servant leadership style is strongly linked in terms of the connection between the leader and the servant to transformational and transactional styles.

2.8.3.1 Dimensions of servant leadership

There are six dimensions of servant leadership as explained in the following.

2.8.3.2 Empathy

The leader of the servant seeks to comprehend and empathize with others. For their special and distinctive spirits, people need to be accepted and acknowledged. One assumes co-workers and colleagues' excellent intentions and does not dismiss them as individuals, even when one may be compelled to refuse to acknowledge certain behaviours or results. Those who have become competent are the most effective servant leaders' empathetic listeners (Yukl et al., 2010).

2.8.3.3 Healing

Under servant leadership relationship, healing is considered a strong transformative and integrative force. The capacity to heal one's self and one's connection with others is one of great importance and strength of a servant leader. Many individuals particularly followers suffer from a multitude of emotional hurts and broken spirits even though part of human servant leaders acknowledges that they have a chance to assist all those they come in touch with.

2.8.3.4 Service

Servant leadership starts with the natural sensation of serving first and then a deliberate decision leads to an aspiration to lead. Servant leadership is the only type of leadership to be the first to place priority to service. Because a servant leader serves first, the characteristics of a servant as primary characteristics of servant leadership were designated. In other words, servant leaders must first meet the criteria of a servant before they can meet the criteria of a servant leader, which is consistent with the view of Greenleaf (1997) cited in Andreassen (2011) and also Sendjaya & Sarros (2002) who stress that one must place service before leadership. Greenleaf (1997) wrote that



a servant leader is to serve first and then by “conscious choice” (p. 13) aspire to lead. The motivational element of servant leadership portrays a fundamental presupposition which distinguishes the concept from other leadership thoughts. This presupposition forms the mental model of the servant leader, which is the “I serve” as opposed to “I lead” mentality. The primary reason why leaders exist is to serve first, not to lead first (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002).

2.8.3.5 Empowerment

Since servant leaders focus on building leadership potential in followers (employees) and (expanding) empowering their followers into more capable members of the organization, high-quality LMX relationships can be developed in working groups (Greenleaf, 1977, Liden, 2008). In addition, several intermediate processes such as mutual trust between leader and follower and commitment to the supervisor were identified in a servant leadership model by Liden et al. (2014). Others have called empowerment the most important characteristic of servant leadership (Patterson, 2003). Greenleaf (add date) was even called the father of the movement for empowerment. There can be no servant leadership without power sharing. Patterson (2003) stated that “empowering people, with the best interest of those served in mind, is at the heart of servant leadership” (p. 23). Servant leadership empowerment involves effective listening, making people feel meaningful, focusing on teamwork, valuing love and equality, entrusting workers with authority and responsibility, and allowing them to experiment and be creative without fear (Russell, 2000; Russell & Stone, 2002, p. 7).

2.8.3.6 Persuasion

Another characteristic of servant leader is to rely on persuasion in making decisions within an organization rather than on one's positional authority. Instead of coercing compliance, the servant leader seeks to convince others. This particular element provides one of the clearest differences



between the traditional authoritarian model and servant leadership model. The leader of the servant is effective in building consensus among groups.

2.8.3.7 Conceptualization

Servant leaders seek to nurture their dream-great dreaming abilities (Greenleaf, 1997). The ability to look at a problem or organization from a conceptualizing perspective means one has to think beyond the realities of everyday life. For many leaders, this is a characteristic that requires discipline and practice. The traditional leader is consumed by the need to achieve short-term operational goals. The leader who also wants to be a servant leader must extend his or her thinking to include conceptual thinking on a broader basis. Conceptualization is, by its very nature, a key role for trustee boards or directors within organizations. Unfortunately, boards can sometimes become involved in the day-to-day operations— something that should be discouraged — and, thus, fail to provide the visionary concept for an institution. Trustees mostly need to be conceptual in their orientation, staff need to be operational in their perspective, and the most effective executive leaders are likely to need to develop both inside themselves. Servant leaders are called upon to seek a delicate balance between conceptual thinking and a daily approach to operation.



When servant leadership theory is integrated into the school system, the impact will be that teachers and pupils will be provided with a loving and caring environment for teaching and learning and this will in turn increase pupils' academic achievement.

2.8.4 Gender perspectives

Gender is the socially constructed differences ascribed by society to men and women (United Nations, 2005). Gender perspective is concerned with the associations, classification and people's perceptions regarding being a male or female and how these influence their ascription of roles,

actions, their own and relational response, opportunities, social roles and interactions (Connell, 2020).

While sex may imply the permanent and immutable biological characteristics common to individual's gender defines traits forged throughout the history of social relations. Gender, although it originates in objective biological divergences, goes far beyond the physiological and biological specifics of the two sexes in terms of the roles each is expected to play. Gender differences are therefore social constructs, inculcated on the basis of a specific society's particular perceptions of the physical differences and the assumed tastes, tendencies and capabilities of men and women. Gender differences, unlike the immutable characteristics of sex, are universally conceded in historical and comparative social analyses to be variants that are transformed over time and from one culture to the next, as societies change and evolve (Kang, Hense, Scheersoi, & Keinonen, 2019). Groups and individuals adapt more easily and also expect others particularly their leaders to do same due to the socially constructed perspectives. Individual differences therefore exist in the degree to which people hold and reflect varied perspectives on gender(Shannon et al., 2019)



Gender relations comprise specific mechanisms whereby different cultures determine the functions and responsibilities of each sex. These may involve the determination of access to material resources such as land, credit or even training. They also apply to more ephemeral resources, such as power. The implications for everyday life are many, and include the division of labour, the responsibilities of family members inside and outside the home, education and opportunities for professional advancement and a voice in policy-making (Fiske et al, 2007).

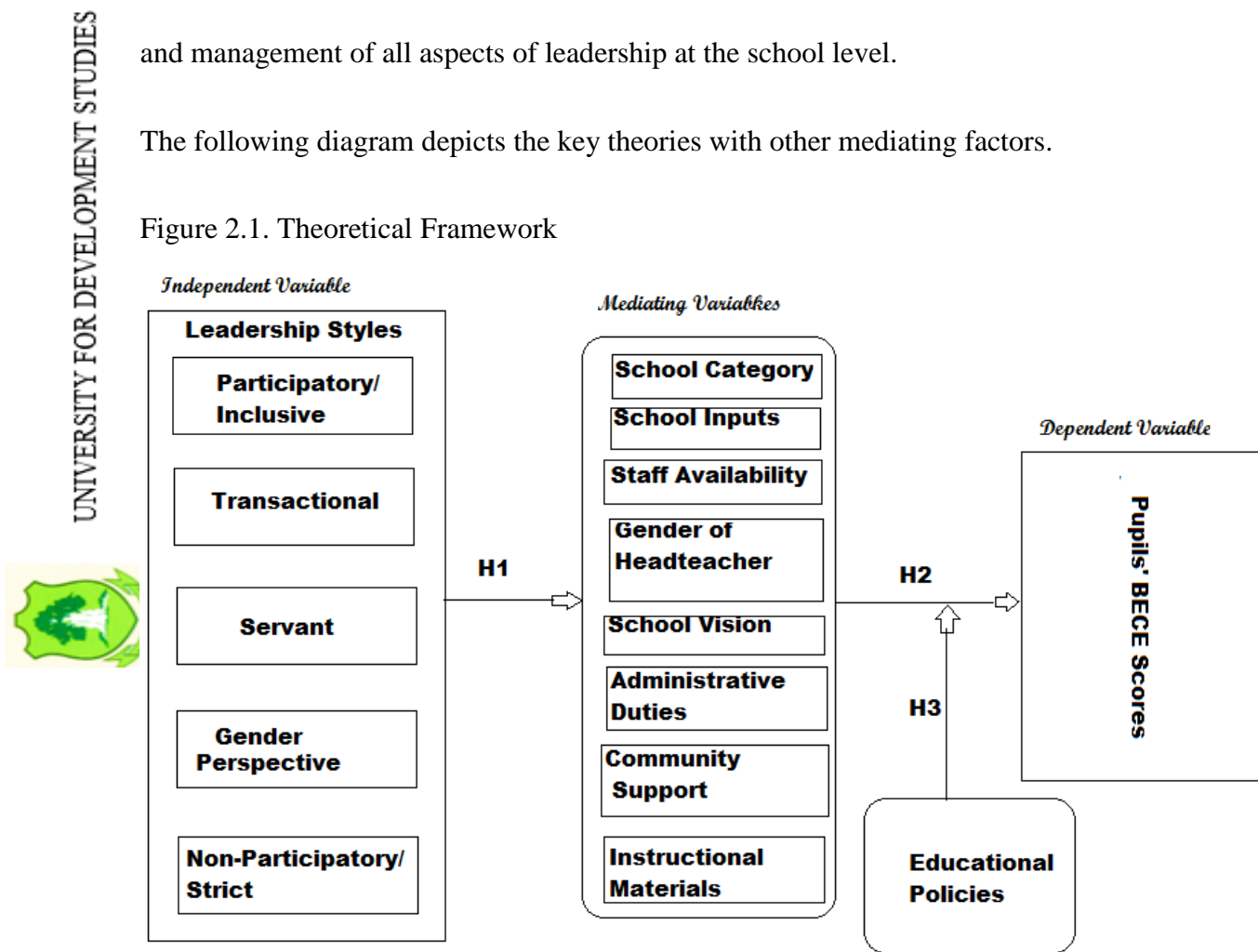
In organisational and policy context, gender perspectives come across as critical ingredient for consciously making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of

the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs. By remaining aware about the differences that exist the tendency to perpetuate inequality may be minimised and positively women and men benefit fairly and equally (Johnson, Gerber, & Muhoza, 2019).

Education institutions are public organisations policy making and implementation of decisions around their leadership must be mindful of these socially ascribed gender functions and the specific needs of men and women. If education policies and impact of leadership are to be sustained, they must consider existing gender disparities and differences that exist particularly in the appointment and management of all aspects of leadership at the school level.

The following diagram depicts the key theories with other mediating factors.

Figure 2.1. Theoretical Framework



Source: Author's Construct (2019)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

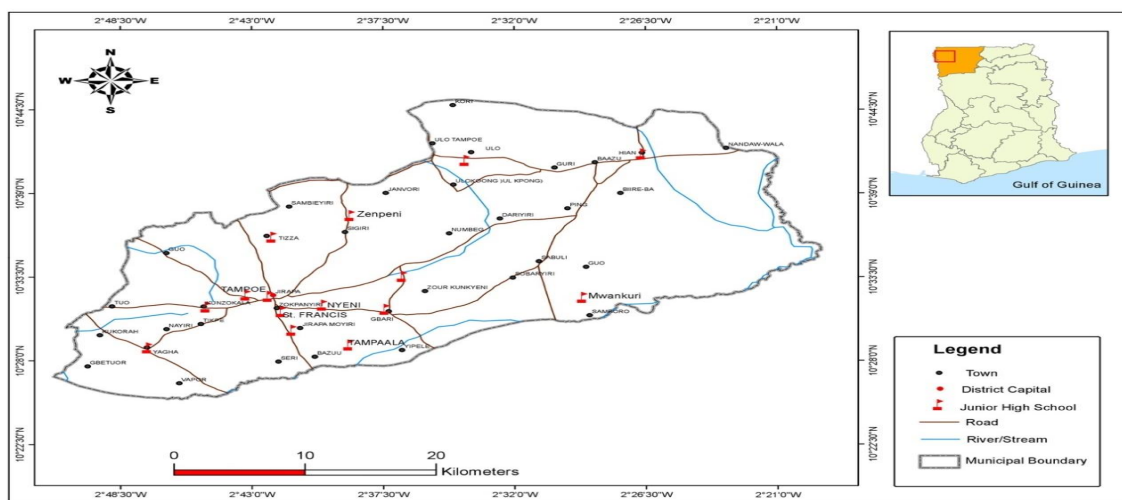
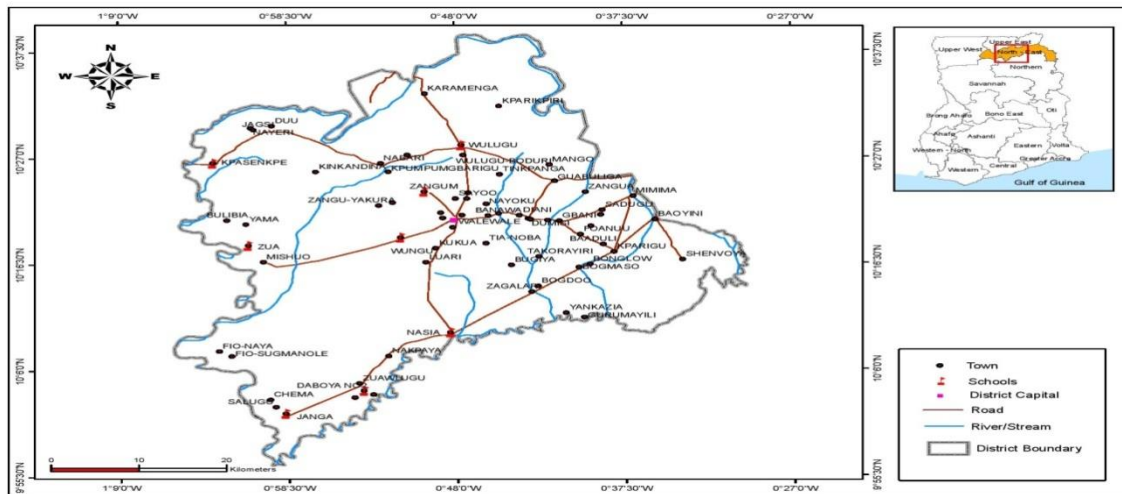
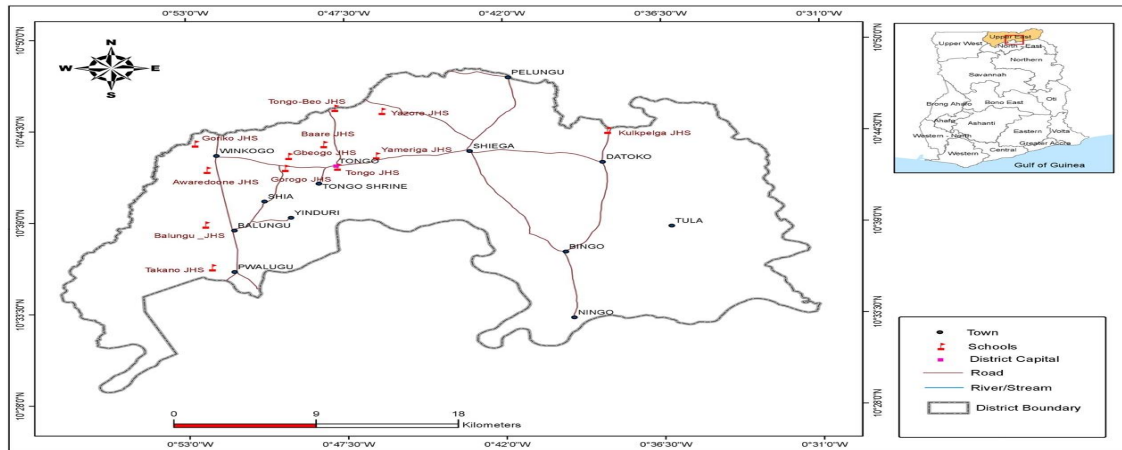
3.1 Introduction

Chapter three presents the methodology and other processes that guided the study. It begins with the profile of the study area in order to set a clear context under which the study has been situated. Beyond the profile of study area, the research philosophy, research strategy, research design and the sampling and sampling technique adopted for the study and the reasons for their adoption are presented. The chapter further presents the scale of measurement, target population, research instruments, types of data, method of data analysis, the reliability and validity of the research and the ethical issues that were considered during the study.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area

The study was conducted in three geographical regions of Northern Ghana. At the beginning of the study Northern Ghana comprised Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions. Two additional regions, namely Savannah and North East were carved out of the then Northern Region in 2018. Northern Ghana has been selected based on its incidence of poverty and educational deprivation. In an ideal situation, the study should have considered all the districts within the chosen regions. However, due to resource and time constraints and also given the depth and qualitative nature of the research this was not feasible. Three (3) districts have therefore been purposively selected. These are West Mamprusi, Jirapa and Talensi. The following depicts the location of the study districts.

Figure 3.1 Maps of study districts



Source: Author's construct (2018)

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The Jirapa District is located in the Upper West Region. With a land size of 1,667 square kilometers Jirapa shares boundaries to the south with Nadowli District, to the east with Sissala District, to the west with Lawra District and to the north with Lambussie Karni. The next district, West Mamprusi has a total land size area of 2,610.4 sq km stretching from East Mamprusi Municipal and Gushegu Municipal to the east, North Gonja District, Savelugu Municipal and Kumbungu District to the south as well as Builsa North District, Kassena-Nankana Municipal, Bolgatanga Municipal to the north and to the extreme west is Mamprusi Moagduri District. The Talensi District has a total land area of about 838.4 km² and is bordered to the north by Bolgatanga District, south by the West and East Mamprusi Districts, Kassena-Nanakana District to the west and the Bawku West District to the east.

The population of Jirapa District, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, was 88,402 with 53.0 percent females and 47.0 percent for males. The population has been projected at about 104,273 people by 2018. Similarly, West Mamprusi District had 121,117 people in 2010. This comprised of 59,566 of males and 61,551 females. The population of the Talensi District was 94,650, comprising 40,841 males and 40.353 females. The population was projected to be 116,643 by 2018.



All three districts are classified as rural, with 82% of the people living in rural settlements. Their major occupation is farming-largely food crops with some livestock. The major food crops are maize, guinea corn, millet, beans, rice, and yam, among many others. The most common economic trees are the Shea nuts, dawadawa, baobab and acacia. Economically, trees of value exist in all the three districts, serving as source of livelihood to majority of the people. The most common economic trees are shea, dawadawa, mango, neem, baobab, cashew and teak.

The high incidence of poverty among others impact on education in these districts. Indeed, educational deprivation was among the key factors that influenced the choice of the study districts. Leithwood et al. (2004) argue that the effect of leadership on education is greatest where the learning needs of pupils are severer. The number and quality of schools across all three districts remain very poor. Jirapa Municipality has 45 junior high schools, 68 primary schools and 73 kindergartens (Government of Ghana, 2016). There are very few secondary schools across these districts and only two nursing training institutions located in Jirapa. Apart from these there is no other tertiary institution in any of the three districts and this implies that thousands of pupils from junior high schools in these districts either contend with access to the few senior high schools or move outside the district after their JHS education which proves challenging to them and their parents and guardians due to poverty.

The trend is similar in the other two districts. West Mamprusi District has 48 pre-schools, 106 primary schools, 36 junior high schools, two senior high schools and one vocational school. However, the district is still one of the few least endowed districts with very low literacy levels in the Upper East Region and the Northern Ghana in general (Government of Ghana, 2015).

The Talensi District has 158 schools of which 70% are classified as highly deprived due to lack of infrastructure, water and sanitation facilities as well as poor furniture. There are 48 public pre-schools and eight private, 48 public primary schools, 35 public JHS, one special school for the deaf and two vocational schools. Inadequate teaching and learning materials, lack of trained teachers and teacher accommodation remain key challenges to quality education in the Talensi District (Government of Ghana, 2016).

3.3 Research Philosophy

Every researcher has a set of assumptions about what constitute knowledge, nature of existence and values and these play out in their work (Saunders, 2019). The assumptions about the nature of reality and what can be known created a global debate in the research world and has brought about a variation of schools of thought in the research community such as positivism, constructivism, pragmatism, realism, naturalism and postmodernism(Creswell,2017). Constructivists believe that reality is socially and culturally constructed through language and that humans give meaning to what they see and that the researcher is part not outside the reality he or she seeks to study. Reality therefore is not independent of the knower (Sounders, 2019).

Positivism is the direct opposite of constructivism. Positivists believe that reality is objective and measurable and that reality is independent of the knower. Pragmatism is a combination of both positivism and constructivism (Crossman, 2019). The pragmatist believes that reality is both constructed and discovered. What is important is that any knowledge should be able to add value to human existence.

The research philosophy that was adopted for this study was the pragmatic philosophy because the researcher believes that knowledge is both constructed and discovered. The adoption of the pragmatic research philosophy meant that the researcher had to adopt both deductive and inductive theory development approaches. Transformational, transactional, servant-leader and theories were employed and supported by gender perspectives to provide a framework for deductive analysis while the data collected in the field provided the basis for inferences and induction.

3.4 Research Design

The research design that was adopted for this study was the cross-sectional design. This design is best used with the pragmatic philosophy because it allows for both quantitative and qualitative analysis (Creswell, 2013). A cross-sectional design meant that the mixed method research strategy had to be adopted to enable the researcher collect both qualitative and quantitative data for the study. This made the strength of the study stronger than either quantitative alone or qualitative alone.

Yin (2009) mentioned that the mixed method strategy necessarily goes with the pragmatic research philosophy because of the two levels of analysis that would be carried out. The mixed method which was descriptive, quantitative, explanatory and cross-sectional in nature (Yin, 2009) was adopted for this study because the researcher wanted the sample size to be as large as possible and in addition, the researcher also needed to interview key informants and interpret their perceptions, feelings attitudes and what they considered to be academic achievements and how they felt headteachers could influence the academic achievements of their pupils.

3.5 Sampling Process



A good sample is possible based on clear steps for sampling. The process for arriving at the sample for this study involved a clear definition of the target population, selection of a sample frame linked to identification of a number of sampling techniques and sample size determination (Taherdoost, 2016).

Multi-stage cluster sampling was adopted. According to Taherdoost (2016), multi-stage cluster sampling involves clustering diverse groups involved in the study and based on pre-defined characteristics. This enabled the researcher select representative sample from each cluster and at

various stages. The multi-stage cluster sampling characterised the sampling process based on its strength in providing for the combination of both probability and non-probability techniques. The following are specific details of the sampling process.

3.5.1 Target population

A study population has to do with the full set of cases, units or total number people or individuals from which a sample is to be derived ((Williman2017 and Saunders et al., 2019). Population can also be described as the entire or total set of all possible measurements (Kathori, 2009). The target population for this study was limited to the key stakeholders of education in the three districts because they had adequate knowledge about the context, what constitute academic performance and how this is affected by leadership styles of headteachers. These stakeholders included all headteachers, current pupils, School Management Committee (SMC) members, Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs), immediate past pupils who benefited from the heads of schools under study, District Directors of Education (DDE), Circuit Supervisors and Assistant Directors of Education (ADs).

3.5.2 Sample site determination

The five regions of Northern Ghana, i.e Upper West, Upper East, North-East, Savannah and Northern Regions have 52 districts. It was impossible to collect data from all the fifty-two districts. There was, therefore a need for sampling. A list of districts in Northern Ghana was compiled and used to construct a sampling frame. Simple random sampling technique was used to select three districts from the sample frame. These were Jirapa District in the Upper West Region, Talensi District in the Upper East Region and West Mamprusi District in the North East Region.

3.5.3 Sample size determination

The sample size for the study was calculated based on Cochran's formula for indefinite population as shown below

$$N = \frac{Z^2 pq}{d^2} \text{ (Cochran 1963) Where}$$

$$N =$$

$$Z = \text{(accurate coefficient of 95\% confidence level)}$$

P = the prevalence of ANC attendance (50% if prevalence not known)

$$q = 1 - p = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$$

d = degree of freedom (0.05)

$$N = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2}$$

$$N = \frac{3.84 \times 0.25}{0.0025}$$

$$N = \frac{0.96}{0.0025}$$

$$N = 384$$



3.5.4 Sample size selection procedures

The procedures involved the number of schools, number of stakeholders and how to select from each. The ideal was to cover all schools and education stakeholders within the three selected districts. However, due to resource and logistical constraints, a manageable and fairly representative sample size was drawn using stratified and simple random sampling techniques.

There were 124 public junior high schools in the study districts. These comprised of 38 from West Mamprusi District, 48 in Jirapa District and 38 in Talensi District. To select the individual schools from which the research participants were to be selected, a quota of 33% was assigned to each district. Thirty-three percent was considered representative enough and this yielded 16 schools for Jirapa District and 13 each for Talensi and West Mamprusi Districts. All junior high schools which had the same headteacher consistently in the last five to seven years were purposively selected. Less than 20% of schools from each district had their heads serving same school for five years or more. In each district, the rest of the schools were clustered into rural, peri-urban and urban and from each cluster a simple random sampling technique was used to select the remaining schools. To arrive at the individual participants, a list comprising past prefects from each school, pupils who were still in school at the time of the study, teachers, headteachers, circuit supervisors, School Management Committees (SMC) and Parents Teachers Association (P.T.A) executive members was drawn. This constituted six strata. Different quotas were assigned to each stratum, based mainly on the size of each stratum. A quota of 16% was assigned to each of the SMC/PTA and continuing pupils' strata. Also, 10% was assigned to the past prefects' stratum, 25% to the teachers' stratum, 15% to the headteachers' stratum, 11% to circuit supervisors' stratum and the districts education officers' stratum was given a quota of 10%. Simple random sampling was used to select specific individuals from each stratum and this gave a total of 384 research participants from whom most of the general data was gathered.

3.6 Types and Sources of Data

The data collected was determined by the variables under consideration. As contained in the research objectives, the major variables and their specific indicators included leadership styles,

BECE scores, factors that promote or hinder the duties of the heads and practical recommendations.

Based on these, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected.

The qualitative data included background information on the study area, category of school, quality of school infrastructure, other school inputs and role of SMC and P.T.A. They also included biographical information on school heads and other respondents. In addition to these, the study gathered the experiences, views and perceptions regarding the leadership styles of headteachers in junior high schools, factors influencing the style adopted and challenges militating against headteachers' effectiveness in the discharge of their duties

The study also collected some quotes and testimonies that were of significance to understanding the subject matter. These were derived from headteachers, pupils and SMC/PTA members. The key sources from which secondary data was obtained included Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service plans, reviews and progress reports. They also included school records and other publications from some Non-Governmental Organizations. The primary data was derived from interviews and focus group discussions with respondents.

Quantitative data comprised of the number of male and female heads in the schools, student enrolment disaggregated by sex and other school resources notably classrooms, furniture, teaching

and learning materials, fund receipts for school plans and school expenditure. Student Basic Education Certificate Examination scores constituted a significant chunk of the quantitative data.

The study depended on the percentage scores which were already processed and stored at school level. These were validated through comparison with what district education offices had and what the Education Management Information System had.




3.7 Data sources and instruments

No one evaluation method, tool or metric is sufficient in determining leadership effectiveness or otherwise in any organization. The study adopted a combination of research-based tools and processes. For BEC scores, the researcher innovated and employed a specially designed *BECE matrix* that enabled the extraction of the data covering the the school, year, percentage BECE scores disaggregated by gender. Semi structured questionnaire was the key tool used for in order to gather data from heads, teachers and past pupils. This was considered most appropriate as it contained some closed ended questions for background and other quantitative data. It also enriched the data collection due to the many open-ended questions that it contained which facilitated capturing of more qualitative and detailed responses. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Version 6S) was the tool used for obtaining data on leadership styles (see details under measuring leadership styles). A key instrument for data collection was Focus Group Discussion Guide. This was a brief guide used for conducting the focus groups with School Management Committees, Parent Teacher Association members and pupils who were in school. The guide contained few open-ended questions and also instructions on how it was to be used. The strength of the guide was its ability for determining the number of participants to each focus group, the structure and duration of each group discussion and the nature of questions that were to be asked with space for probing for details. In addition to these, the researcher developed and used an observation checklist. The checklist mainly contained key items and events that were to be observed in selected study school. The checklist contained tips, steps and provision for capturing the quality and availability of school inputs, how selected head teachers went about their daily responsibilities interacting with others and head teacher instructional support to teachers by way of their own lesson observation and feedback after the lessons.

The following table represents the key respondents from which data was obtained and the corresponding instruments that were used.

Table 3.2: Data Sources and Instruments

Respondent/data source	Instrument used
Examination scores	Specially designed <i>BECE matrix</i>
Teachers, circuit supervisors, directors, Assistant Directors	Semi-structured questionnaire
Teachers	Multifactor leadership questionnaire
Headteachers	Open-ended questionnaire
Headteachers	Multifactor leadership questionnaire
SMCs, PTAs, pupils in school	Focused group discussion guide
Student Prefects	Interview guide
Former Junior High School pupils	Interview guide
 Other data	Checklist

Source: Author's construct (2018)

3.8 Methods of Data Collection

All secondary data were collected through desk review. As BECE scores were already documented in the districts and schools the study adopted direct extraction of these scores. In each school the researcher accessed the school the BECE scores and analysed and contained in their Education Management Information System (EMIS). Relevant scores covering the study period was then extracted and for purposes of triangulation compared with what existed in district EMIS units. In

the case of respondents who were appreciably educated notably, teachers, circuit supervisors, district and assistant directors of education, questionnaire administration was the method for gathering primary data, while semi-structured interviews and focus groups discussions were conducted with the headteachers and District Education officers.

A 360-degree rating was the method used in collecting data regarding follower perspectives and experiences. In each school, two teachers conducted an independent assessment and rating of their headteacher's styles of leadership along the 21 statements as contained on a Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire. In addition, self-assessment was applied in collecting data with respect to headteachers' perception about their own styles of leadership. Each Headteacher did a self-assessment by responding to the same sets of statements.

At the district level, the study administered questionnaire to directors of education, selected Assistant Directors of education responsible for Human Resources and Supervision and all Circuit Supervisors with responsibility for supervising the study schools. Apart from the questionnaire the researcher conducted face to face interview with each of these stakeholders. This was necessary given the depth of quality of data being sought. The face to face interviews also aimed to confirm and clarify some responses in the already filed questionnaire that required clarity.

At the school level, similar blended approach of questionnaire administration and face to face interviews was used in obtaining other data from head teachers and selected teachers. Given their age and location the researcher conducted face to face interviews with the past pupils.

Focus group discussions were also conducted in order to obtain the views and experiences of School Management Committee members, Parent Teacher Associations and pupils who were still in Junior High School at the time of the data collection. Focus group discussions were included as these serve to solicit participants' perceptions, their own rich experiences, practices and knowledge



clarified within a group which may not be that rich with other methods such as interview (Eeuwijk and Angehrn, 2017). The focus groups involved detailed planning which was summarised in the focused group discussion guide. Key elements of the preparations included 13 prioritised and open ended questions, the number and composition of participants to each group, venue, date, time and recording materials. Prior permission was also sought before the actual conduct of the discussions.

In the case of School Management Committees and Parent Teachers Association group eight (8) people participated. This comprised 2 women each from SMC and PTA. The same number was drawn for men. The study prioritised core executives notably of the SMCs and PTAs. This was based on their indepth understanding about the day to day work of the school and the head teachers.

The focus group with SMC/PTA members in each selected school lasted one and half hours. In some cases, there were follow ups to clarify and deepen some responses that had earlier been provided. Similarly, focus group discussion was conducted with pupils currently in Junior High School. Each group with pupils comprised 8 members, 2 girls from JHS2, 2 boys from JHS2, 2 girls from JHS3 and 2 Boys from JHS3. Priority was given to boys and girls who were either school or class prefects. The focus group with pupils lasted one hour. Discussions from the focus groups

were recorded using audio recorder.

The study supplemented these data collection methods with some amount of direct/overt observation. The observations took place both before and after interviews depending on the phenomenon observed. For instance, for all physical and school environment related issues the researcher observed these before interview. Following the interviews some follow up observation was made on some of these phenomena again while all classroom observation was conducted after the interviews with heads and teachers. The observation served a dual purpose; for obtaining more information and for triangulating data collected.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis started soon after collection. This included a thorough review of every filled questionnaire by the researcher, supported by field assistants and data analyst. This review ensured that all gaps identified were quickly filled with no time lapse. The data was then cleaned and coded thematically, based on a pre-arranged coding system. Simple excel sheets and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) were used to enter, process and retrieve the processed data. The following are the specific ways quantitative and qualitative data were handled and processed.

3.9.1 Quantitative analysis

The analysis of quantitative data involved descriptive statistics; simple frequencies, percentages and cross tabulation of key variables. Leadership styles that were on a Likert scale were further computed by grouping the 21 statements into seven factor areas along the transformational leadership continuum. This applied to both the headteacher self-rating and follower assessment. The scores from each factor area yielded a style. The Likert scale contained 0 to 4; where 0 represents not at all, 1 for once in a while, 2 sometimes, 3 fairly often and 4 as frequently, if not always.

As is expected, under the interpretation on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Aviolo & Bass, 2000), the frequency with which each statement fits the headteacher on their self-score was determined. The maximum rating was 4 implying if all 3 statements under each factor area were rated 4 then the total score for that area would be 12. A score between 9 and 12 are higher and correspond to more participatory and higher outcomes of desired leadership if they are within the first four styles. The opposite represents higher values around the last three passive styles. Scores of 5 to 8 are considered moderate while 0 to 4 are low. In addition to the determination of score

under each style area the analysis also involved average scores among the four transformational and three passive styles.

Analysis of Basic Education Certificate Examination scores involved cross tabulation of the percentage of pupils who received the pass mark of aggregate 6 to 36 in each of the junior high schools, first grouped under schools whose heads were assessed to be inclusive and those considered less inclusive in their leadership style over the period 2010/2011- 2016/17.

From literature review and data gathered, the study identified other variables with significant influence on student scores in Basic Education Certificate Examination. These included the gender of the headteacher, i.e. whether male or female, number of years of headteacher's experience, school category, student to teacher ratio, having a school vision/performance plan, actual teacher deficit, time spent on administrative/management duties as against other leadership tasks like visioning and community support.

Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression was used to examine the influence of leadership style of the school head as well as the other covariates. In the analysis, the leadership style of headteacher was measured as a dummy variable that takes a value of 1 if the respondent is a headteacher with participatory leadership styles and 0 if otherwise. The school category was measured using a value

of 1 if the respondent school is located in a rural area and 0 if otherwise. In the case of teacher to student ratio, the measure involved the ratio of current staff to current school enrolment and included in the model to predict Basic Education Certificate Examination performance. Furthermore, a headteacher that has a school vision translated into a performance improvement plan was measured as a dummy variable; assigned a value of 1 if there is a vision with a performance plan and 0 if the respondent does not have. Student to teacher ratio and teacher deficit were similarly measured by assigning a 1 if a particular head has recorded a teacher deficit and 0 if otherwise and 1 if a school has all the subject teachers and 0 if otherwise.



3.9.2 Qualitative analysis

Qualitative data was analysed manually. Data captured through audio recordings were transcribed. All qualitative data was then sorted into themes with similar patterns and specific content. Testimonies and narratives were quoted verbatim but anonymised according to best research practice. The key qualitative data included responses relating to stakeholder perceptions, experiences about their heads, beliefs and attitudes of other stakeholders towards school heads, reasons why headteachers lead in particular ways, challenges facing headteachers and the way forward. Interview responses were extracted and presented along common responses, pre-determined themes, patterns and trends. Key quotes, testimonies and other human interest stories were summarized and presented in boxes within the write up. The quotes were, however, made anonymous to guarantee the confidentiality of respondents.

3.9.3 Validity

Validity of research instrument is simply the act of ensuring that the survey accurately measures what is intended to measure in respect to the leadership styles of headteachers and their impact on pupils' academic performance as well as the factors that affect headteachers' effectiveness in the discharge of their duty. To ensure validity, appropriate research procedures as outlined above were adopted for data collection and analysis.

3.9.4. Reliability

Reliability testing ensures that the survey instrument produces the same result across measure either within the same population or with similar population when repeated (Creswell, 2017). The reliability of the instrument was checked using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. According to George and Mallery (2010), excellent reliability coefficient is around 0.9, good is around 0.8,

adequate is around 0.7, questionable is around 0.6, poor is around 0.5 and unacceptable is less than 0.5.

3.9.5 Ethical issues

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), ethical consideration is one of the most significant aspects of research. Saunders et al. (2009) assert that ethics relate to how proper the researcher's behaviour is with regards to the fundamental rights of individuals who become or are influenced by the research study's focus. Ethics also applies to behavioural norms or requirements which guide ethical decisions regarding our behaviour and interactions with each other (Schindler and Cooper 2008).

In order to assure that perhaps the researcher gets access, gather, and sort and store information, analyse information, and record the results of the study morally and responsibly, the researcher sought the required authorization from appropriate officials notably the District Directors of Education and Head teachers of the study schools. A copy of letter attached as an appendix. In the case of audio recordings prior permission was obtained from the focus group members. Again, the respondents were made to understand and assured that their views which were being solicited were purely for academic exercise and that they could choose to opt out of the participation should they become uncomfortable with it. They were also made to understand that their confidentiality and anonymity were assured and all responses were highly respected. This ensured an appreciable level of confidence in respondents and helped the researcher to obtain accurate, reliable, and largely non-biased responses.

3.9.6 Chapter summary

In conclusion, this chapter initially described the profile of the study area. It then looked at the various types of methodological approaches used to address the research problem. The chapter then outlined the primary elements that are important and relevant to the methodology used including research philosophy which looks at nature and the development of knowledge. The chapter further reviewed the various research strategies, research designs, data collection methods or techniques, population and sample frame. It additionally looked at the framework of data analysis to interpret the findings. Finally, the validity and reliability tests of the study and also the ethical issues involved were addressed.



CHAPTER FOUR

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four contains the presentation of data and discussions on the background characteristics of respondents and the environment within which the Headteacher operates and how these affect the academic performance of pupils. The key respondents were headteachers, teachers, and pupils in school, past pupils, education managers, school management committees and parent teacher associations. The key contextual issues presented under this chapter include ownership and managerial responsibility of the schools and its impact on pupils' academic performance, physical and social setting, availability of physical educational facilities and other key school inputs that characterize the working environment of the Headteachers. Those emphasized include teachers, pupils and teaching and learning materials.

Majority of the schools in the study area are rural and deprived of both social amenities and basic school inputs. The Central Government through District, Municipal and Metropolitan Assemblies remain the major owners and managers of the junior high schools though the Catholic Education Unit also manages a sizeable number of them. Classrooms, furniture, teaching and learning materials and sanitation facilities are the key physical inputs that the study identified. Beyond their availability, the study also assessed the conditions of each school in order to provide evidence on how supportive or otherwise they are in promoting the headteachers' work. Also, school vision, plan, budget and funds received are the other inputs considered here. The chapter concludes that all headteachers, irrespective of their gender, possess the minimum academic qualifications and professional experience in order to improve student performance. The inputs exist but are generally inadequate to promote teaching and learning.



4.2 Background Information of Respondents

This section looks at the background information of all respondents. The respondents are categorised into two; those directly involved in teaching and or managing the education system on day to day basis. This category comprised of class teachers, headteachers, circuit supervisors, front liners and directors. The other category of respondents comprised of members of school management committee (SMC), parent teacher association (PTA) executives and both continuing and past pupils.

Table 4.1: Number of respondents

S/N	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
1	Gender		
	Male	148	62
	Female	91	38
	Total	240	100
2	Highest Academic/Professional Qualification		
	SSCE	23	5.9
	Diploma	163	42.4
	B.A/B.Ed/Bsc/	39	10.2
	Master Degree	15	3.7
	Total	240	100
3	Years of Experience		
	1 – 5	57	15
	6 – 10	129	33.5
	11 -15	39	10.2
	16 – 20	7	1.8
	20 and above	7	1.8
	Total	240	100



4	Rank in GES		
	Pupil Teacher	23	5.9
	Superintendent .II	34	8.85
	Superintendent .I	39	10.2
	Senior Superintendent II	60	15.6
	Senior Superintendent I	30	7.5
	Principal Superintendent	20	5.2
	Assistant Director II	19	5,1
	Assistant Director I	15	3.7
	Total	240	100

Source: Field survey (2019)

4.2.1. Gender of respondents

As shown in Table 1.1 above, the teacher- respondents were unevenly distributed. We had both males and females as school teachers. The percentage of male teachers who constituted the final respondents was higher than their female counterparts. A hundred and forty-eight persons, representing 62% respondents were male teachers while ninety-one persons, representing 38% of the total respondents were female. The gender imbalance is a reflection of the imbalances at many

work places in Africa as reflected in the varied perspectives around gender (Wendy, 2012). Aly and Shields (2010) revealed that women are discriminated upon in almost all spheres of life including politics and managerial positions at both public and private corporations in Africa. Statistics from Eurostat (2019) revealed that globally, there are 27 states in which women account for less than 10 per cent of directors in the education system. As at June, 2019, UN Women (2019) found out that only 24.3 per cent education directors across Africa are women. As indicated in Table 4.4 below, most of the pupils-respondents (75%) preferred to be taught by the female teachers. A study by Seguino (2013) in the Central Province of Kenya revealed that pupils who

were taught by female teachers performed better than those taught by their male counterparts. The study, however did not consider the methodologies employed by each teacher and the conditions of schools under which male and female teachers taught.

4.2.2 Academic/professional qualifications and experience

Most of the respondents were well educated. Only twenty-three persons (5.9%) had SSCE. The rest had acquired at least a diploma certificate from a tertiary institution. A hundred and sixty-three (42.4%) of the respondents acquired a Diploma in Education at recognised teacher training institutions. Thirty-nine persons, representing 10.2% of the teacher- respondents had had their first degrees while 3.7% had obtained their master'sdegrees. Most school teachers had professional degrees in their fields. Less than 10% started off as non-professionals but went back to school to obtain professional certificates in education. So as at the time this data was being collected all respondents had professional certificates in education. A hundred and sixty-three persons (42.4%) acquired a Diploma in Education at a recognised teacher training institution. Thirty-nine persons, representing 10.2% of the school- based respondents had had their first degrees while fifteen persons representing 3.7% of these respondents had obtained their master'sdegrees. Those that started off as non-professionals went back to school to obtain professional certificates in Education.

So as at the time this data was being collected all respondents had professional certificates.

As shown in Table 4.1, most of the respondents were highly experienced teachers with some having served GES for up to twenty years and above. Fifty-seven persons, representing 15% of this category of respondents have worked with GES for about five years. A hundred and twenty-nine persons representing 33.5% have worked with GES for over 10 years. Thirty-nine persons, representing 10.2% have worked with GES for about fifteen years. Fourteen respondents have been with GES for over 20 years. The study found that the qualifications and experience of teachers in



the three schools under study may be one of the factors that affected pupils' BECE scores. This finding conforms to that of Olaniyan et al. (2015) who found that the academic qualifications and experience of teachers in Kaduna State of Nigeria affected the academic performance of their pupils in the Junior School Certificate Examination. Their study concluded that rural schools in Kaduna State were deprived of many resources including human resource which involved low teacher numbers and qualifications and this was affecting the academic achievement of pupils. Akinola (2016), in a study in Nigeria, concluded that the quality of a headteacher in terms of academic qualification has a positive influence on student achievement. The higher the academic qualification, the greater the likelihood that such a head would cause improved school and student achievement. In Ghana, the minimum requirement for consideration as a teacher in the Junior High School is a diploma.

Table 4.2: Age and Experience of Headteachers

Age and experience	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Age	42	22	60	41.74	9.422
Years as professional teacher	42	3	38	14.52	8.523
Years as a headteacher	42	1	26	7.69	6.498
Years as head of present school	42	1	13	4.33	3.001

Source: Field survey (2018)

The age of school heads ranged from 22 to 60 years. The average age is 42 years. Majority of the female heads are between the ages 30 and 40 years. The ages of school heads as shown in Table 4.2 above, ranged from 22 to 60 years. The average age is 42 years. Majority of the female heads



are between the ages 30 and 40 years. These ages, particularly for females, reflect a gradual departure from a delayed to an earlier entry into leadership. Ibukum, Oyewole and Abe (2011) found a significant correlation between the age of a school principal and their leadership effectiveness when they conducted a study on leadership and its impact on pupils' performance in rural schools in Oyo State of Nigeria. They concluded that the older principals tend to deliver much better in their role than the younger ones.

All the headteachers in the study schools have been professional teachers before assuming the headship position. The minimum number of years served as a classroom teacher prior to assuming headship was three. Majority possessed at least 15 years of instructional experiences with the longest being 38years. This is consistent with the findings by Esia-Donkor (2014) which showed that public basic schools in Ghana are administered in most cases by experienced teachers who serve as leaders. To be a professional teacher with considerable teaching experiences prior to assuming the role of head is a positive development as this potentially equips the head to be able to effectively support teachers particularly in their instructional needs.

Aside instructional experiences and academic qualification, the length of headship is important.

The average length of experience as a headteacher in the three schools under study is eight years.

While less than 20% of heads have just one-year experience, the rest have more than five years with the longest serving headteacher having served for 26 years. The findings on instructional experience and length of service are supported by Lonyian and Kuranchie (2018) who found that majority of headteachers in Ghana have taught for between 16 and 30 years, and have served between five to 15 years as headteachers. On presence and retention, the average length of headship in their present school is four years though some heads have been there for just one year while others have been at post consistently in the same school for 13 years. Overall, no significant



variation was observed in relation to the length of headship and retention between males and females.

The ability of heads to effectively manage the disciplinary and other issues in schools is noted to be dependent on the approach and styles employed. This in turn are influenced by variables such as sex, years of teaching experience and age (Ofeimu, Ahmed, & Kolawole, 2018). The general trend in Ghana is that most headteachers first acquire a professional qualification and seek employment with the Ghana Education Service before they are appointed headteachers. Others are employed as non-professional teachers and in the course of work they undertake professional teaching courses.

Majority of headteachers have instructional experience before assuming school headship. Even on becoming heads some still continue to teach especially where there is teacher deficit and or when some teachers are absent either due to travel commitment, health, maternity and study leave reasons. From headship position, it is a common practice to progress into leadership roles at the district, regional and eventually national levels. All these require time and experience to achieve. It is therefore important that the headteacher's age, academic qualification and experience are

situated within the framework of the teachers and education managers who were respondents.

Table 4.3 Positions of Respondents

Respondent	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Head teachers	35	7	42	17
Teachers	66	33	96	35
District Directors of Education	0	3	3	100



Assistant Directors-Supervision	3	0	3	0
Assistant Directors-Human Resource	1	2	3	67
Circuit Supervisors	15	4	20	33
Total	120	49	169	28

Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in table 4.3, the study found that ninety-six persons representing 25% of the school based respondents were teachers. Of this, 35% were females and 65% were males. Forty-two persons representing 17.5% were Head Teachers of which 83% were males and 17% were females. Twenty persons, representing 8.3% were Circuit Supervisors with 77% of them being males and 33% females. Out of the Three Assistant Directors of Supervision, there was no female. There was, however, one male and two females among the Assistant Director of Human Resource.

Female representation in supervisory positions was very low as only 28.9% of Circuit Supervisors were females. This finding conforms to that of Ojo and Olaniyan (2008) where they observed that rural schools in Ogun State in Nigeria were largely supervised by male teachers because the females were few in number as compared to males and preferred to work in urban or semi-urban schools.

Socially constructed perspectives on gender may explain the variability of male and female employees in leadership positions in many organisations as it is noted that organisations tend to appoint more males than females in leadership positions due to the stereotype notions that males perform better than females. The variability in the number of educated men and women in Ghana also partly explains the variability of male and female supervisors in the three study districts.



Table 4.3 above also indicates a lower percentage of female headteachers as compared to male headteachers. This conforms to the data obtained from the Education Management Information System units which revealed that female share of headship remains very low. Out of 124 headteachers across the study districts, only 14% were women. It also conforms to the finding of Abonyi (2017) who found that in the study area in Ghana 80% of school leaders at the basic level were males while only 20% were women. Beyond Ghana, Mythili (2017) found that even though Rwanda ranks higher in female headship at the secondary level that translates to only 19%. Furthermore, the study by Mwanzia (2017) in Kenya confirmed that female share of school heads was 17% while Nogay and Beebe (2008) concluded based on their studies that a few women continue to hold the positions of high school principals at both district and sub county levels in Uganda and this should be a concern for all desirous of improving not only education systems but pupils' achievements. The under representation of women in the education sector conforms to the tenets of socially ascribed notion and practice that males tend to dominate women in all spheres of life and that some conscious efforts are being made to suppress the equal representation of women in public offices.

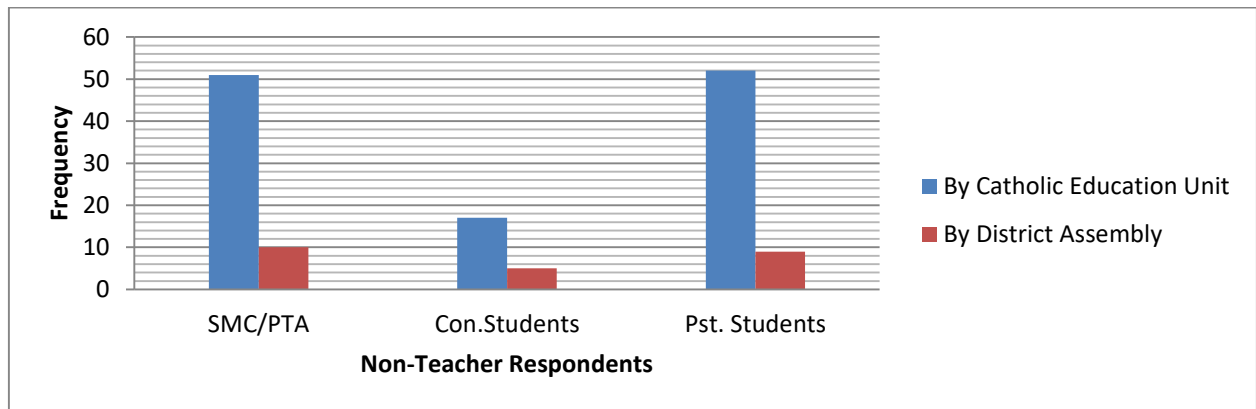
Table 4.4. Distribution of other Respondents

Respondent	Male	Female	Total	% of female
SMC/PTA	38	23	61	37.7
Past JHS pupils- Prefects	11	11	22	50
Pupils in school	31	30	61	49
Total	80	64	144	44.4

Source: Field survey (2019)

Table 4.4 indicates the distribution of education stakeholders other than teachers and school heads in the selected districts. The School Management Committee together with the PTA constituted 16% of the total respondents. Past pupils of the study schools constituted 10% while continuing pupils constituted 16% of the respondents. These had various opinions about school ownership and pupils' academic performance.

Figure 4.1 Other Respondents' Opinions on School Ownership and Performance of Pupils



Source: Field survey (2018)

Fifty-one respondents, representing 48.2% of the total respondents under the non-teacher category mentioned that schools led by religious education units outperform those by the District Assemblies. In total, fifty past pupils and twenty pupils who were still in school held the same view.

Table 4.5 Correlations between School Ownership and Academic Performance

Variable		Pupils' Performance	School leadership
Student Performance	Pearson Correlation $p \geq 0.05$	1	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.724
	N	240	20
Ownership	Pearson Correlation	.067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.724	
	N	384	384

Source: Field survey (2018)

To triangulate the opinions of the other respondents to those of the teacher and management respondents, a two tailed Pearson correlation was run. The result indicated a strong positive correlation between school ownership and pupils' academic performance. As indicated in figure 4.1, 83.6% of the respondents who were either members of School Management Council or Parents Teacher Association were of the opinion that schools managed by the Catholic Education Units performed better than those manage by the District Assemblies. Of the past pupils, 84% held a similar opinion and 66% of the continuing pupils mentioned that schools managed by the Catholic Education Units receive better tuition than those schools under the District Assemblies. This conforms to the findings of Owusu et al. (2013) when they found that schools that were managed especially by the Catholic Religious Unit in Cape Coast were more likely to exhibit some strong dynamics such as a strong management structure, double streams for supervision by school supervisors and unit and local managers, support for the development of teachers, collaboration



between the local religious congregation in the community as well as improved material and human inputs as all these combine to improve pupils' academic achievement.

A two-tailed Pearson correlation was run in order to triangulate responses of other respondents with those of teachers, headteachers and other education managers. The result indicated a strong positive correlation between school ownership and pupils' academic performance. At a p value of 0.05, a correlation figure of 0.067 obtained shows a statistically significant relationship between school ownership and student academic performance. This conforms to the view of the education managers and teachers; that is, the type of ownership and source of leadership for schools affect contributes significantly to pupils' academic performance. Overall, a review of BECE scores obtained from the various district education offices also confirmed that schools which were owned and managed by the religious education units showed higher scores than those managed by the District Assemblies. For instance, School X in the study district in the Upper West Region which is owned and managed by the Roman Catholic (RC) consistently performed better than the other schools under District Assembly in same district. This school has topped the score chat for over five academic years. Similarly, in Talensi District, school Y which is a Roman Catholic Managed school has topped the score chat for over five academic years. (The full records are attached to the lists of appendices). It therefore suffices to conclude that school ownership which involves appointment and oversight for the work of the headteacher has impact on pupils' academic achievement. Transformational leadership theory posits that workers would perform better if their individual interests are transformed to conform to the goals of the organisations. The management of these religious education units may have been able to make the teachers see the schools as part of their property as congregants and so the need to manage them them better.

As contained in Table 4.6 below, 76.2% of the junior high schools are owned and run by the government through her Municipal, District Assemblies and Local Authority. Over 70% of all schools in Jirapa District are owned and managed by the Roman Catholic Church. In West Mamprusi District, ownership and management of junior high schools was mainly by the District Assembly, (English/Arabic) Education Unit, and Local Authority. The Talensi District has similar trend as West Mamprusi District except that the District Assembly ownership of the schools is slightly dominant.

Table 4.6: School Type and Ownership

School Type	Frequency	Percent
Catholic Education Unit	7	16.7
Local Authority	10	23.8
District Assembly	20	47.6
Islamic Education Unit	1	2.4
Municipal Assembly	2	4.8
Special school -Central Government	1	2.4
Seventh Day Adventist Unit	1	2.4
Total	42	100

Source: Field Survey (2018)

4.2.3 Teachers to pupils ratio

The total number of teachers across the study schools is 430. By location, 82% are in the rural schools out of which 67% are classified as deprived schools. As contained in Table 4.7 below, 60.3% of female teachers work rural schools.

Table 4.7: Number of Teachers

Category	Schools	Male	Female	Total	Number required	Surplus/ Deficit
Rural deprived	23	172	60	232	179	53
Rural non-deprived	13	90	34	124	137	-13
Peri-urban deprived	3	21	10	31	23	-8
Peri-urban no deprived	1	6	4	10	11	-1
Urban deprived	1	11	3	14	14	0
Urban non-deprived	1	13	6	19	19	0
TOTAL	42	313	117	430	383	47

Source: Field survey (2018)



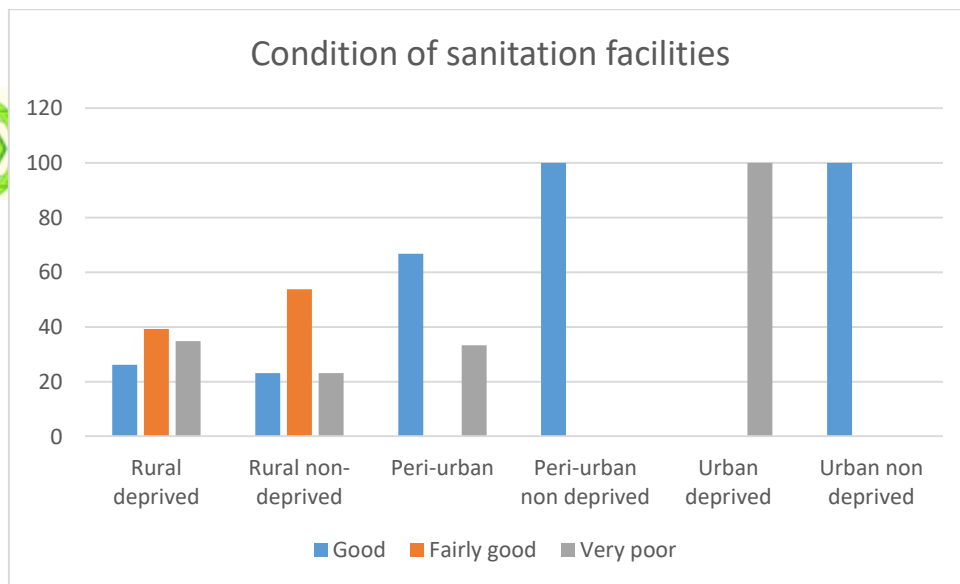
As shown in Table 4.7, the total number of teachers across the study schools is 430. By the Ghana Education Service policy of one teacher to 25 pupils at JHS level, the results demonstrate excess teachers with the exception of the urban deprived and urban non deprived schools where they lack a few teachers. On the contrary, schools categorized as rural deprived demonstrate a very positive student to teacher ratio of 10:1. Having up to 53 teachers in these schools can be considered as excess. This finding is not supported by Addy (2013) who observes that rural schools in Northern Ghana suffer from an acute shortage of teachers which often leads to a situation where majority of

such schools produce very poor results. It must be noted, however, that at the junior high school level, subject teaching is the emphasis. The implication is that even though these schools could be considered to have excess teachers, the headteachers' instructional success continues to be impeded by deficits in subject areas and teacher absenteeism. Transactional theorists are of the view that, the number of employees does no matter but how the leader is able to engage employees through social exchanges determine the level of their output.

4.2.4 School facilities and academic performance

Adequate school facilities make it possible for the school head to conduct their instructional duties and this leads to improved student performance. The availability or otherwise of physical buildings, furniture and teaching learning materials has immediate effect on the implementation of school curriculum (Mbunde, 2017). Availability of facilities provides a conducive learning environment and influences the headteacher's effort at improving student learning.

Figure 4.2 Sanitation Facilities



Source: Field survey (2019)



The total number of classrooms was 76 implying on, two classrooms to a school. Beyond the number, the classrooms have been of varying quality. Fifty-five percent (55%) could be considered fairly well. Twenty-nine percent (29%) were categorized as good while 17% were very poor, characterized by dilapidated, uncompleted and brick structures, and thatch roof. Though the number and quality of classrooms did not vary according to headship their present state does not guarantee effective learning.

The two inputs under consideration in discussing school sanitation facilities are toilets and urinals. Under UNICEF and Ghana Education Service safer school model, schools are considered safer when they have adequate and separate urinal and toilets for both boys and girls. District-wide school facilities across each district are generally inadequate and poor. The state of three key facilities across the districts and in the last seven years is contained in Appendix B.

The conditions tend to be worse in the study schools. All 42 schools had a total of 66 urinals and 21 4-seater KVIP toilets. These are inadequate considering a student population of 6,736 excluding their teachers. None of the schools was also found to have separate sanitation facilities reserved for teachers alone. The implication is that heads and teachers are compelled to lock some of the toilets

for their exclusive use or compete with pupils in the use of the limited facilities. In some of the schools, community members were also using the toilet facilities and these overstretched them.

Pupils resort to going home and or go to the bush to attend to nature, which affects teaching and learning.

Pupils also require quality furniture to enable them concentrate during lessons. The provision of furniture is a joint responsibility between local government through their assemblies and parents.

Though the headteachers are not responsible for directly procuring these items, they are to play a facilitating role. Availability of quality furniture therefore does not only guarantee student learning



but indicates how effective the head is in this role. In total, 3,108 pieces of furniture were available in all the study schools. This translates into a ratio of 2 or 3 pupils to a single desk which is worse than the GES recommended standard of one student to a desk.

Only 10% of the schools possess good dual desks that guarantee comfort in sitting and participating in lessons. The rest are characterized by weak single desks and chairs. Furniture appeared to have been more available in the urban or peri-urban schools than the rural ones. The researcher observed some pupils in the rural deprived schools sitting on the bare floor while a few depended on kitchen stools they brought from home. The effort of head teachers in ensuring the availability and quality of furniture was very low, irrespective of whether it was a male or female head.

Teaching and learning materials include recommended three core textbooks. These are English, Mathematics and Integrated Science. They also include any other supplementary readers notably story books and poster sheets. Other teaching and learning material are computers and their accessories, teaching aids such as globes, long rules, cardboards, large maps and boxes containing simple science equipment. Availability and access to the three core recommended textbooks were used as a determinant of availability of teaching and learning materials.



The study found that in the 2017/2018 academic year, 7,228 copies of the three recommended core textbooks were available. This represents only 48.7% of the required core textbooks. By policy, the study schools required a minimum of 14,939 copies. This implies general shortages in the availability of teaching and learning materials (TLMs). Pupils in the focus groups confirmed they mostly shared the few copies available and find this most inconvenient for their studies. This finding supports the Ministry of Education (2017) annual education sector performance review which noted that at the JHS level, not more than 60% of pupils' access core textbooks in English, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies and Information Communication (ICT). Rural non-deprived

junior high schools recorded the highest access with 68.1%, while those in urban non-deprived had the least availability of 5%. Access rate was 54%, 73% and 82% for English, Mathematics and Science respectively.

Majority of the core textbooks were very worn out and not suitable for use. Headteachers reported that on average the last time they received replacement for these TLMs was four years ago. As lamented by one female head teachers below the general lack of quality text books dominated feedback from most head teachers as barriers to their ability to improve the performance of pupils.

“Since I took over this school, I have not seen the core textbooks. I have been borrowing English text books from a colleague in a nearby school for my JHS three pupils. That is the only way by which they can learn. The books are simply not there” Female Headteacher in one JHS. 09/09/2018

The finding on inadequate textbooks and other learning materials is supported by the Annual Education Sector Performance Report which stated that no new textbooks were procured and distributed between 2015/2016 and 2016/2017 academic years (Ministry of Education, 2017). On adequacy or otherwise of school facilities Munde (2017) found that forty-one (41) schools in Kepe Province in Kenya, a comparatively rural area lacked basic school facilities that aid teaching and learning. The researcher observed that schools had fairly adequate exercise books, buildings and furniture but lacked textbooks and other teaching aids. Some heads resort to borrowing books from their colleagues and waiting on district offices to supply and there was no visible evidence of headteachers’ effort in facilitating availability of these facilities for their student learning.

In transformational leadership a key precondition to leadership effectiveness is the availability of organisation inputs. Initiative and innovation are also key in leadership especially in resource constrained context. Adequate and quality school inputs including infrastructure and teaching



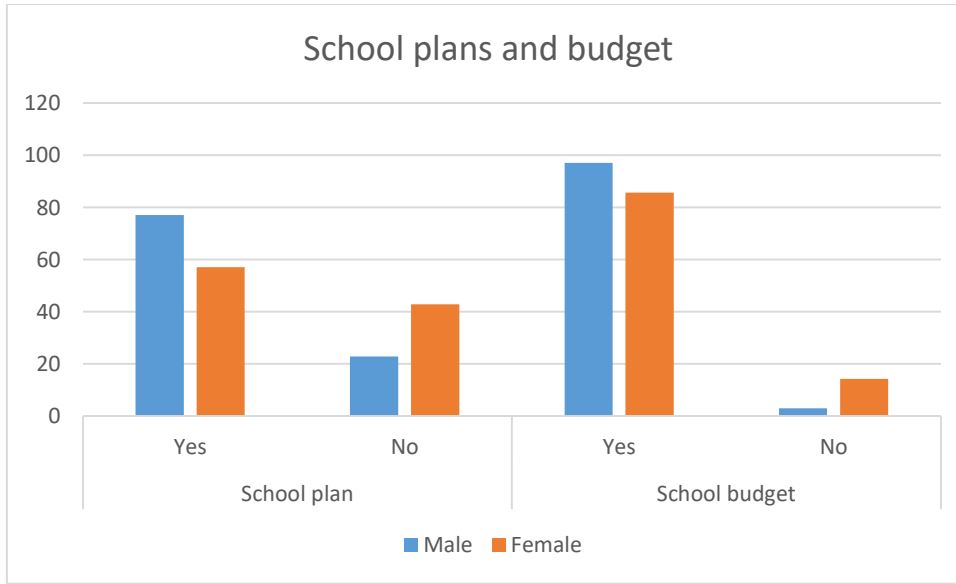
learning materials comprise these preconditions. Therefore, the lack of these is a premediating factor to headteacher's effort in improving their schools. At the same time their absence could imply inadequate initiative and innovation on the part of the head.

4.2.5 Planning and pupils' academic performance

Crantson (2013) posits that what distinguishes leadership from all others is a focus on the vision, strategies and transformational issues. The effectiveness of leadership in the study schools therefore is determined largely by the existence or otherwise of a school vision and how this is translated into improvement in student performance. School heads believe in the power of a junior high school vision which should be about how to improve on their pupils' academic performance and this should be translated into a performance plan. To strengthen and guarantee its success, the plan should be backed by a budget. One third of headteachers were found to make effort to have a school plan for purposes of accessing school capitation grant from the district office only and not for improving student performance. This narrow perspective of the heads potentially impacts negatively on their motivation to drive such improvement plans.



Figure 4.3: School Plans and Budget



Source: Field survey (2018)

As depicted in the graph above, 74% of the schools have vision and performance plans. Over 80% of the schools also have budget which implies that while some schools lack a clear vision and performance plan they have a school budget. About 57.8% of all female-headed schools have performance plans which are significantly lower than those headed by males.

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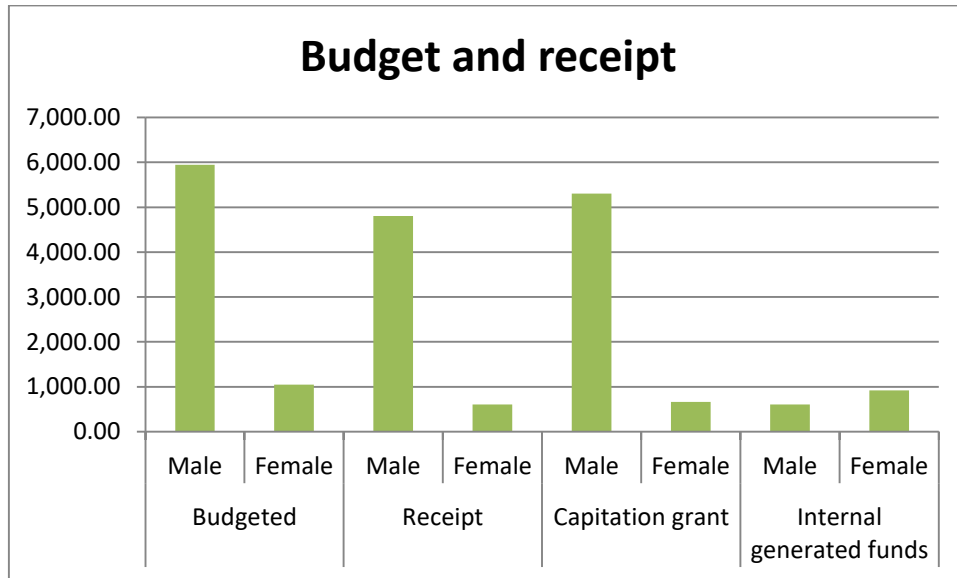


Specific provisions for improving student performance include extra classes, printing of examination questions, allowance for examination administration and occasional cost of transporting pupils to write examination. At the instructional level, the school improvement plans provide for school-based in-service training, purchase of cardboards and other teaching aids. Dominant in the priorities of school plans were cost of transport to and from district office by headteachers for purposes of delivering school records, collecting school materials and or attending headteachers meetings. The provisions are in line with the Ghana Education Service guidelines on the utilization of school grants with the exception of school-based extra classes and conduct of examinations.

4.2.6 Budgeting and academic performance

The total cost of implementing a school performance plan and actual funds received per year is contained in the budget prepared by the headteachers and approved by the District Director of Education.

Figure 4.4: School Budgets and Receipts



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Source: Field survey (2018)



As shown in Figure 4.4 above, schools received far less than what they budgeted for and this affected their ability to implement their performance plans. This finding is similar to Amin's (2011) study which showed that though the capitation grant remained a key source of financing performance improvement plans and was leading to significant improvements in enrolment, its allocation was less equitable and might encourage inequality in schools. There is no doubt that inadequate funding impact negatively on headteachers' ability to implement plans that improve their pupils' performance.

Sources of financing performance plans remain limited. School capitation grant is the dominant source though some headteachers also have internally generated funds. The capitation grant assumes great importance in financing schools' effort to attain excellence (Dawuda, 2011; Osei, Owusu, Asem & Afutu-Kotey, 2009). The amount allocated under the capitation grant depends on the number of pupils in the school. For example, in the 2017/2018 academic year, the per capitation grant was GHc4.50 per pupil, implying that the schools were entitled to at least GHc30, 312.00 (\$5,655.00).

The study also found a significant variation in the budget receipts between male and female-headed schools. For instance, the mean budget for male-headed schools was GHc5, 947.00 as against Ghc1, 048.85.00 for female-head schools. Similar trend exists in the amount actually received by male-headed schools which on the average is our times more than female-head schools. Male headteachers reported an average receipt of GHc5, 306.71 (\$990.00) while female heads received on average GHC665.00 (\$124.00) from capitation grant.

4.2.7 Chapter summary

Among the key conclusions from this chapter are that majority (83%) of the respondents are males.

This confirms a low female share among the key stakeholders in the management of junior high schools in the three regions under study. Majority of the schools are established and run by government through district assemblies. Religious bodies such as the Catholic Education Unit complement government effort in providing formal education to school pupils.

All the headteachers possess the minimum instructional characteristics notably professional qualification which is a diploma in education and years of teaching experience with no significant differences between male and female heads. The findings also showed that educational inputs are grossly inadequate reflecting the headteachers' weak mobilization abilities which impede their



effective leadership. Majority of schools have a shared vision translated into a performance improvement plan and budget. Differences exist in the vision and planning with the proportion of male heads having both school improvement plan and budget larger than their female counterparts.



CHAPTER FIVE

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HEADTEACHERS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the various leadership styles that are employed in managing basic schools by headteachers in the study area. It also examines the leadership styles mostly used by headteachers who are males and also those used by heads who are females. The leadership of each headteacher was determined using both the self-rating index and the follower rating index. The measuring index identified leadership behaviours that could be classified as more focused on the leader with less consultation, transactional, transformational, and servant-leadership.

The BECE results are used as criteria for measuring performance and the scores of pupils in the BECE under each headteacher's leadership are used to determine the impact of such leadership behaviours on pupils' performance. The leadership styles are presented in two stages; first headteacher self-assessment and then outcomes of teachers' ratings. Stakeholder perceptions regarding the leadership style of the headteachers differ both in the situation or circumstances and gender of the head. In their actual scores, all heads employ a blend of all these leadership styles in

managing their schools. Female Headteachers, however, dominated the frequency with which they employed transformational and servant-leadership styles. Above all, both teachers and pupils perceived their headteachers stronger in their participatory and transformational styles than what the heads themselves believe.

5.2 Headteachers' leadership styles

In their day to day practice, school heads encounter different needs and situations that require their response as leaders. The situations have been categorized into task and or relationships. Managing

discipline, ensuring punctuality of both teachers and pupils, seeking the opinions of others in decision-making, managing conflict, attending to personal and individual needs of teachers, pupils and community members and ensuring linkages between the school and external stakeholders are some of the frequent relationship-based situations that influence the heads to employ certain leadership styles. On the other hand, visioning and setting targets which are translated into School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP), budgeting, supporting classroom teaching and learning, maintaining school records, mobilizing parents to contribute and or participate in school activities emerged as dominant task-oriented situations that the headteachers' leadership approaches become crucial.

In Table 5.1 below, the leadership assessment by stakeholders revealed varied leadership behaviours such as consulting, empathy, individual consideration, role modelling, mentorship punishment and rewards. These are characteristics of transformational, transactional, servant-leader styles and even styles considered more self-centred. A focus on the individual needs of teachers and pupils by way of mentoring, coaching and material assistance all reflect the heads as transformational in their styles. The stricter and more inert styles reflected where heads response to situations were characterized by incentives or sanctions based on how teachers and pupils perform task. The others are inadequate consultation, dictating how things must be done, the lack or absence of initiative and imposing decisions on teachers and pupils.

5.3 Headteachers' Self-assessment on Leadership Styles

Out of forty-two (42) headteachers who self-assessed themselves, seven were females, while the rest were males. In the following table, the scores from headteachers' self-assessment on the four transformational styles are presented.

Table 5.1: Headteachers' Self-Assessment Scores on Transformational Styles

District	Role modelling			Motivating & developing followers			Creativity and problem solving			Individual needs through coaching and mentoring		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
A	9	2	11	8	2	10	3	1	4	7	3	10
B	5	1	6	6	2	8	2	1	3	5	2	7
C	7	0	7	8	0	8	5	0	5	8	1	9
	21	3	24	22	4	26	10	2	12	20	6	26
%	50	43	57	52	57	62	24	29	29	48	86	62
A	56	13	69	50	13	63	19	6	25	44	19	63
B	39	8	46	46	15	62	15	8	23	39	15	54
C	54	0	54	62	0	62	39	0	39	62	8	69
M=Male		F=Female		T=Total								

Source: Field survey (2018)

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The average score on all four transformational behaviours is 52.5%. This implies that at least half of all of heads employ a combination of all four transformative styles in initiating, overcoming and or responding to situations in their schools. The most dominant style, according to the heads' self-score is supporting individual needs of teachers and pupils through coaching and mentoring. Inspiring and always seeking to develop their followers as individuals emerged as the next style majority of the heads employ. Promoting creativity and problem solving emerged as the least style commonly adopted by these heads. As transformational leaders, seeking to improve their pupils' performance and the ability to ensure creativity and innovation especially among teachers are

critical; unfortunately, less than 30% of heads practice this. Where the status quo persists, desired results such as improved BECE scores would be difficult to attain.

Table 5.2: Headteachers' Self-Assessment on Non-Participative Styles

District	Rewarding or sanctioning performance			Intervening in exceptional cases			Hard-handedness		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
A	6	2	8	8	1	9	2	0	2
B	6	1	7	7	2	9	2	0	2
C	7	1	8	6	1	7	0	0	0
Total	19	4	23	21	4	25	4	0	4
%	45	57	55	50	57	60	10	0	10
A	38	13	50	50	6	56	13	0	13
B	46	8	54	54	15	69	5	0	5
C	54	8	62	46	8	54	0	0	0
M=Male		F=Female			T=Total				

Source: Field survey (2018)

Table 5.2 contains scores of headteachers' self-assessment based on the three non-participative styles of leadership. The findings confirmed that even though the headteachers scored themselves high on participatory and transformational styles, some adopt self centred, inert and non-consultative behaviours. On average, 41.7% of heads employed the latter in leading their schools.



5.4 Teachers Rating of their Headteachers

Subsequent to the headteachers' self-assessment, eighty-four (84) teachers also scored their respective heads based on 21 statements. Twenty-nine (29) of them were females while the remaining 55 were males. Given that both males and female teachers were rating the same leader, their average scores determined the headteachers' style of leadership. Table 5.3 contains the average rates from the teachers.

Table 5.3: Teacher Rating on Transformational Styles

District	Role modelling			Motivating & developing followers			Creativity and problem solving			Individual needs through coaching and mentoring		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
A	12	4	16	11	3	14	5	2	7	7	3	10
B	7	2	9	9	2	11	7	2	9	6	1	7
C	11	1	12	11	1	12	3	0	3	7	1	8
Total	30	7	37	31	6	37	15	4	19	20	5	25
%	86	100	88	89	86	88	43	57	45	57	71	60
A	34	57	38	31	43	33	14	29	17	20	43	24
B	20	29	21	26	29	26	20	29	21	17	14	17
C	31	14	29	31	14	29	9	0	7	20	14	19

M=Male F=Female T=Total

Source: Field survey (2018)

From the findings, differences and similarities occurred in the teacher ratings when compared with the headteachers' self-assessment. In terms of similarities, both heads and teacher ratings reveal higher scores on the four transformational styles. The difference, however, is that teachers tended



to rate their heads considerably higher, with the average score of 70.3% compared with 52.5% to the heads' self-assessment.

Majority of teachers believed that their heads (88%) are open and participatory, motivating and serve as role models. This finding is consistent with Omeka and Onah's (2012) study in Nsukka, Nigeria which found that though headteachers were applying three styles of leadership, the more approachable and consultative ones were dominant and teachers found these to enhance their satisfaction and delivery. Ali (2019), in a study in Chad to determine the impact of school leadership on educational performance, made a similar finding to that of Omeka and Onah where he found that a unit increase in transformational leadership and transactional leadership style leads to increase in organizational performance. However, the study findings contradict those by Karori, Mulewa, Ombuki and Migosi (2013) in Kikuyu District in Kenya. In their study, the latter found that teachers perceived their headteachers as often dictating with no room for seeking their views and passive in their style of leadership and least considerate about their individual interests yet the pupils from the Kikuyi district perform better in public examinations than those from the other districts of the country. According to Emery and Barker (2007:81), linking individual needs to what

the leader expects to accomplish as well as providing rewards to desired followers, enhances job satisfaction among followers. The exchange agreement between the leader and follower is proactive, where followers are confident to receive rewards when tasks are successfully completed. The act of engaging in constructive transaction is a key feature of espoused in transactional leadership theory which stress that leaders do approach their role more as transaction between them and those they lead, involving incentives where agreed deliverables are met or sanctions where the vice versa. Again head teachers actining in an exchange manner is adequately supported by the hygiene factors of Herzberg's two factor theory, where the exchange of rewards, praise or

recognition reduces dissatisfaction among followers (Herzberg, 2011). The exchange of rewards, praise and recognition will motivate followers to perform at higher levels to achieve agreed upon objectives set by the leader. Oldham and Hackman (2010) Job characteristics model also provides anchorage as it stresses that where feedback from the job and knowledge of actual results of work are possible it results in satisfaction among followers. By contrast, failure to achieve agreed goals may result in a sense of incompetence or failure, demotivating followers to pursue such activities. Failed attempts can also give followers a perception that goals are far-reaching or unattainable. Followers may also be demotivated when they perceive inequity in their reward systems where efforts are inconsistent with rewards.

Table 5.4: Follower Rating on Non-Participative Styles

District	Rewarding or sanctioning performance			or Intervening in exceptional cases			in Hard-handedness		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
A	9	2	11	9	3	12	1	2	3
B	6	3	9	7	2	9	2	1	3
C	7	1	8	6	1	7	2	0	2
Total	22	6	28	22	6	28	5	3	8
%	63	86	67	63	86	67	14	43	19
A	26	29	26	26	43	29	3	29	7
B	17	43	21	20	29	21	6	14	7
C	20	14	19	17	14	17	6	0	5



M=Male F=Female T=Total

Source: Field survey (2018)

Table 5.4 contains teacher ratings of their heads along the three non-participatory leadership behaviours. Even though majority of the teachers rated their headteachers as being more open and inclusive of decisions, findings reveal that some teachers tend to experience their headteachers as being too strict, hardly seeking their input and less consultative. Only 12% of the teachers held this view.

The major argument is under what conditions do headteachers frequently employ non-participative styles? The scores revealed that 55% of the headteachers found sanctions and rewards rather than engaging and negotiating, very necessary in ensuring active participation in school-based extracurricular activities and instilling among pupils. Pupils and teachers that do well in assigned tasks are openly acknowledged. Some heads institute end of term speech and prize awards to motivate performing teachers, learners and even some community members. For instance, a 54-year old male head teacher from ZW Junior High School, under whose headship one particular Junior High School has consistently attained improved BECE scores in the last eight (8) years has

this to day;

“When I first came to this school the performance was poor; let’s say in a year only 15% of the pupils got between aggregate 6 and 36. After discussing with the SMC members and teachers we instituted a speech and prize given every term. Just small prizes like exercise books, pens and pencils. In the case of my teachers and SMC members it is just openly mentioning their names and how hardworking they are. I realised the pupils started studying very hard, competing among themselves. After one or two three years I realise the results have started improving and that has since continued”. Headteacher from a JHS. 21/09/2018.



On the other hand, some heads first talk to defaulting teachers and pupils that tend to be late or absent vis-a-vis the expected result which is punctuality. However, where there is no significant improvement, pupils are tasked to collect stones, weed and or clean school environment. Affected teachers are also cautioned, sometimes reprimanded and in some instances heads recommend disciplinary actions including blocking of their salaries. On this, a male headteacher had this to comment thus:

“I cannot prevent teachers from being absent from class if they have genuine challenges. But once in a while I take some of them on, especially those who rather go selling instead of teaching”. A 48 year old male headteacher from a JHS.04/10/2018

Laissez-faire, as a leadership style, received the lowest among the passive styles. By gender no female head was identified to employ this trait while 10% of males emerged more consistent in the application of this way when confronted with situations. This finding agrees with Lynch (2013) who observed that beyond transformational and transactional behaviour, a laissez-faire style was widespread among male leaders. On the other hand, 57% of female heads do not hesitate in their adoption of sanctions and rewards when dealing with their teachers. They also occasionally intervene to demonstrate how things should be done compared with 37% of their male counterparts.

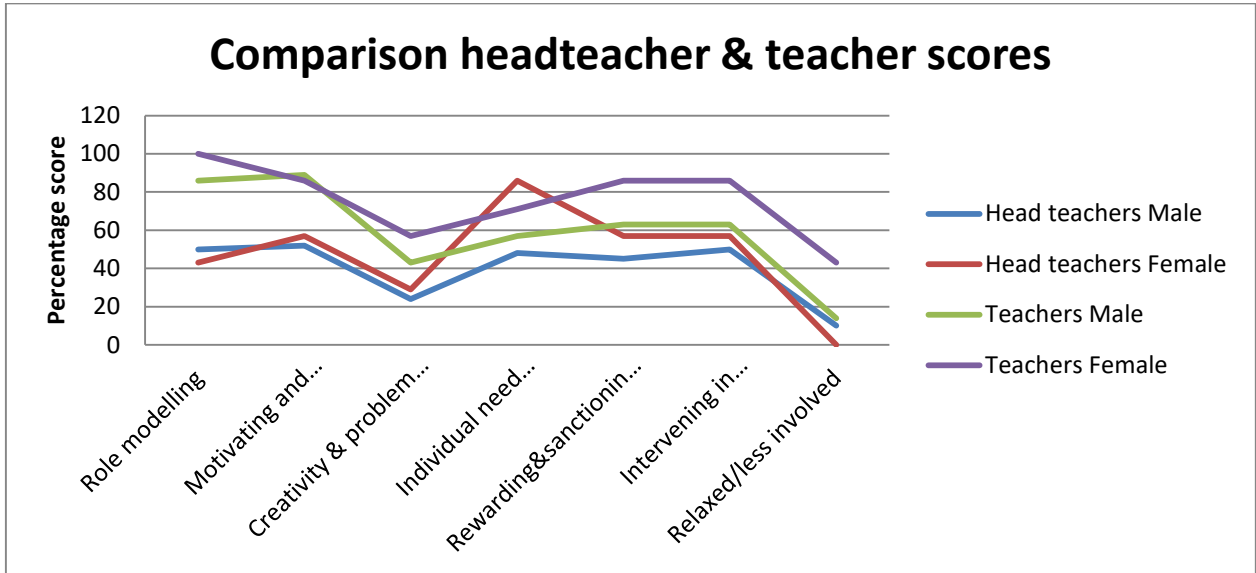
Under transactional and servant leadership theories the leader’s direct involvement is key, either acting together with the followers and or leading by doing. Where the leader or head tends to adopt a laissez-faire attitude when the situations demand their timely intervention there can be far reaching implications. In the school situation a laissez-faire style when dealing with pupils who are mostly young can result in difficulty maintaining discipline which is a precondition for performance.

In terms of geographical location, Talensi District recorded the highest number of heads who employ less transformational styles. In this district, 69% frequently intervene only in exceptional



instances where teachers and pupils either tend to act contrary to agreed behaviours. A similar trend reflects in West Mamprusi District where 62% of heads appear strong in sanctions and reward-based approaches.

Figure 5.1: Comparison of Headteacher Self and Follower Ratings



Source: Field survey (2018)

In Figure 5.1 above, headteachers' self-assessment scores on all seven (7) leadership styles are compared with their teachers' rating in order to determine if congruence or discrepancies exist. The scores show that discrepancies exist between the headteachers' scores and their followers. Aarons et al. (2017) assert that differences between leaders and followers' ratings are not uncommon in many studies globally. The average difference between the headteacher self-assessment and teacher rating in four transformational styles is 11.8% compared with 9.3% in the passive behaviors' styles of leadership.

With the exception of supporting individual needs of teachers through mentoring and coaching, teachers rate their heads higher and stronger in both their transformational and passive behaviors than the heads did. What these differences imply is that in a learning environment such as the



schools under study, headteachers go about their duties employing a combination of both transformational and non-participative styles. The styles headteachers employ and how they feel about their influence differ from how their teachers perceive and experience them. The teachers feel they, the headteachers, employ these styles more frequently than the headteachers believe. In terms of gender, significant differences have been observed between teachers' scores compared with the heads. Teachers scored their female heads much higher than the heads did with a difference of 57% in the more transformational styles and 43% for leader centred and inert in their approach. This implies that teachers experience their female heads more frequent in their practice of both transformational and passive styles, with the former slightly marginally dominant.

The higher ratings from teachers' contrast findings of a study by Absael, Evgenia and Sheridan-Pereira (2010), and Aarons et al. (2017). In their large multicultural study involving over 400 leaders and followers across six countries, Absael, Evgenia and Sheridan-Pereira (2010) concluded that characteristically, leaders rate themselves higher than followers would generally do. The study by Aarons et al. (2017) found that leaders tend to exaggerate their own ratings and also give direction to the instances under which the differences are significant. They observed that where feedback tends to be negative and leaders have to defend themselves, the scores vary significantly.

They posit that follower ratings are more reliable due to their ability to rule out possible personal biases from the leader.

5.5 Gender of Headteachers and Leadership Styles

As indicated in Table 5.1, headteachers' self-scores reflect varied dimensions between male and females and among districts. The number of female heads who employ all four transformational styles was found to be larger than their male counterparts with an average score of 53.8% as against 43.0%. This finding is consistent with Lynch (2013) research finding. After a meta-analysis of 45

studies on leadership styles, Lynch (2013) found that females were more likely to be transformational than males. It, however, does not support the findings of Munir and Aboidullah (2018), who, in a study in Pakistan, found no significant gender difference in school leaders' transformational conducts. Among the transformational behaviours, the most dominant style that female heads tended to employ significantly more than male heads is coaching and mentoring with 87% of all female heads demonstrating this. Two out of every three female heads frequently coach and mentor their teachers and pupils.

In contrast, half of male heads frequently act in ways their teachers and pupils value as role models compared with 43% for the female heads. Twenty-nine percent of female heads and 24% of males encourage follower innovations and creativity. This means that apart from the very low practice of this style there, is less significance between male and female teachers in this regard. By geographic location, 69% of the headteachers from in Jirapa District exert influence on their followers and act in ways that their followers find them as role models. This represents the highest rating in any of the transformational styles across the respective districts. The least is Talensi District where less than 20% of the heads frequently promoted follower creativity. As leaders of their schools,



headteachers seek to remain all embracing of their followers in order to bring out the best from their teachers and pupils. However, certain situations require a change in approach and that justifies their adoption of some form of being very firm and insistent and indifferent styles. The deployment of both participatory as well as non-participative styles agrees with United Nations Panel on Leadership (2012) who stresses that though some styles may appear much better than others, based on practice no one single leadership style best fits all situations. Rather, the importance lies in the leader's ability to adjust their style to suit their individual situations.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter explored the various leadership styles that are employed by headteachers in managing their respective schools. From the headteachers' self-assessment scores index in combination with those of teachers and other education stakeholders, the study revealed that, headteachers employed a range of leadership styles which can be broadly classified as participatory and non-participatory. Behaviours such as consultation, individual consideration, empathy and concern for staff and pupils' welfare were identified and could fall under transformational, transactional, and servant-leader leadership styles. Actions of some headteachers such as non-consultation, application of sanctions, lack of empathy for staff and pupils' welfare were also identified and classified as leader centred or non-participatory leadership style. In their actual scores, all heads employ a blend of all styles in managing their schools. Female headteachers, however, dominated the frequency with which they employed participatory, transformational and servant-leadership styles. Above all teachers and pupils perceived their heads stronger in their inclusive and involving styles than the heads believe.



CHAPTER SIX

INFLUENCE OF HEADTEACHERS' LEADERSHIP STYLES ON PUPILS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

6.1 Introduction

This chapter examines how the various leadership styles that are employed in managing basic schools by various headteachers influence pupils' academic performance. Since BECE results are used as criteria for measuring performance, the scores of pupils in the BECE under each headteacher's leadership are used to determine the impact of such leadership behaviours on pupils' performance. Headteachers who employed participatory leadership styles were identified and the BECE scores of their pupils were compared to the pupils of the headteachers who were also identified by the study to be using more of non-participatory styles. The variance in the performances was used to determine the influence of headteachers' leadership styles on the performance of their pupils.

6.2 Perceptions about how Leadership Styles Influence Pupils' BECE Scores

The study explored the general opinions of respondents about the leadership styles adopted by headteachers in their schools and how these influence pupils' academic performance. The inclusion of the perspectives from different segments of respondents is modelled around the basis that most assessments bring out quality outcomes when they consist of a combination of opinions from varied segments of the population (Dias & Borges, 2017). Feedback from followers also reduces exaggeration about the influence of a particular leadership style and provides other perspectives that may not emerge depending on a single person's opinion (Aarons, Ehrhart, Farahnak, Sklar & Horowitz, 2017).

Table 6.1. Head Teacher’s Perception about how Leadership Style Influences Pupils’ BECE Scores

Gender	Leadership Style of head influences performance		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	6 (17.1%)	29 (82.9%)	35 (100%)
Female	1 (14.3%)	6 (85.7%)	7 (100%)
Total	7 (16.7%)	35 (83.3%)	42 (100%)

Source: Field survey (2018)

Table 6.1 contains the headteachers’ responses to the influence of their styles on pupils’ BECE scores. The finding showed that 82.9% of male heads and 85.7% of the females do not support the perception that their styles have any influence on s’ performance in BECE. This implies that majority of the heads do not support the belief that their leadership styles have an influence on pupils’ BECE scores. One female headteacher in a rural Junior High School had this to say:

“The performance of my pupils has nothing to do with my being open and involving others or not. My competence and my experience influence my work. Headteacher” Female

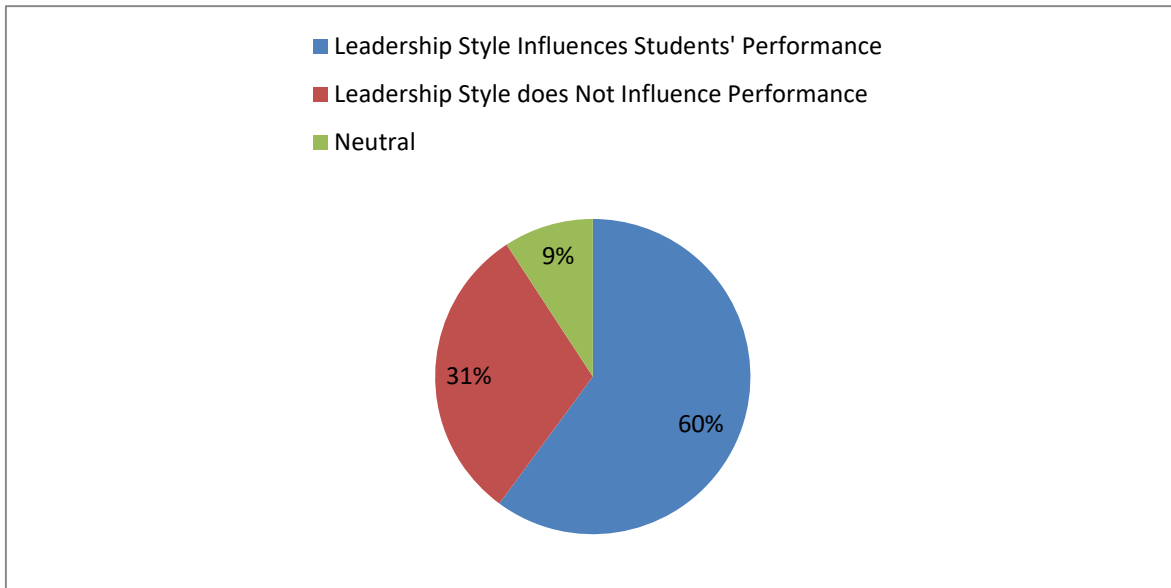
headteacher from a rural JHS. 19/09/2018



6.3 Teachers Perception about the Influence of Headteachers Leadership Styles on BECE

As indicated in Figure 6.1 below, teachers’ perception on how leadership styles of headteachers contribute to student scores in external examinations varied. About 60.7% of the teachers agreed that leadership style significantly influences pupils’ scores. On the contrary, 31% disagreed that leadership styles have significant influence on pupils’ performance. The others (9%) were neutral.

Figure 6.1: Teachers' Opinion on the Influence of Head Teacher's Leadership Styles



Source: Field survey (2018)

Those who agreed that the leadership style of headteachers influences pupils' performance further argued that when headteachers employ participatory leadership styles, they motivate both pupils and staff so teaching and learning intensifies. But when people feel forced to perform a task, they may do that out of compulsion and not necessarily because they are convinced to do so. Such latter atmosphere may not be good for teaching and learning. Conversely, those who disagreed that the headteacher's leadership style is significant to pupils' performance expanded their view that headteachers styles does not really affect teaching and learning, his performance is what matters, but how he goes about it does not affect teaching and learning activities.

Table 6.2: Perception of other Respondents on how Leadership Styles Affect Pupils' Scores in BECE

Respondents	Yes	No
	20	9
SMC/PTA	(13.8)	(1.4%)
	52	2
Past Pupils	(42.3%)	(6.9%)
	49	12
Cont. Pupils	(34%)	(8.3%)

Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in Table 6.2 above, fifty-two (42.3%) respondents who were past pupils believe that the leadership of headteachers has influence on the academic performance of their pupils. Forty-nine (34%) continuing pupils and twenty (13.8%) SMC/PTA members held similar views.

Pupils' perspective on BECE performance reflects more strongly on how their heads support them in different tasks related to their preparations towards examinations. Many of the past pupils (42.3%) experience their headteachers' culture of advising them all the time to study hard as a key contributor to their performance. According to them the advice often involved the headteachers' own practical life experiences. The other ways in which headteachers impact these pupils' scores



include counselling on learning strategies, especially step by step review and discussion of past questions. Headteachers in some schools make it mandatory for teachers to lead discussions on how to answer BECE questions. Leaders who are participatory when dealing with followers can better establish this type of relationship with pupils than those that dictate what must be done. This comparison was articulated by one school prefect as follows:

“From JH1 to JHS 2 our former Head Teacher used to challenge us to learn and compete among ourselves. This encouraged me to work hard and ensure I am always ahead of all my

mates but our new Head Teacher does not even come close to us, he only gives warnings and threats on the assembly ground and that is all” A boys’ prefect in school. 15/01/2019

Even though the SMC/PTA group also acknowledged the influence of headteachers’ leadership style on pupils, there is low awareness among their members regarding the leadership style of headteachers and their influence on BECE scores. Apart from their secretaries who are mostly headteachers or assistant headteachers, majority of members of these school management committees perceive their heads in relation to how they support pupils in instructional activities much more than how they relate to the pupils.

6.4 Headteachers’ Leadership Styles and Actual BECE Scores

Beyond stakeholder perceptions, the study conducted some statistical analysis in order to determine possible relationships between actual scores of pupils at BECE examination and the leadership styles of their headteachers. In the following tables, the results of t-test; independent t-test for equality of means for all schools and paired sample test for only the drill down schools are presented.

Table 6.3: Independent t-Test for Equality of Means

BECE Scores	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% Confidence Interval of the Diff	
						Lower	Upper
Best score ever recorded	-2.57	40	0.014	-22.286**	8.648	-39.764	-4.807
Worse score ever	0.107	40	0.915	0.600	5.611	-10.741	11.941

Current year (2018)	-2.05	40	0.047	-16.771**	8.163	-33.270	-.273
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** = Mean difference is significant at 5%

Source: Field survey (2018)

From the analysis, the mean difference in student scores under participatory and leader centred headteachers over the period 2011 to 2017 is -22.3. This is negative and significant at 5%. This implies the best reported score shows improvement for pupils under headteachers who employ participatory leadership styles as compared to those under headteachers who often dictated to followers what must be done. Similarly, the difference that emerges when only the current year's (ie. 2017/2018 when data was collected) BECE scores are used is -16.8 which is also negative and significant at 5%.

Table 6.4: Paired Sample Test- Drill Down Schools

Average Performance	BECE	Paired Differences Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Participatory styles – non participatory styles		-27.73	11.49	3.32	-35.03	-20.42	-8.4	1	0.000

Source: Field survey (2018)

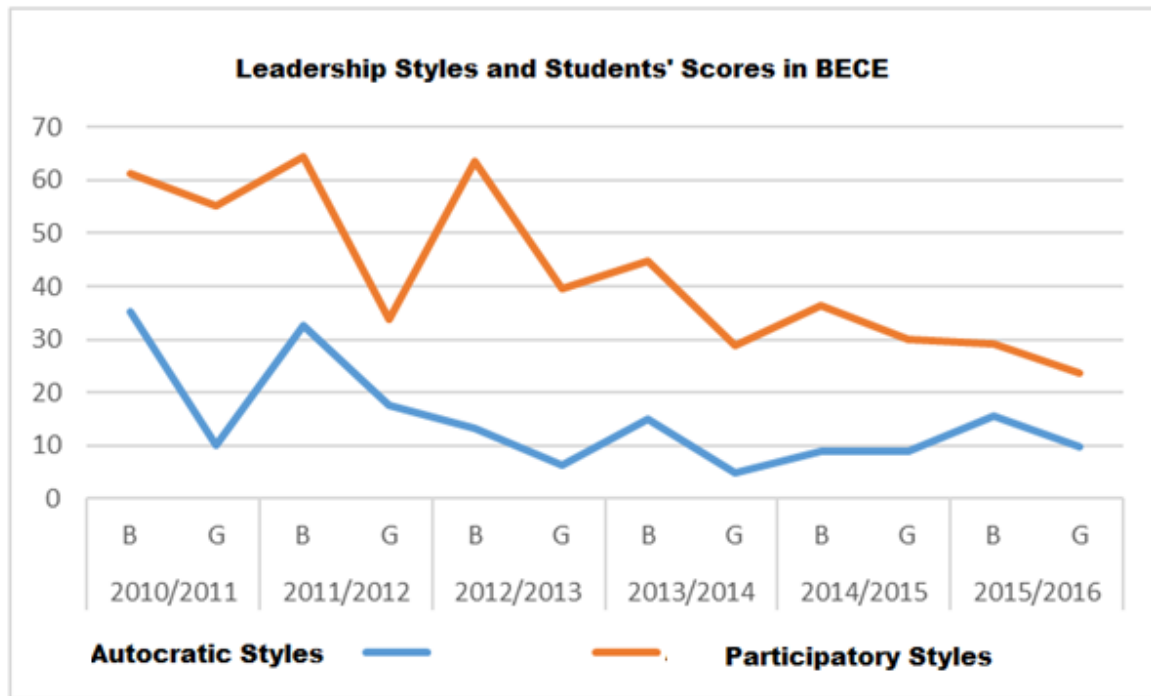
Further, employing only scores from drill down schools, the difference is -27.7 which is still negative and significant at 5%. Pupils under headteachers who are more participatory in their leadership witnessed a 22.3% difference in their BECE scores in comparison with those who do not. For only the current year, that is 2017/2018, the difference is 16.8% for those headteachers who employ participatory leadership style. With a mean difference of 27.7, the implication is where



the headteacher has led the same school consistently for at least last five years and has been more participatory in approach to situations the pupils in such school experienced a 27.7% improvement in their BECE scores over their counterparts.

Figure 6.2: Leadership Styles and pupils' BECE Scores in Drill Down Schools

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Source: Field survey (2018)

The detailed review of BECE scores from the drill down schools revealed that, the best performing school over the period recorded an average score of 46.5%. Its headteacher uses a participatory style of leadership and has been in the same school for about eight years. On the other hand, the least score over the study period has been 22.5%, recorded by a junior high school whose head is perceived to hardly involve followers in decisions and has been in charge of this school since 2011/2012. This implies that, apart from leadership styles, duration of stay of headteachers can also lead to an additional improvement in pupils' BECE scores by at least 5.4%.

The study found varied behaviours of headteachers such as encouraging creativity, showing concern for the individual needs of teachers, consulting with teachers before making a decision, role modelling, offering rewards and punishment, non-consultation with stakeholders before making decisions, and issuing commands and orders among others. These behaviours could fall into at least any of non participatory, leader-centred, transformational, transactional and servant leadership role.

Across key stakeholders, the study revealed varied opinions regarding pupils' performance under the the more participatory and non participatory/leader-centred styles. As the superiors of headteachers, all circuit supervisors representing 16.0% of the total respondents were of the opinion that, the leadership style of junior high school heads has an influence on their pupils' BECE results. Reasons advanced in support of their position ranged from individual qualities of headteachers to availability or otherwise of resources that facilitate student learning to their leadership styles. Subject teachers also held the same view. Seventy-two teachers, representing 18% of the total respondents agreed that the styles of headteachers affect teaching staff which in turn affect the quality of their delivery in the classroom thereby increasing or reducing pupils' academic achievement.

A comparison of pupils' BECE scores over the last five years revealed that, pupils from the schools of headteachers who were believed to use participatory leadership styles scored higher in BECE than those from schools whose headteachers were not. The conclusion thereof is that, participatory leadership styles such as transformational, transactional and servant-leader improve pupils' academic performance while the non-participatory leadership styles of headteachers reduce the academic achievement of pupils. Over all, there is a strong direct relationship between leadership styles of headteachers and pupils' academic achievements.



This finding conforms to that of Mukare and Shukuru's (2014). In their study which was designed to discover the factors that led to mass failures in some community schools in Tanzania, they found that one of the major factors for mass failure in the community secondary schools in Tanzania was the ineffective fulfilment of the leadership roles. The roles that were ineffectively performed included planning, organizing, leading, and controlling and a lack of vision in the leadership of the schools. They also identified teachers' motivation crisis as another critical managerial failure in Tanzania community secondary schools. They concluded that the ability of a headteacher to use school resources efficiently, engage the teachers in planning academic activities and propel the teachers to work towards attaining the vision of the school had great impact on the academic performance of pupils. Transformational and transactional leadership theorists such as Khan, Nawaz & Khan (2016), Nanjundes & Swamy (2014) and Eyal and Roth (2011) argue that leadership has great impact on job satisfaction and this leads to greater output.

There have been numerous studies undertaken to examine whether there is a relationship between leadership styles and workers' productivity. These studies show similar findings and most of them are consistent with the fact that leadership styles have a strong relationship with workers' productivity. For example, Guillaume, Honeycutt, & Savage-Austin (2013), in examining the



relationship between leadership styles and workers' productivity at a private university in Atlanta, Georgia concluded that leadership styles of heads of department contributed to the performance of lecturers and in turn affected the academic achievement of their students at different levels. Also, in their study of servant leadership at the University of Iceland, Ingi et al. (2014) found that, there is a strong positive correlation between servant leadership and workers' productivity. Outside the academia, research among telephone company employees has also shown that leadership style is positively and significantly linked to the job satisfaction of employees and their level of

productivity (Eyal and Roth, 2011). In addition, a study investigating the relationship between leadership styles and core self-assessment and employee productivity by Tischler et al. (2016) found that leadership styles predict core self-assessment and employee productivity, and that core self-assessment also predicts employee productivity among working adults in white collar jobs in three U.S. firms. Leadership style is linked to employee productivity. Ding et al. (2012), in a study to determine the impact of leadership on the quality of goods produced in South Korea, found a mediating role between leadership style and employee loyalty.

There is extensive literature available to support the statement that leadership styles are linked to employee productivity (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016; Nanjundes & Swamy, 2014). Sendjaya (2015), however, points out that a leader interacts in accordance with constraints arising from organizational settings and their decision-making depends on the organizational structure of the particular place, particularly with regards to decision-making. This implies that a leader will always select the style that fits the situation.

6.5 Other Determinants of BECE Scores

Apart from the leadership styles of headteachers, the study found other variables which have significant influence on pupils' BECE scores. These included the school category, gender of the headteacher, student to teacher ratio irrespective of subject areas, existence of school vision with performance improvement plan teacher deficit, time spent on administrative duties and community support. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression was used to examine their influence on BECE scores and the outcome is presented in Table 6.5 below.



Table 6.5: Other Determinants of Pupils' BECE Scores

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err.	T	P>t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
					Lower	Upper
Gender***	-21.51	7.322	-2.94	0.006	-36.41	-6.61
Years of Teaching	0.26	0.294	0.88	0.386	-0.34	0.86
School Category***	-39.02	7.353	-5.31	0.000	-53.98	-24.06
Student to teacher ratio***	265.78	86.689	3.07	0.004	89.41	442.15
Vision & Performance plan**	15.44	5.630	2.74	0.01	3.98	26.89
Teacher Deficit**	-2.09	0.874	-2.39	0.022	-3.87	-0.31
Time spent on admin duties	-0.05	0.088	-0.51	0.610	-0.22	0.13
SMC &community support	-0.45	0.935	-0.48	0.635	-2.35	1.45
constant	90.18	16.798	5.37	0.00	56.00	124.35
Observation	42					
F _(8, 33)	5.37					
Prob > F	0.0002					
R ²	0.5656					
Adjusted R ²	0.4603					
Root MSE	15.26					

*** and ** corresponds with 1% and 5% significance levels respectively

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Source: Field Survey (2018)

From Table 6.5, the F-statistics is significant at 0.01%. This implies that, the independent variables have significant influence on BECE scores. Besides this, at 1% significance level, the P value for gender of the school heads is $P > 0.006$ and $P > 0.000$ for school category. Teacher to pupil ratio is $P > 0.004$. Having a vision backed by performance improvement plan and teacher deficit are significant at 5% with $P > 0.01$ and $P > 0.022$ respectively. These are statistically significant,

implying an influence on pupils' BECE scores. The observed R^2 (R-square) is 0.5656, an indication that these identified variables explain about 56.6% of the variation in student scores.

On the other hand, at $P > 0.386$ for headteacher's professional qualification and number of years' experience in teaching, $P > 0.610$ for time spent on administrative and $P > 0.635$ for community support show no statistical significance at both 1% and 5%. This implies that, their professional qualifications and instructional experience, percentage of time spent on administrative duties and community support have no significant influence on pupils' BECE results.

The results therefore revealed other factors that influence BECE scores of pupils as follows.

6.6 Gender of Headteacher and Pupils' BECE scores

Pupils who had females as their headteachers had improved BECE scores more than those whose headteachers were males. This also correlates with earlier key findings on the leadership styles as majority of the female heads belonged to those who employed more participatory styles of leadership.

As transformational, transactional and servant leadership theories posit, the leader is responsible for everything that occurs within the organization, these heads may be aiming at all times to attain the goals of their schools which is improved learning academic performance. In doing this, it presupposes that the female heads influence everything that takes place within their schools. How much difference they make may be attributed to the different qualities females bring to bear on their leadership roles. Elias (2013) maintains that a difference in headship between men and women are due to differentials in the reactions to happenings in their schools. Being a male or female is associated with some positive qualities which blend to motivate, prepare and influence pupils' performance. In the study, female heads stood out as possessing unique characteristics compared



to their male counterparts. These include personal qualities that both teachers and pupils feel are worth emulating. The patience that female heads exhibit when attending to and listening particularly to vulnerable pupils in ways that make the pupils feel comfortable and wanting to learn, emerged as key qualities that contribute to their pupils' performance. These observed qualities are supported by Folk (2017) who argues that women leaders tend to have strengths in listening, cooperation, motivation, and are more accessible.

Internally, nearly half of school heads confirmed that the females among them have a more focused attention to the pupils both in their classroom activities and within the school environment. They would normally bring to the school and into the classroom the motherly care that is associated with women; treating the pupils like their own children. When pupils feel nurtured even at their age, they would feel safe in the learning environment and learn better. This is consistent with studies by Oyeniran and Anchomese (2018) and Karen et al. (2016). Oyeniran and Anchomese (2018) also found that female principals in the Ivory Coast often created learning environment much similar to pupils' actual life at home thereby promoting their achievement.

Feedback from pupils in focus groups supported this quality as their responses following both scoring and ranking showed that, female heads come across more likeable due to their *softness* towards pupils. A JHS2 boy in one of the focus groups provided the following in support of their head teacher:

“Our headmistress is like mothers to us. She sees and feels us like her children. This makes us feel free, happy and not afraid to contact her”. A Form 2 pupil. 14/01/2019

In addition to the above, teachers and parents who constituted School Management Committees said their female heads act as great role models to them. Even though when contrasted with the MLQ ratings (as depicted in leadership styles in chapter 4), male headteachers emerged marginally



strong in role modelling practice. Nonetheless, in female headed schools, women remain the only source of motivation and inspiration, especially for girls. In addition to material support to the girls, the female heads also serve as a reliable source of support to JHS girls in matters relating to sexual reproductive health. They share their life experiences with pupils and these motivate them to learn hard. Other qualities female heads possess as compared to their male counterparts are resilience in taking calculated risk and effectiveness in reviewing how well pupils are learning.

6.7 Performance Improvement Plans

The conduct of extra classes is a backup measure and provides additional space for pupils to improve their performance particularly in times where the official time allocated for teaching and learning is considered inadequate. Extra classes therefore emerged as a common practice in most junior high schools in the urban and peri-urban areas though limited in the rural schools. In schools that conduct these classes, headteachers showed great interest and commitment in their organization. Beyond school and group-based interventions, the headteachers habitually considered individualized interest by extending their support beyond the group input and role modelling to include direct material assistance to pupils. These materials remain critical to the pupils' preparation and participation in BECE examinations. They include writing materials, out of pocket allowance and transport to and from examination centres.

6.8 School Location

The study revealed that, pupils from the rural schools performed less than those in the urban and peri-urban areas. Thus, the location of a school in a rural was found to have negative influence on Basic Education Certificate Examination scores relative to their counterparts in urban and peri-



urban areas. Being in a rural junior high school is associated with a reduction in student examination scores by 39.0% as compared to those in urban or peri-urban areas.

The finding on school location is consistent with the finding of Kent et al. (2010) whose discourse on organizational leadership and performance argues that, the context within which an organization functions matters. Ellah & Ita (2017) found that in Ogaja Local Government Area in Nigeria, significant difference exists in pupils' performance based on their school location. Pupils from urban secondary schools performed far better in English Language than their rural counterparts. These are also consistent with findings by Agbaje and Awodun (2014) when they concluded that pupils in rural secondary schools in Nigeria achieved far less grades in their science subjects compared with those in urban schools.

The observed difference in performance between urban and rural junior high schools may be largely due to factors such as availability or lack of inputs; teaching learning materials, furniture and also proximity to district education office which eases supervision, accessibility and reach, either to or from the school. Ellah (2017) observes that by their location in urban areas, schools also tend to be more attractive to the elite and have more teachers. The finding from this study

supports the attractive nature of the urban schools but not entirely on teachers except in subject specialty as pupil/teacher ratio in the rural areas was found to be low compared with the few urban schools.

6.9 Teacher Deficits

Teacher deficit was another factor that may have significant influence on learners' performance in BECE. On teacher deficit, student/teacher ratio was used and involved two scenarios; student to teacher ratio irrespective of subject specialty and with subject teachers only. The results showed



that in both instances, there is significant influence on BECE scores. Pupils under headteachers who lack all the required teachers witness a marginal reduction, around two percent in their examination scores. However, an increase by one professional teacher with the required subject specialty would yield a corresponding increase in student scores by over two hundred percent. These findings agree with Nizam & Bekir's (2015) study in Turkey which revealed that schools with so many pupils to one teacher tended to yield lower achievement in transition to higher grade examinations. Ajani & Akinyele (2014) in Nigeria found that pupils achieved low in mathematics where the ratio of pupils to teachers was high. Waita, Mulei, Mueni, Mutune and Kalai (2015) also found in their study in Kenya that, the ratio of pupils to a teacher had significant influence on student performance in their national examinations

6.10 Chapter Summary

The chapter sampled the opinions of various education stakeholders on how the leadership styles of headteachers influence the academic performance of their pupils which is measured by their scores in BECE. Headteachers held the opinion that their leadership styles are insignificant to the performance of their pupils but their ability to deliver as heads of their school is all that matters.

This contrasted the opinions of teachers, continuing and past pupils and that of the members of SMC/PTA even though the members of SMC/PTA appeared to have less knowledge about the leadership styles of headteachers. Statistical analysis of the BECE scores from various schools over a five-year period also revealed that, leadership styles of headteachers correlate with the scores of their pupils in BECE. The chapter concluded with a brief presentation of other factors that influence pupils' academic performance other than the leadership styles of headteachers.

CHAPTER SEVEN

FACTORS THAT SHAPE HEADTEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS IN THEIR DUTIES

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the key factors that positively or negatively shape headteachers' leadership styles and their ability to improve their pupils' academic performance. The key positive factors include support for policy and institutional guidelines on the duties of the headteacher, stakeholders' support and capacity and professional development. Inadequate school inputs (both financial and material), limited opportunities and support in visioning and planning for the school inhibit their effectiveness. The chapter places emphasis on the relationships between and among the stakeholders involved in school leadership. It explains how headteachers, as leaders, may relate with School Management Committees, Parent Teacher Association members, pupils and their superiors and how this impacts the academic performance of pupils.

In examining the factors that either promote or hinder the effectiveness of headteachers, respondents provided the following.

Table 7.1: Factors that Affect the Effectiveness of HeadTeachers



Factors	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Policies and Reference Guide for Headteachers	24	6.4
Consistency and Clarity of Policies	45	12
Headteachers' Professional Development	67	18
Stakeholders' Support and Cooperation	56	14.9
Preferences and Capabilities	47	12.5
Visioning and Planning Skills	49	13
Too Much Routines	37	9.2

Interferences from Superior Officers	47	12.5
Total	375	100

Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in Table 7.1 above, 67 respondents, representing 18% mentioned that professional development of headteachers was significant to their efficiency. Fifty-six respondents, representing 14.9% of the total respondents mentioned that policies and reference guide were very important to the performance of headteachers. Forty-nine respondents, representing 13% mentioned lack of support from stakeholders as one of the factors that impede headteachers' performance. Forty-seven respondents, representing 12.5% mentioned that the school leaders had preferences among the teachers when it came to appointment of headteachers so this was affecting the capabilities of headteachers to deliver because some of those preferred by the appointment body lacked the needed capabilities that are required of a headteacher. Another 47 respondents, representing 12.5% of the total respondents mentioned interference from superiors as one of the factors affecting the efficiency of teachers. Other factors which were also mentioned included too many routines (9.2%) and visioning and planning (6.4%).

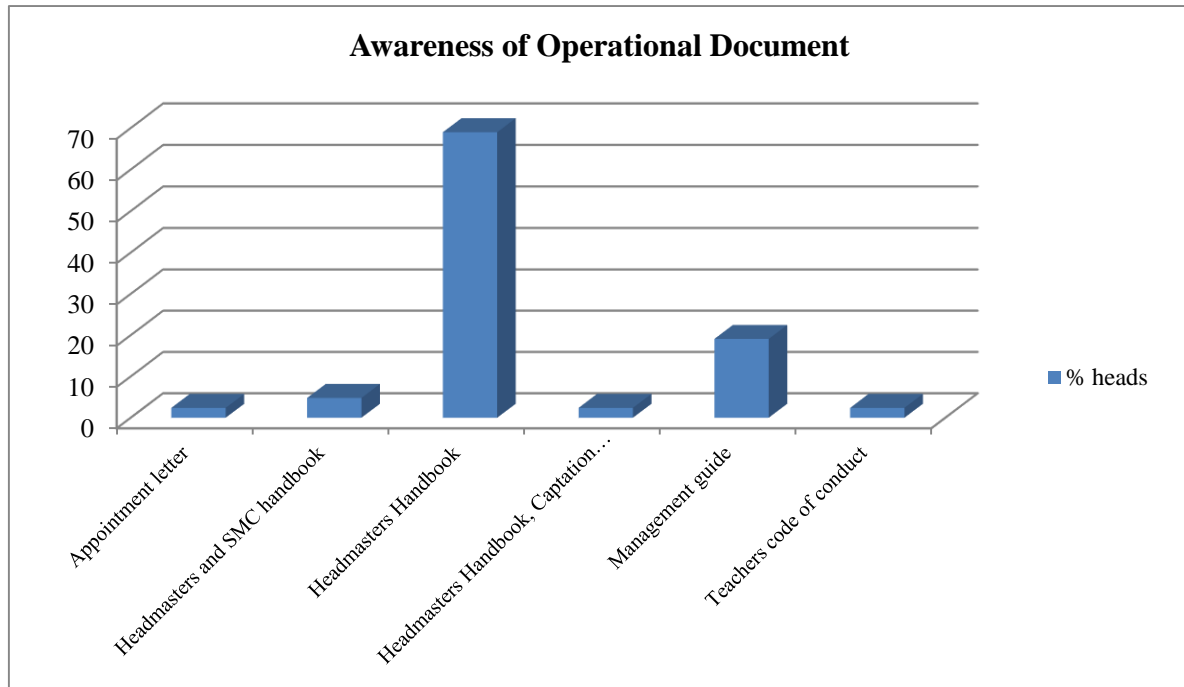


7.2 Policies and Reference Guide for Headteachers

Policies and institutional frameworks provide the scope within which headteachers, as leaders function. Policies on school headship are mostly translated into guides and handbooks aimed at ensuring that headteachers understand their roles, responsibilities and how to implement to provisions in these guides. The same applies to the role of the junior high school heads in Ghana. The study established that the key policy and reference document on the role and duties of the headteacher is the Headteacher Handbook (2010) which was produced by the Ghana Education Service. Every public school head is expected to have a copy of this handbook and beyond their

sensitization; they are expected to function effectively by referring to this in their day to day work. Awareness about this document, its availability in all the junior high schools and use are therefore crucial in promoting or hindering the work of the headteachers.

Figure 7.1: Headteachers' Knowledge of Operational Documents



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Source: Field survey (2018)



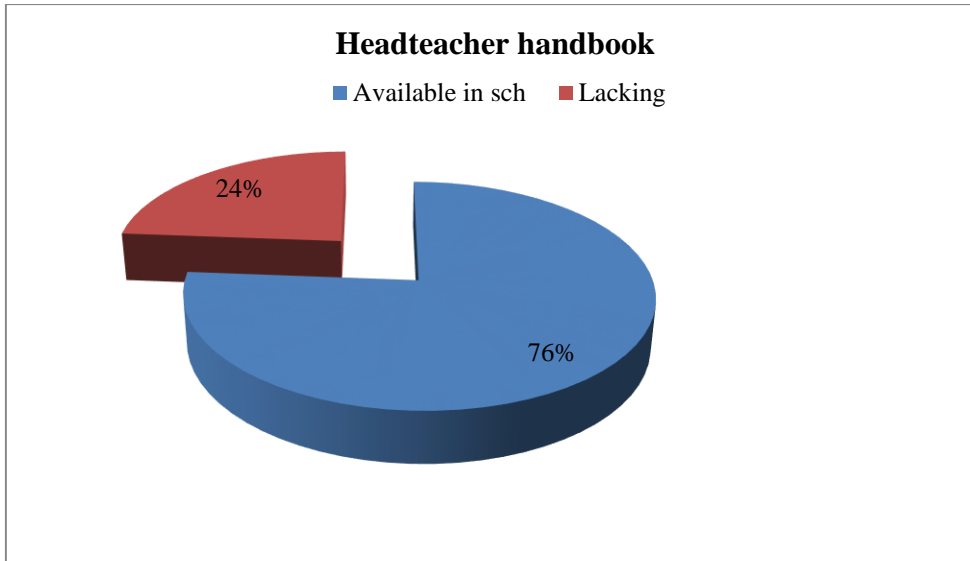
In terms of awareness of policy and reference documents, 85.7% of the headteachers indicated they were well aware of these documents. In order to confirm their awareness, the headteachers were requested to identify specific guidelines known to them. As indicated in Figure 7.1 above, sixty-nine percent (69%) mentioned “Headmasters’ Handbook”. Given the central importance of ateachers’ handbook, every headteacher needs to possess a copy and remain guided by its provisions even though such provisions could be modified under special circumstance. District education offices have responsibility for securing copies from the national level and then distribute them to all schools. From the interviews, 61.5% of district education officers were categorical that

the Head Teacher Handbook is available in every junior high school. The rest, representing 38.5% disagreed.

Majority of headteachers, irrespective of their gender, demonstrated less enthusiasm in the value that the handbook adds to their effectiveness. This finding is consistent with Larson and Ahwireng (2013) in their paper on challenges facing school leaders in Ghana. They found that, though the handbook is meant to define and support the work of basic school headteachers, so far it has failed to equip them with the requisite knowledge, capabilities and attitudes required by headteachers. Transformational, transactional and servant-leader leadership theorists argue that, leaders are expected to innovate especially in resource deprived and complex institutions. School leaders are no exception. It is, however, still necessary that some minimum framework should be provided to give direction to the innovative and creative tendencies of leaders, very important in the case of novice headteachers who may be fairly new to their post and require something for reference. A disconnect between this expectation and the low value that the head teachers place on the handbook affects their effectiveness and invariably improvements in their schools.



Figure 7.2: Availability of Headteacher Handbook



Source: Field survey (2018)

As shown in Fig: 7.2, 76.0% have copies while 24.0% lacked this handbook. Given its central importance in their day to day work, the “Headteacher Handbook” needs to be given to every headteacher so that they can be guided by its provisions.

7.3 Consistency and Clarity in Policies



The major policy challenges facing headteachers in this regard include frequent changes of policies without consideration of headteachers and without consultation with them, absence of orientation on policies for school heads, ambiguity of policy language and failure to provide regular support including training and technical support to heads. The lack of clear policy framework on headteachers’ development has been identified as a major hindrance to their effectiveness. Neither headteachers nor their teachers have adequate knowledge on when policies are developed and when the existing versions would be revised. The very common ones known to them include teachers’

code of conduct, guidelines for developing School Performance Improvement Plan, capitation grants and keeping school records.

Table 7.2: Consistency and Clarity of Policies

Issue	Yes	No
Consultation in Policy Formulation	0(0%)	42(100%)
Clarity of Policy	12(28.6%)	30(71.4%)
Policies Inconsistent	8(18%)	34(82%)

Source: Field Survey (2018)

As indicated in Table 7.2 82% of headteachers consider most of the policies unfavourable and as a result struggle to implement them. One of such unfavourable policies mentioned are the guidelines on what should go into the costing for school performance improvement plans. Also, 71% of the heads considered the policies to be unclear and ambiguous; all forty-two headteachers claimed that they were never consulted before the policies were rolled out. In addition, 34% of respondents indicated that the policies were inconsistent and kept changing. A combination of these elements made the headteachers struggle to implement such policies



These findings conform to that of Abonyi (2017) whose study aimed at investigating the influence of educational policies on academic performance in selected secondary schools in Wakiso District of Ghana. He used a cross-sectional survey involving a number of 78 teachers and 217 pupils, 10 headteachers and 10 Board of Governors' members who were selected purposively and found a positive significant relation between policy clarity and consistency and the performance of headteachers in Wakiso District. He concluded that, policy clarity and consistency affect the efficiency of school administrators and so policy makers may want to make policies clear and

consistent to those who are to implement such policies. Transactional and transformational leadership theorists posit that a leader must clearly communicate the policies, vision, and objective of the organisation to the followers. If headteachers do not understand the policies how do they communicate it to the teachers or pupils? Inconsistencies and lack of clarity of educational policies certainly limit the efficiency of headteachers.

7.4 Headteachers' Professional Development

To be successful in meeting the expectations of education stakeholders, a public junior high school headteacher requires an on-going professional development support. This involves learning on the job on a day to day basis as the challenges emerge as well as complementing skills and knowledge with formal in-service training. When school leaders benefit from professional learning programmes, they acquire new knowledge, skills and attitudes which not only improve their delivery but their school performance (Abonyi, 2017). When asked of the availability and accessibility of in-service trainings in their districts, the headteachers responded in varied ways as shown in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.3: Head Teachers' Professional Development



Gender	Average participation in last seven years		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	23 (65.7%)	12 (34.3%)	35 (100%)
Female	2 (28.6%)	5 (71.4%)	7 (100%)
Total	25 (59.5%)	17 (40.5%)	42 (100%)

Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in Table 7.3 above, in the last seven years, only 28.6% of female heads benefited from professional development programmes compared with 65.7% for males. This means that even though headteachers are expected to remain effective in leading their schools on day to day basis, on average one in every three female heads (71.4%) compared with 34.3% of male heads have not benefited from any formal learning programme. The inadequate and generally adhoc professional training programmes in the study schools hinder headteachers' effectiveness. Given the importance of leadership improvement programmes, limited opportunities and differences in access to these programmes have far reaching implications on their output.

The proportion of education officers without formal support systems is quite significant as it appears almost half of the district officers who should drive a sustained capacity support for junior high school heads do not prioritize this. The informal learning options available for the headteachers include circuit supervisors' visits and support. School supervisors provide some mentoring and coaching to heads during their routine visits to schools. They also offer on the spot support to headteachers in addressing challenges that may come up which might be beyond them.

The district education officials consider the latter as the most frequent and strategic in improving headteachers' effectiveness. This resonates with both Duberman (2011) in Abonyi's (2017) view that, 70% of learning takes place through solving problem that comes up in the course of the leader's day to day routine.

The researcher observed that, professional development programmes for headteachers in the study districts are generally limited and adhoc. While circuit supervisors are mandated to visit each school at least two times in a school term, majority (92%) of the heads noted that they receive on average one support visit a term. Some junior high schools, especially those that are distant from the district capitals hardly received any visit. Similar trend characterizes the formal professional



development programmes. In the last five years, just few formal training programmes have been organized by district education offices even these few were made possible by the assistance from NGOs such as Education and Management Training Foundation (EDMATF) and Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) Ghana. The key areas where training was conducted included how to develop School Performance Improvement Plans (SPIPs), budgeting, supervision of teachers and pupils, teacher assessment and lesson evaluation. They also included communication, monitoring and evaluation.

With a very large proportion of headteachers receiving no training, the implication is that they remain excluded from contemporary practices, skills, knowledge and attitudes that would otherwise facilitate their delivery. The finding on inadequate and adhoc nature of professional development programmes for headteachers in Northern Ghana is consistent with the finding of Jull et al. (2014) when they found that in Sub-Saharan Africa, there has been very little variation in headteachers' professional development and remains a bane for the minimal improvement in their leadership practices. Lonyian and Kuranchi (2018) also found that, continuous professional development programmes for school heads were generally inadequate and were hardly preceded by needs assessment in order to ensure their critical leadership gaps were being met. The concern is that, without these capacity interventions, headteachers' professional development and growth will continue to be in jeopardy.



7.5 Stakeholder Support and Cooperation

School heads cannot be effective in their effort to improve student performance without the needed support and cooperation from stakeholders. Among the key stakeholders, the headteacher engages more frequently with teachers and pupils. The cooperation and support from these groups therefore is critical in promoting or hindering their effectiveness. Headteachers confirmed that whenever

teachers and pupils cooperate, they felt highly motivated and delivered their best. When asked about the areas they received support, the headteachers responded in various ways as captured in Table 7.4 below.

Table 7.4: Support from Teachers

Support Area	Male Headship		Female Headship	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Delivering head teachers' lessons	33	94.3	7	100.0
Administrative and record keeping	34	97.1	7	100.0
Development of school plan	31	88.6	6	85.7
Community school relationship	29	82.9	7	100.0
Supervising teaching and learning	26	74.3	3	42.9
Developing school curriculum timetable	20	57.1	4	57.1

Source: Field survey (2018)

Support from teachers varied based on gender and groups of staff. Compared with their male counterparts, more female heads received frequent cooperation and support from only professional teachers particularly those that have been teaching in the same school for a considerable length of time. Fifty-seven percent of female heads also received more support from male teachers and hardly any from female teachers. In the last 12 months, 67% of heads experienced a decline in the demonstration of willingness and effective cooperation from their teachers. This means that headteachers do not receive adequate support from their teachers.



Overall, 70% of headteachers do not receive maximum cooperation from their teachers in order to be effective. This finding is consistent with Mwanzia's (2017) study findings which found that majority of headteachers, especially women, experienced more disrespect from their teachers due to trivial reasons such as gender, educational qualification and ethnicity. A study by Nzioka (2012) in Westlands District in Kenya revealed that male teachers and members of school committees were the most uncooperative towards female heads and this was affecting their duties. Abreh (2017) also observed that, specific support that headteachers require from their teachers includes support in coordinating school activities, support in record keeping and other administrative tasks such as filling registers, student reports cards and other entries. Planning especially of the duty roasters and time tables and promotion of healthy community school relationship are other areas that teachers can help to ease the workload of headteachers.

7.6 Community and Parents' Support to Headteachers

Apart from the support of teachers, headteachers also need the support of other education stakeholders, particularly parents and the entire community members. This support also shows the linkage between the school and the community. Community support was assessed first based on

whether there existed a School Management Committee and Parent Teacher Association. The assessment also included how members of these school committees relate with the headteacher especially which areas were promoting or hindering their effectiveness. The outcome is that all the junior high schools have Parent Teacher Associations. Only one school did not have a School Management Committee. On average, each School Management Committee comprised of 13 members. While the composition is consistent with the policy provisions of the Ghana Education Service as contained in the handbook of SMC/PTAs (2015) they are male-dominated as 70% of

the members were found to be men. When the headteachers were asked indicate the areas that they have often received support from SMC/PTA, their responses were as shown in Table 7.5 below.

Table 7.5: Community and Parents' Support to Head Teachers

Support Area	Male Heads		Female Heads	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Provision and repair of infrastructure	10	28.6	4	57.1
Relationship between parents and school authorities	24	68.6	3	42.9
Financial contributions	29	82.9	4	57.1
Incentives and motivation to head and teachers	8	22.9	2	28.6
Teacher monitoring and supervision	24	68.6	3	42.9
learners' supervision	25	71.4	4	57.1
Moral encouragement	28	80.0	5	71.4
Security and protection from potential harm	19	54.3	5	71.4

Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in Table 7.5, SMC/ PTA supported in the areas of incentives and motivation to heads and teachers, teacher monitoring and supervision, relationship between parents and school authorities, and financial contributions. Most (76%) headteachers, while admitting to have received some support from the SMC/PTA, decried the poor level of such support from education stakeholders. This conforms to the findings of Abreh (2017) who also found that in Atebubu and



Domah Districts of Bono and Ahafo Regions, collaboration between members of school management committees and the schools they serve remained very limited. He recommended rigorous sensitization at community and school levels and also transforming the leadership role of SMC members in particular as the way forward for improving effectiveness of school leadership. Transformational, transactional and servant-leader leadership theorists, however, argued that it is the quality of leadership that will generate support from the followers. Support does not always come from the blue. This implies that, rather than complaining about poor support from teachers and other stakeholders, headteachers could recalibrate their leadership styles to attract support from their teachers and other education stakeholders in a natural and irresistible manner.

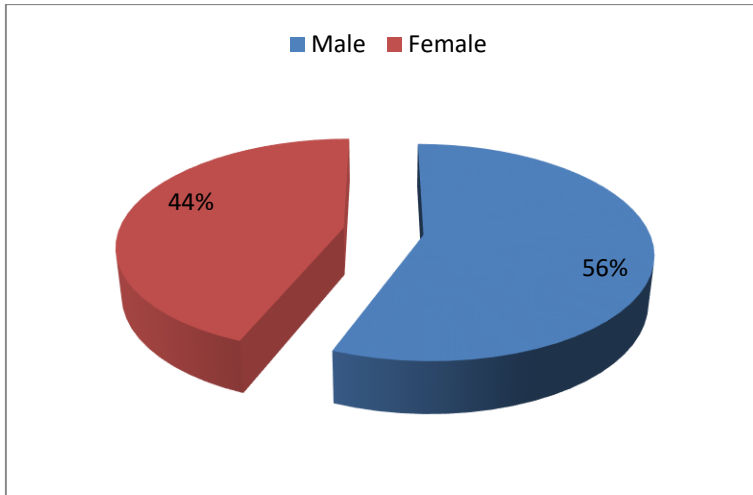
7.5 Preferences and Capabilities

The headteachers are appointed so sometimes the preferences of the appointing authority and the capabilities of the appointees may not be in consonance with the job that is expected of the appointee. This may lead to ineffectiveness. Education managers who are responsible for appointment and supervision of headteachers were asked how they perceive the competence or otherwise of males and females as heads/ leaders of JHS. Their responses are as in Figure 7.3

below.



Figure 7.3: Education Officers' Perception of Competence of Headteachers by Gender

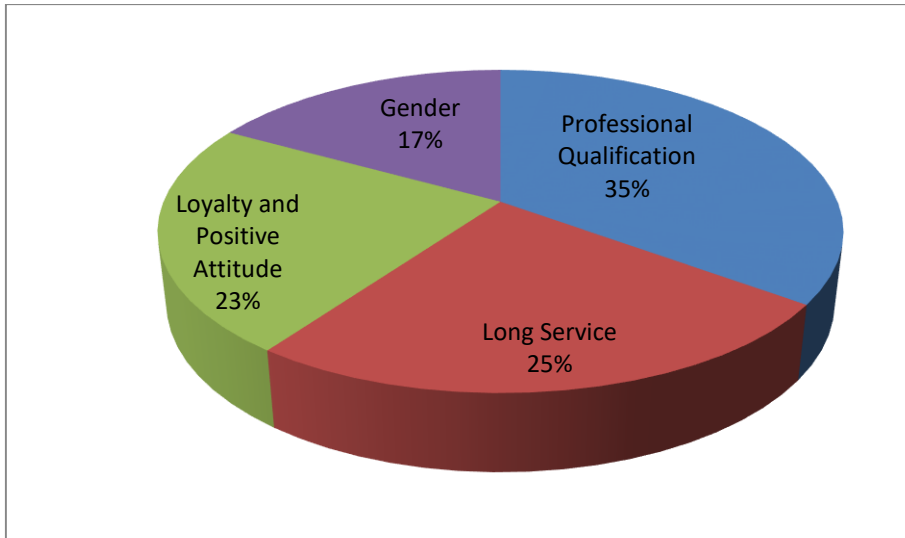


Source: Field survey (2018)

As indicated in the Figure 7.3 above, fifty-six per cent (56%) of the respondents maintained that men are more competent and positioned as heads while 44% believe it is so for females. When asked who they would appoint if they have the opportunity to do that among both male and female teachers who all meet the minimum requirements, 61% of officers opted for males, while 39% would give equal chance to both. None of the managers demonstrated a preference for recruiting only females. When enquired the key indicators managers look out for before appointing the heads of JHS their responses are as shown in Figure 7.4 below.



Figure 7.4: Indicators Appointing Authorities Look Out for before Appointing JHSHeads



Source: Field survey (2018)

Thirty-five per cent (35%) of district education officers considered professional teacher qualification and additional qualification in either management or leadership as key in the appointment of heads of JHS. In the former, a certificate must be awarded by an accredited teacher training institution- College of Education, University or other tertiary institutions. Twenty-five per cent (25%) of the education managers also look out for long service while 23% considered other factors notably loyalty and positive attitude.

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By policy, the minimum requirements for a headteacher is at least a diploma in education and a minimum experience of five years as a professional teacher, positive attitude and evidence of leading people are added advantage though not documented. Loyalty and other related interpersonal qualities are not preconditions to such appointments; however, some teachers maintained these are critical when the districts are appointing headteachers. In practice, 85.7% of the headteachers indicated that, they were appointed through competitive interviews. The rest, representing 14.3%, attended no interview. They were appointed due to long service and other reasons such as their heads retiring and they were then asked to take over. The appreciable share

of headteachers assuming headship through competitive interview is supported by Lonyian and Kuranchie (2018) when they found that competitive interviews were largely the mode of appointing headteachers particularly to urban schools in the then Brong Ahafo region of Ghana.

The study revealed a wide gender variation in the appointment of headteachers in the study districts. When asked to explain the variability, 76% of respondents trusted the appointment procedures as provided for by the GES Council. The researcher also noticed that all the headteachers met the criteria for appointment and so concluded that since male teachers were more than female teachers in the study schools, there was bound to be domination of the headship roles by male teachers.

Supervisors, who in many cases are the ones who recommend those to be appointed as a headteachers, held the view that male teachers are more ready and willing to lead than females and that remains the basis upon which they would recommend more male teachers than females in times of headship appointment. The same view was held by those in leadership position. They perceived male teachers as more exceptionally thriving well in tasks assigned to them than female teachers. These beliefs, whether real or imagined, are factored in when consideration for appointments as headteachers are being made. Teachers and some heads teachers perceived male

heads as leaders with great courage and confidence and so would prefer to work with male headteachers. The three district directors of the districts within which the study was conducted who were all female, held the view that female teachers lack confidence and so demonstrate no willingness to assume headship positions. The researcher observed that, the few females that confronted the odds and became headteachers struggled with male dominance as reflected in the remarks by one of the district education officers with responsibility for human resources.

“Most of the male headteachers I interact with appear more diligent and professional than the women. You come across many of the male heads who will openly demonstrate to you



that they know what they are about and go about their work confidently and professionally. You also come across some female heads and you feel they have issues with confidence and also wonder if they understand what professionalism is” Assistant Director -Human Resources. 27/11/2018

The perception of male heads as having more courage and confidence than female heads conforms to the perspectives on gender which maintain that individuals become gendered in their society when sex-linked characteristics are sustained and transmitted among people within a cultural setting (Bem, 1981). Individual differences therefore exist in the degree to which people hold and reflect varied perspective around gender. Applying this to the study, it can be argued that since men are believed to develop such perspectives in their minds that men are more efficient than women, the abilities and qualities of female headteachers could be underrated. In their examination of female leadership identities and development in Sweden and United States of America, Murakami and Tornsen (2017) assert that even when females are effective in their roles, they can be evaluated in negative and undesirable ways which can impede their confidence and effectiveness.

The conclusion, therefore is that sometimes headteachers may be appointed based on preferences built on unfounded ideologies and perspective like gender variation in capabilities. This may lead to less capable persons being appointed as headteachers at the expense of better qualified people, and invariably limit the effectiveness of these heads.

7.6 Visioning and Planning Skills

As revealed in chapter four, schools that had vision and performance improvement plans were found to have higher BECE scores than those that did not. That re-echoes the importance of visionary leadership and planning. Majority of the headteachers admitted that, they lack the abilities to plan and budget effectively. Around 51.4% of the headteachers identified target setting



and how to translate that into action plans challenging. They emerged fairly good in leading their schools to identify their needs, forecast and transform that into School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP) but these are not without some struggles and also with minimal innovation as they focus mostly on the guidelines of the capitation grant.

Their skills in budgeting and resource mobilization remain low with almost one third (34.3%) of heads confirming that as their greatest challenge. In addition to this, some schools lacked inputs such as writing material and guidelines on SPIP preparation and these were hindering the planning abilities of headteachers. These findings are not consistent with those by Lonyian & Kuranchi (2018). In their study in Tano North District in Ghana, they found that headteachers did not face challenges in their planning duties. This was largely as a result of increased skill and also most of what the heads required were provided by their district education offices. The schools covered by Lonyian and Kuranchi (2018) were quite urban and that could account for the improvement in the planning skills. In whatever the outcome might be, under transformational leadership theory, vision and planning are the lifeblood of the leader and the junior high school heads cannot improve their pupils' performance if they are unable to set target and plan towards its achievement.



Although both male and female heads acknowledge limitations in vision and planning, the females have a double burden of leading the processes and getting adequate support from other stakeholders. As per the guidelines, the development of the school improvement plan is supposed to be a joint task led by the headteacher with active participation by teachers and school management committee members. It is mandatory that once developed the chairperson of School Management Committee endorses the final plan and budget before it is accepted and approved by district education office. Unfortunately, 75% of female headteachers explained that, they have challenges in planning and rely on their male teachers to lead the process. This is compounded by

low cooperation from their teachers and School Management Committee executives that makes their work even more difficult.

7.7 Too Much Routines Impeding Effectiveness

As indicated earlier, thirty-seven respondents mentioned that, sometimes headteachers are required to perform so many routine tasks aside their duties as specified in their appointment letters. Such routine duties may include unexpected extracurricular activities such as 6th March parades, visits by government officials and NGOs programmes which tend to obstruct their duties. In a follow up engagement, a male headteacher who has been leading one of the rural schools provided the following feedback:

“I think the District Education office sees us as one of the needy schools. Due to the location which is not too far the main road anytime a big man or woman wants to visit a school they just bring them here. This happens a lot with the politicians in particular. This takes all my time because I have to stop whatever I plan to do that day or week in order mobilize my teachers, pupils and sometimes even the community members for the visit. It is too much”. Headteacher, KW JHS. 17/01/2019



Headteachers' effectiveness is impeded due to many requests for school data and also a lot of books and forms to fill. These forms include school census forms; student report card and capitation grant reports. Female heads who combine these with domestic and reproductive and family responsibilities like child care find this more challenging. Aside these, headteachers that teach in addition to their headship role are constrained in having to balance teaching in the classroom with other administrative and relational duties.

7.8 Interference from Superior Officers

As indicated in Table 7.1 28% of respondents mentioned that sometimes superior officers interfere in the discharge of their duties and this affects their efficiency. The study further found that, interference from both district education managers and parents hinder headteachers' ability to effectively lead their schools. Some headteachers feel their authority to sanction subordinates is weak and they become vulnerable when district education officers interfere or betray them. Betrayal by circuit supervisors emerged as a cause of vulnerability. When headteachers report frequent absenteeism of some teachers and recommend blocking of the salary of such teachers, district officers sometimes fail to implement this but rather take side with such teachers against the heads. These findings are supported by Lonyian & Kuranchie (2018) who revealed that headteachers were well aware about their duties but generally assumed less authority and were powerless in sanctioning subordinates.

7.9 Chapter Summary

The major findings under chapter seven are that, both male and female headteachers encounter situations that either promote or hinder their ability to be effective in improving their pupils' performance. The Head Teacher Handbook of 2010 remains the key reference document in their leadership role. Majority of junior high schools covered by this study have copies of this publication with no variation in access and formal orientation provided for both male and female-headed schools. This leaves headteachers to interpret and implement its content in ways they understand. Professional development programmes for headteachers take the form of routine informal school support and structured in-service training.



Differences exist in access to the limited professional development training programmes with less than a third of female heads benefiting from these in the last five years. Cooperation and stakeholder support promote the effectiveness of the headteachers. Both male and female heads received less support from stakeholders and teachers cooperated less than expected. Perceptions and preferences for males as headteachers are prevalent and hinder the effectiveness of female heads. The next chapter contains summary of the key findings, conclusions based on the findings and recommendations for policy and practice.



CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a summary of the key findings based on the research questions. The conclusions of the entire study, drawn from the findings and review of existing literature are also presented. The chapter ends with some policy recommendations to the Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service and other stakeholders in education- based organizations based on the findings of the study.

8.2 Summary of Key Findings

8.2.1 Objective I: Leadership styles of Headteachers

The study revealed that, majority of the headteachers in the schools under study displayed varied leadership behaviours. These ranged from simulating and supporting their school- based followers to achieve results, supporting the individual professional and development needs, rewarding hard work and punishing non-performance, leading by doing, making consultations, frequent use of punitive measures and role modelling. These behaviours could qualify for any of the more participatory, transactional, servant-leadership and even leader centered styles. These styles consisted of two major categories; participatory and non-participatory styles. The participatory styles included transformational, transactional and servant-leader leadership styles. The non-participatory styles were those which were closed, leader centred and less consultative in nature. It was revealed that, women heads were more likely to employ the participatory styles than their men counterparts.

The proportion of female heads that employed all four transformational styles is larger than their male counterparts with an average score slightly higher. Among the transformational behaviours and based on their self-assessment, the most dominant style that female heads frequently employed was coaching and mentoring with eight in ten heads behaving this way. In the transformational styles, where male heads dominate, it is in their practice of role modelling but the difference is marginal; 52% compared with 43% of female heads. By location, headteachers in Jirapa District self-assessed as acting as role models and the least score from Talensi District where less than three in every ten heads frequently promoted follower creativity.

8.2.2 Objective II: Influences of headteachers' leadership styles on pupils' BECE scores

It was further revealed that, over the period under study, pupils under headteachers who employed participatory leadership styles demonstrated a 22.3% improvement in their BECE scores over those whose headteachers were largely leader centred. Considering only the current year, ie 2017/2018 academic year when data was collected and also only schools where the same headteachers had served for at least five years, pupils under those who employed participatory leadership styles still demonstrated higher scores with 16.8% and 27.7% respectively.

The study also revealed eight other variables that also influenced variation in BECE scores. Five of these variables have significant influence while the rest did not. Gender of the headteacher was found to be the third most significant influence among them. School category, including its geographic location and level of deprivation, teacher student ratio and having a school vision / performance improvement plan were the others that had statistical significance on pupils' academic performance. On the other hand, the percentage of time headteachers allocated to administrative duties and community relationships with district education officials has no statistical significance.



8.2.3. Objective III: Factors that shape headteachers ability to improve pupils' academic performance

It was revealed that, where policies and institutional guidelines are available and clear, they promoted the effectiveness of the headteachers but these were lacking as many headteachers admitted difficulties in understanding their specific and definite roles as heads. It was further revealed that, headteachers' professional development programmes such as informal routine support by school supervisors and formal in-service training also promote headteachers' effectiveness. This was, however, not available to many headteachers as only about 26.3% have had any form of in-service training for the past seven years.

Support and cooperation from teachers, pupils, parents and the general community motivate and promote the work of the headteachers. It was revealed that, many headteachers found their teachers to be non-cooperative as more than half of headteachers experienced a decreased demonstration of willingness and effective cooperation from their teachers even though fewer female heads felt supported. Overall, seven in ten headteachers were not receiving maximum cooperation from their teachers in order to be effective.

On the other hand, it was further revealed that perceptions and preferences regarding gender of the headteachers hinder their duties. The perception of male heads as leaders with great courage and confidence and female heads as generally lacking confidence and full of self-doubt influences the extent to which they cooperate and support the females to excel. Some headteachers reinforce this perception and relate the situation to lack of basic leadership skills of female heads. Majority of the respondents felt men were better appointed as headteachers, because men were more effective than women. This wrong perception affected the effectiveness of female headteachers in the three districts which were the focus of this study.



Finally, the study revealed that, interferences from both district education managers and parents are other major obstacles headteachers encounter. Interference in matters of discipline in particular erodes the confidence and authority of headteachers leading to their susceptibility and ineffectiveness as school heads.

8.3 Conclusions

Headteachers are vital to the implementation of educational policies. They supervise and monitor the actual implementation of such policies in the classroom and outside the classroom. They play very significant roles as school leaders. The ways they play these roles also have significant influence on the academic achievement of their pupils.

Schools in the northern part of Ghana are mostly deprived and so require headteachers who are able to manage with the limited resources so as to ensure a congenial environment for teaching and learning. Basic inputs which are preconditions for the transformational role of the heads are either woefully inadequate or non-existent. On average, there are two classrooms for an entire school which should by policy have at least three classrooms, reveals how precarious the situation is in these junior high schools in the three districts. The situation where schools have very few and mostly weak dual desks for all pupils who also have to pair to use the three recommended textbooks, namely English, Mathematics and Science, majority of which have been provided more than four years ago does not promote effective teaching and learning. This means that, headteachers in these deprived schools are required to give extra energy when it comes to school leadership compared with their counterparts in other parts of Ghana which are less deprived. [Flexibility in their approach, involving the ability to employ varied leadership styles significantly leads them to winning the support of other stakeholders while taking on board and addressing emerging challenges in school



8.3.1 Objective I: Headteachers leadership style

Headteachers in the three districts of Northern Ghana display various leadership behaviours such as intellectual simulation, passive management by exception, individual consideration, leading by example, role modelling, consultation before decision-making and taking interest in the welfare of staff and pupils. These behaviours could be qualified for any of transformational, transactional and servant-leader leadership styles. There are also some who are less consultative, more prone to punitive actions, and have interest in meeting the target of the school more than the wellbeing of teachers and pupils. The latter behaviours can be qualified for non-participatory leadership styles and while they are needed in certain situations, they overall contribute minimally to pupils' performance.

8.3.2 Objective II: Influence of leadership style on pupils' academic performance

As found in studies in other settings, headteachers who employ participatory leadership styles have their pupils performing better in public examinations than the headteachers who remain rigid, hard-handed and non-consultative. Pupils consistently performed better in the BECE for seven consecutive years in the schools which had headteachers who were considered participatory and considerate than in the schools whose heads were largely non-consultative.

8.3.3 Objective III: Factors that shape headteachers ability to improve pupils' academic performance

While many headteachers work hard to achieve school results, a combination of factors improves their ability to this. Professional development programmes for headteachers remain key if their overall effectiveness is improved. This however was found to be limited as some headteachers have spent over ten years in service without attending training on leadership. Such headteachers



therefore rely on personal initiatives to perform their roles. Again, school policies were found to be one of the factors that enhance headteachers' performance where they existed but are yet to be properly communicated to headteachers by the Ghana Education Office. This implies that, headteachers would have no idea or remain ill-informed about these policies, though they are expected to deliver effectively as school heads. It becomes even more complex and daunting for heads who neither received any orientation on their duties nor any professional development training.

Interference in the work of headteachers across the study schools emerged as a major hindrance. The study established that, when a headteacher employs a prescribed punitive measure against a teacher or student who has failed in his or her responsibility, district education officers come across as obstacles especially when the teachers go to the district offices to have that sanction lifted. This certainly affects the authority of the headteachers over such teachers and learners and consequently limits their effectiveness as school heads. Head teachers assume a central role in improving pupils' performance and support, and a reasonable level of independence do improve their effectiveness.

8.4 Contributions of the Study



A large body of literature exists regarding school leadership and/or student academic performance. A significant amount of the studies however focuses on only school leadership or academic performance. In Northern Ghana, in particular, there is limited literature on how junior high school headteachers improve their pupils' academic performance. This is so because, majority of such studies did not explore the relationship between the leadership styles that the heads employ and how these influence the performance of their pupils.

With evidence from at least one third of junior high schools from three districts across Northern Ghana, this study contributes to the body of knowledge on how headteachers' leadership styles improve their pupils BECE scores while strengthening the debate for more research in this area. A focus on the position of the headteacher as an individual leader, contributes to strengthen transformational leadership theory. By the evidence around leadership styles and BECE scores, this study reveals how, as individual leaders, headteachers transform their schools, by driving and motivating teachers, pupils and other stakeholders in order to reach their organizational goal which is improved BECE scores.

8.4.1 Areas for further research

- The extent to which school performance improvement plans signify school vision
- Leadership styles of head teachers and their influence in private schools in Northern Ghana
- Contribution of religious bodies to student achievement in Northern Ghana
- How teachers' instructional duties strengthen headteachers' role

8.5. Recommendations

The Ministry of Education through Ghana Education Service prioritises pupils' performance in Basic Education Certificate Examination and as a result the poor performance in many junior high schools in the study districts and across Northern Ghana needs to be of national concern. This concern may need to reflect in a conscious plan to increase awareness and accountability of all stakeholders involved in education at the Junior High School level.

At the time of conducting this study in 2017/2018 academic year, Ghana Government had just introduced a Free Senior High Policy and also working to extend basic education from KG up to SHS level. This is already reflecting in a relaxation of the minimum grade for entry into senior high



school. It is believed that the first two batches of the Free SHS Policy had some of the pupils being admitted with grades far lower than the 6-36 as explained earlier. This, however, does not mask the overall importance of the Basic Education Certificate Examination. Even if this is the long term objective, Basic Education Certificate Examination should still be emphasized and given the much needed awareness as it remains a key indicator for assessing the quality of education that pupils receive after nine to eleven years of schooling.

- Since the role of basic school headteachers remains very important in the academic achievement of pupils, the Ghana Education Service should support them to attend short courses on leadership in order to equip them with the skills needed to function effectively in their roles.
- The Ministry of Education and GES should institute regular professional development programmes backed by adequate budgetary allocations. At the beginning of 2019, there was an unconfirmed notice about Government's plans to roll out a national plan for headteachers, to be delivered by a private service provider. Until this becomes a reality, the Ghana Education Service should be mandated to conduct these programmes to enhance headteachers' professional development. These programmes should cover key skills' areas such as planning for results, budgeting and resource mobilization, teamwork and human resource management including communication and leadership styles. Provisions should also be made to promote acceptance and use of more transformational styles among headteachers.
- To make headteachers' professional development very relevant and owned, the Ghana Education Service should require a prior and participatory needs assessment to precede the training.





- The Ghana Education Service should also go beyond workshop-based training approach to building headteachers' capacity to include one on one peer mentoring and coaching.
- To guarantee that every headteacher has positive attitude towards professional development programmes, Ghana Education Service may include mechanisms for demonstrating their benefits as part of promotion interviews.
- Beyond formal professional development support, District Education Officers may intensify their oversight functions on headteachers so as to improve their day to day delivery. This may include an increase in the number of monitoring visits that they make to schools to interact with the heads.
- Circuit supervisors may need to have a listening attitude to ensure that concerns from headteachers are prioritized in decisions they take at the district level.
- In order for headteachers to overcome school-based challenges, have authority and improve their delivery, district education officers should value and support their decisions. To demonstrate this, district education managers should avoid interfering in key decisions that headteachers take, particularly those that involve sanctions and discipline against teachers.
- School inputs constitute preconditions that facilitate the effectiveness of headteachers, yet these are largely inadequate and of poor quality in the study schools. Headteachers should be supported by GES and other stakeholders to improve their student performance through the provision of minimum inputs such as classrooms, furniture, teaching and learning materials and residential accommodation.
- As part of their mandate, the Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service should supply adequate core textbooks and other supplementary readers to all schools. Local Government through the District Education directorate may need to work with community

members to renovate all dilapidated structures and provide additional classrooms and toilet facilities in order to secure a conducive learning environment for pupils.

- All broken down furniture need urgent repair and new ones added in order to ensure that every student has access to a table and chair to facilitate their learning.
- To improve their retention, communities may work with their respective District Assemblies to provide decent accommodation for headteachers especially female heads. Once these are in place, teachers and pupils would have a congenial environment for teaching and learning. The headteachers would not only feel comfortable functioning in a secured environment but their leadership styles would be yielding more impact on the pupils. Recommendation for Further Studies



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

School based Questionnaires

My name is Eric Duorinaah, a student of the University for Development Studies, Department of Social, Political and Historical Studies.

I am conducting a research on headship at Junior High School Level and its contributions to pupils BECE scores. Your school is among those selected for the study and I would be grateful to have your cooperation and support in obtaining the necessary information.

I pledge to ensure the fullest confidentiality of information provided.

Thank you

A. Background information

- i. Name of community
- ii. Name of school
- iii. Type of School (1) R/C, (2) L/A (3), D/A , (4) E/A , (5) Others
- iv. Year school was established (headteacher)
- v. Distance of school from district education office (headteacher)
- vi. Name of respondent -----
- vii. Position (1) Headteacher (2) Teacher
- viii. Gender (0) Female (1) Male
- ix. Age



- x. Educational qualification (1) MSLC (2) O/A Level (3) SSSCE/WASSSCE
 (4) Diploma (5) Degree (6) Post graduate (7) Other (Please specify)

x. Number of years of experience as a professional teacher-----

xi Number of years of experience as a headteacher----- (only heads)

xii. How long have you been the head of this school? ----- (only heads)

B. School environment and inputs (This section is to be responded to by only headteachers)

i. How will you describe this school?

- (1) Rural- Deprived (2) Rural Non-deprived (3) Peri-urban
 Deprived
 (4) Peri-urban Non-deprived (5) Urban Deprived (6) Urban Non-deprived
 (7) Others

ii. Enrolment and staffing in the 2017/2018 academic year

Teachers		Student enrolment	
Male		Boys	
Female		Girls	
Disabled		Disabled	

iv. Number of primary schools that feed this Junior High School _____



v. In the Table below, list the key teaching and learning materials(TLM) and indicate their availability in the 2017/2018 academic year

TLM	Number required	Number available

vi. School infrastructure and sanitation facilities

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Facility	Number	Current state/Condition of facility (1) good condition, (2) fairly good condition, (3) very poor condition
Classrooms		
Toilets		
Urinals		
Furniture		



OBJECTIVE ONE: HEADTEACHER’S STYLES ADOPTED

C. Planning and budgeting (headteacher only)

- i. Does this school have a development plan? (1) Yes (0) No
- ii. If this school has a development plan which period (in years) does it cover?
- iii. List the 5 main items in the school plan

v. If this school does not have a development plan explain how you run school activities

vi. Does this school have a school budget? (1) Yes (0) No

If no, why does this school not have a budget?

.....

vii. If you have a school budget how much (in Ghana cedis) was the total budget in the last 12 months? -----

viii. How much of the total funds required did you actually receive? -----

ix. What were the main sources of funds in the last 12 months?

List other non-material resources that this school has received in the last 12 months

D. Recruitment and duties of a school head (Only headteachers)

i. How many years did you teach before you were appointed a headteacher? _____

ii. How were you appointed as a head? (0) I paid some money in order to be made a head teacher (1) There was no head so I am in an acting capacity (2) Due to long service I was automatically appointed 3) Through a competitive interviews and based on merit (4) Other (Please specify)

iii. How knowledgeable and informed are you about your role as a headteacher? (0) I do not understand my role (1) I quite understand some aspects of my role but not all (2) I have in-depth knowledge about my role (3) Other (Please specify)



iv. How will you describe your level of interest in your role as a headteacher? (3) Highly interested

(2) Quite interested (1) Less interested

v. How would you describe your experience so far in playing the role of a headteacher?

(5) Very exciting (4) Exciting (3) Normal/Nothing different (2) Challenging

(1) Not interested, only seen as a burden (0) Hate being a headteacher

- i. As a head teacher do you understand your role? (1) Yes (0) No
- ii. If yes, please explain briefly the 5 key duties of a headteacher
- iii. Apart from being a head do you also teach? (1) Yes (0) No
- iv. If yes, how many subjects do you teach?
- v. In the last academic year what percent of your time did you spend on each of the 5 key duties mentioned above?



E. Leadership styles (Headteacher self-assessment)

i. Please fill the following table

No.	Issue	Never (0)	Once in a while (1)	Sometime (2)	Often (3)	Always (4)
1	I make others feel good to be around me					
2	I express with a few simple words what we could and should do					
3	I enable others to think about old problems in new ways					
4	I help others develop themselves					
5	I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work					
6	I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards					
7	I am content to let others continue working in the same ways always					
8	Others have complete faith in me					





9	I provide appealing images about what we can do					
10	I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things					
11	I let others know how I think they are doing					
12	I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals					
13	As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything					
14	Whatever others want to do is ok with me					
15	Others are proud to be associated with me.					
16	I help others find meaning in their work					
17	I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before					
18	I give personal attention to others who seem rejected					

19	I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish					
20	I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work					
21	I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential					

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xvi. Do you often receive feedback about your leadership style from your teachers? (1) Yes
(0) No

xvii. If no, why have you not received feedback from your teachers regarding your style of leadership?

xviii. If yes, what specific feedback have you received from your teachers in the last 12 months?

(0) How I relate with teachers (1) How I manage school inputs (2) My style of dealing/supporting others (3) Others (Please specify)



xix. Do you often receive feedback from your SMC and PTA members? (1) Yes (2) No

xx. If no, give reasons why you do not receive feedback from your SMC and PTA

xxi. If yes, what kinds of feedback have you received from SMC/PTA in the last 12 months?

xxii. How do you feel about the feedback you receive? (0) I feel bad (1) I feel worried
(2) I feel good (3) I feel more confident (4) Other (Please specify)

xxiii. What do you normally do with negative concerns you receive about your style of leadership?

- (0) I get angry and ignore it (1) I keep it to myself and do nothing (2) I discuss it with others in order to find solution (3) I use it to improve my ways of doing things
 (4) Other (Please specify)

Follower rating of their head teachers (Teachers only)

Please rate the leadership styles of the headteacher who is/was in this school in the last 12 months using the following numbers against each statement. One score per statement

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No.	Issue	(0) Never	(1) Once in a while	(2) Sometimes	(3) Often but not always	(4) Always
1	My headteacher makes others feel good to be around him/her					
2	My head teacher expresses with a few simple words what we could and should do					
3	My headteacher enables others to think about old problems in new ways					
4	My headteacher helps others develop themselves					



5	My head tells others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work					
6	We can feel the head is satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards					
7	My head is content to let others continue working in the same ways always					
8	I have complete faith in my headteacher					
9	My head provides appealing images about what we can do					
10	My head provides others with new ways of looking at puzzling things					
11	My headteacher lets others know how I think they are doing					
12	My headteacher provides recognition/rewards when others reach their goals					



13	As long as things are working, my head does not try to change anything					
14	Whatever others want to do is OK with our headteacher					
15	Myself and others are proud to be associated with our headteacher					
16	My headteacher helps others find meaning in their work					
17	My head gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before					
18	My head gives personal attention to others who seem rejected					
19	My headteacher calls attention to what others can get for what they accomplish					
20	My headteacher tells others the standards they have to know to carry out their work					

21	My headteacher asks no more of others than what is absolutely essential					
----	---	--	--	--	--	--

As a teacher do you receive any support from your headteacher? (1) Yes(0) No

- iii. If no, please explain why
- iv. If yes, what are some of the ways your headteacher supports you?
- v. Which of these areas of support did you find most helpful in the last 12 months?
- vi. Apart from your headteacher, which other stakeholders support you in your duties?
- vii. How do you find the support from your head compared with other stakeholders in understanding your duties as a teacher?
- viii. Do you often receive feedback from your headteacher? (1) Yes (0) No
- ix. If no, explain why
- x. If yes, what kinds of feedback have you received from your headteacher in the last 12 months?
- xi. How do you often feel about the feedback you receive from your headteacher? (From more empowered to very angry)
- xii. What do you normally do with feedback you receive from your headteacher?



OBJECTIVE TWO: LEARNING OUTCOMES

G. Effectiveness of JHS and perceptions about student performance (all respondents)

i. What are the 3 key things you would consider in an effective Junior High School? (All respondents)

ii. Overall, how would you rate the level of effectiveness of your school? (3) Very effective (2) Effective (1) Quite effective (0) Not effective

iii. How satisfied are stakeholders about the effectiveness of this school?

Please rate the satisfaction level of the following stakeholders regarding the performance of your school (3) Very satisfied (2) Satisfied (1) Not satisfied (0) Very disappointed

iv. On average, how would you rate the performance of JHS 3 pupils in class assignment? (From excellent to very poor)

v. How is the performance of JHS3 pupils of this school in end of term examinations? (from excellent to very poor)

vii. How do you rate the performance of pupils in BECE over the years? (from excellent to very poor)

vi. In which year did this school first present candidates for BECE? -----

viii. For both boys and girls, what has been the best BECE percentage (%) score in this school since its inception? -----

ix. In which year did your school achieve this best score? -----

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- x. What has been the worse % BECE score since this school started presenting candidates? -----
- xi. In which year did your school achieve this worse score? -----
- xii. What was the % score this school achieved in the last BECE (i.e. 2017) -----
- xiii. Between boys and girls which ones generally perform better at BECE than the other?

(0) Boys (1) Girls

xiv. In order of importance, please list the 3 key factors that bring about the high performance of your school in BECE

xv. In order of importance, please list the 3 key reasons for the worse performance

xvi. In your opinion, does a headteacher contribute to the kinds of BECE scores that pupils get?

(1) Yes (0) No

xvii. If no, please explain

xviii. If yes, in what ways does a head contribute to BECE performance?



OBJECTIVE THREE: FACTORS THAT PROMOTE OR HINDER JHS HEADS' DELIVERY

H. Perceptions about gender and headship

- i. In your opinion, how do you perceive yourself as a head? (From highly positive to negative)

ii. How dependable or helpful do you feel people find you as the head? (From very dependable & helpful to not dependable)

As a teacher of this school how do you perceive the effectiveness of your headteacher? (From very effective to ineffective)

ii. In your opinion, how do you think others also perceive your headteacher? (From very effective to ineffective)

iii. How dependable or helpful do you feel people find your headteacher? (From very dependable and very helpful to neither dependable nor helpful)

iv. As a teacher, how much trust do you have in your headteacher?

v. Personally, in what ways do you think your being a man/woman headteacher influence how you lead your school?

I. vii. Headteacher’s professional development support (Only heads)

vi. In the last 12months, have you participated in a headteacher’s professional development programme? (1) Yes (0) No

vii. If no, why have you not participated in any headteacher’s professional development programme?

viii. If you have participated in a headteacher’s professional developmentprogramme, provide more information on the table below

Professional development course	Date/month	Organizer	Topics covered	Relevance of course to you



--	--	--	--	--

x. How have these training programmes equipped you to play your role effectively?

xi. Which areas do you believe you need further professional support?

xii. Is there any guide or document for reference as a headteacher? (1) Yes (0) No

xiii. If yes, what is the name and source of this headteacher's guide/document?.....

xiv. Does your school have a copy of this guide? (1) Yes (0) No

xv. Have you been trained on how to use this document/guide? (1) Yes (0) No

xvi. How helpful do you find this document? (From very helpful to least helpful)

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J. Support from stakeholders

i. Does this school have SMC and PTA? (1) Yes (0) No

ii. If yes, in which years were they formed?-----

iii. How many members are in each of them? (1)male (2) female

iv. Do the members know their roles and responsibilities? Yes (1) No (0)

v. List 5 major roles and responsibilities of the SMC and PTA

xi. Indicate the exact support you have received from your SMC/PTA in the last academic year

xii. Do you receive support from your teachers? (1) Yes (0) No

If no, please give reasons why you do not receive any support from your teachers

xiii. If you receive support, list the specific support you have received in the last 12 months

xiv. Which category of teachers support you more?

xv. What are the reasons why you receive more support from this category of teachers mentioned above

What challenges do headteachers face in their effort to improve student performance?

In what ways can headteachers be supported in order to lead effectively?

iii. What can be done to improve the professional delivery of headteachers at the JHS level?

iv. List 3 key ways in which pupils' performance in BECE can be improved

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District level questionnaire

District	Name	Age
----------	------	-----



i. Present position (1) District Director (2) Assistant Director- Human Resources (3) Assistant Director -Supervision

ii. Number of years at the current position-----

iii. How long have you been working in the district education office? -----

iv. On average, please indicate the % of time a JHS head is expected to spend on his/her key duties in a school term

- v. In practice do all JHS heads lead and manage their schools in the same way? (1) Yes
(0) No
- vi. If no, please explain why they lead in different ways
- vii. In the last 12 months, please indicate the forms of support you have provided for JHS in your district
- viii. What are the key requirements for one to become a JHS head? Please rate the following
- ix. How will you describe the level of interest of JHS heads in doing their work?
(2) Highly interested (1) Quite interested (0) Not interested
- x. In the last 3 years, has there been any professional development training for JHS heads?
(1) Yes (0) No
- xi. If no, why has there been no professional development training for JHS heads?
- xiii. If yes to the above, please fill the following table



Professional development course	Date/month	Organizer	Topics covered

- xiv. Which areas do you believe JHS heads require more professional support?
- xv. Does every JHS head have a copy of the Head Teacher Handbook? (1)Yes
(0) No

- xvi. When was the last time (in months) JHS heads were trained on how to use the handbook?
- xvii. Personally, how do you perceive JHS heads in your district?
- xviii. What are some of the reasons why there are more male heads at the Junior High School than females?

xi. The following to be answered by only district director

- xix. In the last 5 years, what has been the highest/best % district score in BECE?-----

- xx. In which year did this district score the highest in BECE?-----
- xxi. In the last five years what has been the least/worse % district BECE score ?-----
- xxii. In which year did this district achieve this worse score? -----
- xxiii. What was the % score of this district in the most recent BECE (i.e. 2017)?-----

The following to be answered by director, assistant directors and circuit supervisors

- xxiv. In order of importance, please list the 5 key factors that bring about the high performance of your school in BECE
- xxv. In order of importance, please list the 5 key reasons for the worse performance in BECE
- xxvi. In your opinion, does the headteacher of a JHS contribute in any way to BECE scores?

(0) No (1)Yes
- xxvii. If yes, in what ways does a head contribute to BECE performance?
- xxviii. If no, why do you think a JHS headteacher does not contribute to improvement in BECE?



xxix. What can be done to improve the delivery of all JHS heads in this district?

Table 9: BECE Scores

Table 9A: BECE Scores Jirapa District

SCHOOL	2010/11		2011/12		2012/2013		2013/2014		2014/2015		2015/2016		2016/2017		2017/2018	
	Boy	Girl	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
A	48.6	45.9	59.4	28.1	56.3	50.0	48.8	36.6	51.4	57.1	47.4	28.9	92	91	100.0	87.5
B	29.6	25.9	31.0	17.2	38.9	11.8	39.3	17.9	16.7	12.5	35.7	11.9	63	21	57.1	10.0
C	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	41.7	18.5	9.1	13.2	0.0	54	44	28.6	0.0
D	63.6	27.3	56.7	13.3	55.6	43.8	39.5	16.3	10.9	4.2	16.2	0.0	13	16	43.8	18.2
E	17.6	17.6	19.0	9.5	46.2	38.5	24.2	12.1	22.6	6.3	22.6	3.2	23	25	100.0	100.0
F	34.8	26.1	0.0	5.0	33.3	7.7	26.1	0.0	20.6	10.0	12.5	6.3	30	18	28.6	4.8
G	29.2	8.3	46.7	30.0	48.6	11.5	14.3	9.5	27.4	18.2	52.0	22.0	61	36	38.3	31.4
H	0.0	0.0	20.0	40.0	66.7	50.0	13.6	0.0	14.3	16.7	20.0	0.0	86	30	94.1	88.2
I	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	23.5	14.3	17.3	8.3	27	0	60.0	18.2
J	41.8	52.8	34.0	42.2	69.2	45.0	43.4	27.6	32.9	87.5	28.3	18.9	70	77	81.0	77.8
K	63.6	18.2	41.7	16.7	24.3	4.3	6.9	1.7	11.9	0.0	10.0	7.5	24	20	20.0	0.0
L	55.6	11.1	61.5	23.1	37.5	16.7	25.9	3.7	21.6	26.3	27.0	13.5	85	63	42.9	13.0
M	12.5	0.0	33.3	22.2	12.5	0.0	50.0	25.0	15.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	88	17	55.6	10.0
N	25.0	12.5	0.0	30.8	54.5	16.7	66.7	9.5	12.5	0.0	6.3	6.3	89	67	55.6	11.1
O	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	34.2	13.5	33	0	30.0	20.0
P	32.1	7.1	40.0	6.7	40.0	14.3	25.8	6.5	22.2	35.7	14.5	1.8	52	13	12.2	3.0

Source: School records (2018)

Table 9B: BECE Scores Talensi District

SCH	2010/11		2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15		2015/16		2016/17		2017/18	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
AA	100	100	88.5	46.5	85.7	45.5	35.3	0	9.5	0	4.3	13.8	7.70	0.00	3.4	0.0
BB	100	100	20	12.5	100	100	19.2	0	9.1	0	11.1	9.5	10.70	0.00	8.7	0.0
CC	42.8	25.6	28.3	15.2	15.8	20	40	8.3	30	5.5	20	4.2	7.70	0.00	7.7	0.0
DD	57	64.7	50	55.6	54.5	13.3	5	6.3	21.7	4	20	15.5	17.6	8.3	9.1	0.0
FF	50	18.8	36.4	30	2.6	2	18.8	10.7	5.1	0	20	15.6	19.4	13.3	2.3	3.3
GG	24	15.3	22.2	5	21.4	10.3	10.9	4.6	40	25	5.6	0	13.5	0.0	5.6	0.0
HH	39	20	88.2	90.9	7.6	4.8	6.5	7.5	6.5	6.8	6.7	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8
II	50	18.8	36.4	30	2.6	2	18.8	10.7	5.1	0	20	15.6	9.1	5.3	30.8	0.0
JJ	15.4	0	32	9.5	25	36.4	18.8	14.3	7.7	0	18.2	0	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
KK	0	0	7.6	0	10	0	0	0	16.7	0	8.3	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
LL	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22.2	25	33.3	28.6	10.0	0.0	21.4	12.5
MM	0	0	0	0	0	0	22.2	25	33.3	28.6	38.5	9.1	7.1	12.5	20.0	23.1
NN	0	0	25	40	7.5	5	0	0	50	53.8	3.6	6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.3

Source: School records (2018)

Table 9C: BECE Scores West Mamprusi District

SCHOOL	2010/2011		2011/2012		2012/2013		2013/2014		2014/2015		2015/2016		2016/2017		2017/2018	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
CA																
CB	61	50	53	51	42	28	38	21	60	53	70	22	47.1	28.6	9	18
CD	23	14	26	16	24	17	20	17	19	19	34	34	3.4	5.6	12	4
CE	35	20	48	28	49	23	50	50	48	33	36	28	43.3	14.2	8	4
CF	45	48	67.8	44.7	56.1	50	36.9	45	39.7	21	67	26	14.7	2.6	22	9
CG	0	0	0	0	26.2	6	16	17	13	22.8	20	12	4	5.9	6	0
CH	0	0	87.5	93.8	52.6	33.3	6	0	0	0	29.3	14.29	4.3	19.2	0	0
CI	37	26	61	19	53	26	64	28	45	30	39	45	55.6	16.7	5	0
CK	34	20	46	31	40	40	42	31	10	12	27	12	15	20.7	9	3
CL	0	0	55.4	65.1	51	41.6	24	27.5	36.2	21	63	15.8	22.7	8.3	32	0
CM	0	0	0	0	0	0	62	31	60	36	44	35	45.2	22.7	17	14
CN	41	22	43	36	44	19	13	38	31	31	12	18	13.6	28.6	0	0
CO	0	0	100	100	77.8	66.7	15.4	9.1	12.5	0	65.39	15.8	56.8	26.3	9	0
CP	0	0	0	0	49	43	60	18	16	15	10	8	5.6	0	5	0

Source: School records (2018)

Table 10: Comparison head teacher self-assessment and follower rating

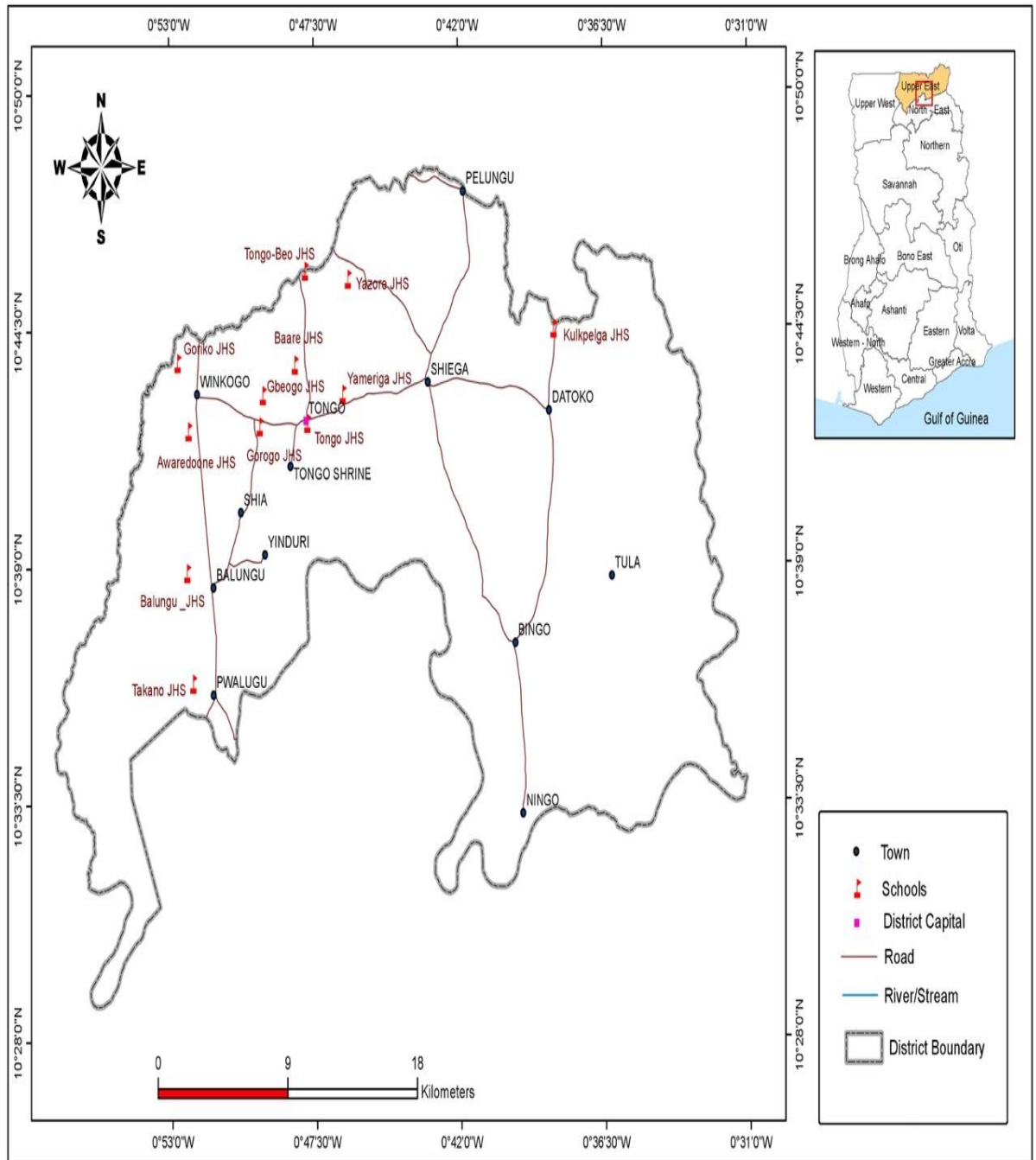
Leadership style	Head teachers			Teachers			Diff in totals	Diff male scores	Diff in Female scores
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total			
Role modelling	50	43	57	86	100	88	31	36	57
Motivating and follower development	52	57	62	89	86	88	26	37	29
Creativity/problem solving	24	29	29	43	57	45	16	19	28
Individual need coaching& mentoring	48	86	86	57	71	60	-26	9	-15
Rewarding& sanctioning performance	45	57	55	63	86	67	12	18	29
Intervening in exceptional cases	50	57	60	63	86	67	7	13	29
Relaxed/less involved	10	0	10	14	43	19	9	4	43

Source: Field survey (2018)

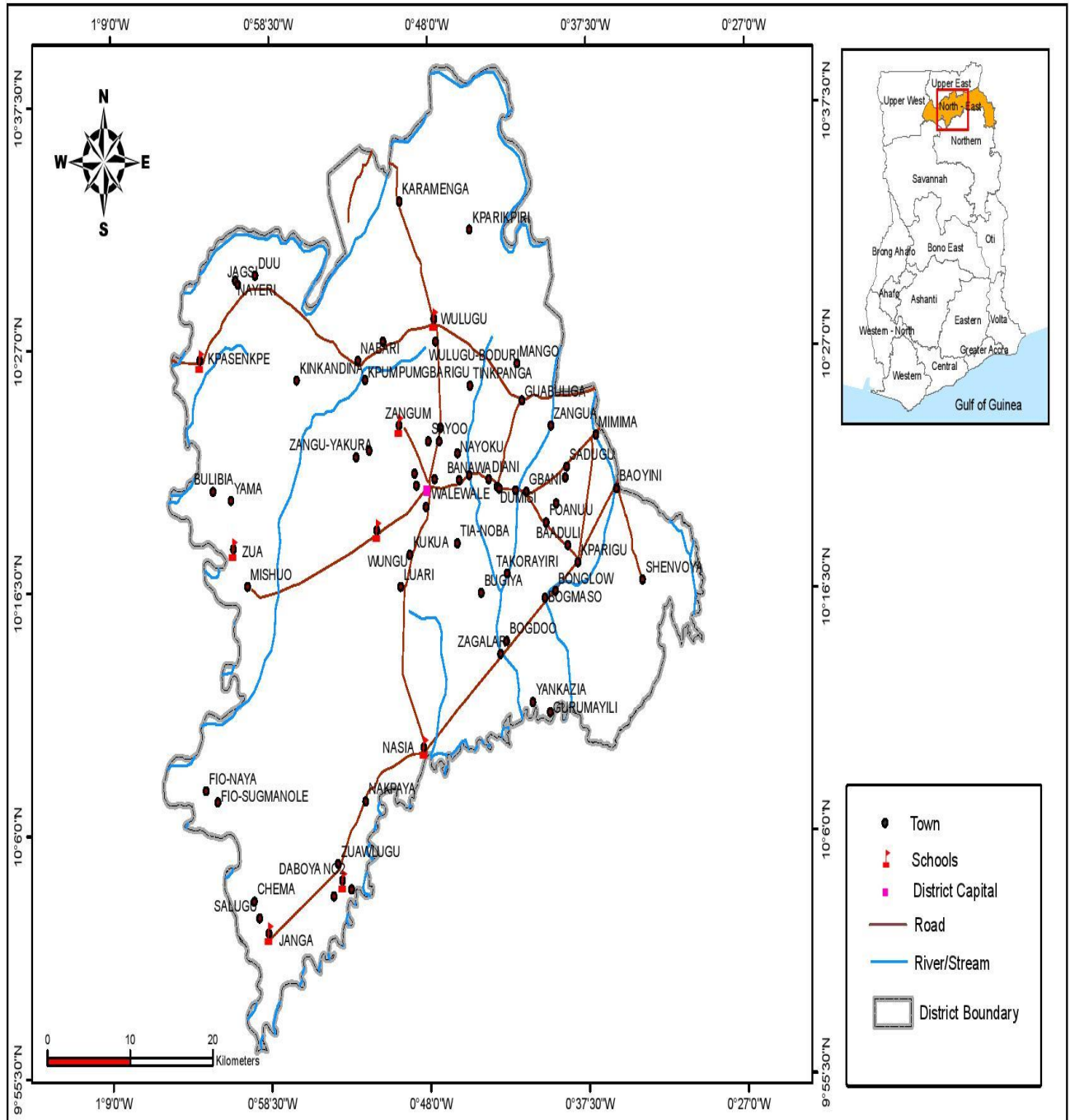


APPENDIX C: MAPS OF STUDY AREA

1. Map of Talensi District



2. Map of West Mamprusi District



3. Map of Jirapa District

