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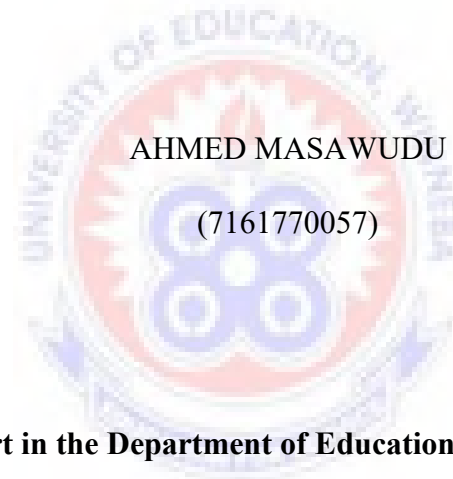
THE INFLUENCE OF HEADMASTER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON TEACHER
MOTIVATION AT THE KUMASI METRO



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

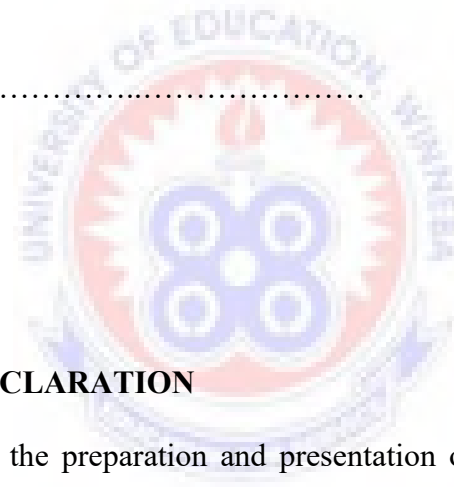
DECEMBER, 2018

DECLARATION

I, AHMED MASAWUDU, declare that this Project Report, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree in the University of Education, Winneba or elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....



SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All thanks and praises are due to the Creator of this universe whose mercy, compassion and support made it possible for me to accomplish this onerous task. This work wouldn't have been successful without the guidance, direction; constructive criticisms and encouragement from my supervisor Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam, May the good Lord sufficiently reward him.



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, madam Katumi Sule, my wife, Hajia Fauzia and my four children, Hallima, Suraiya, Ayisha and Sualiha.



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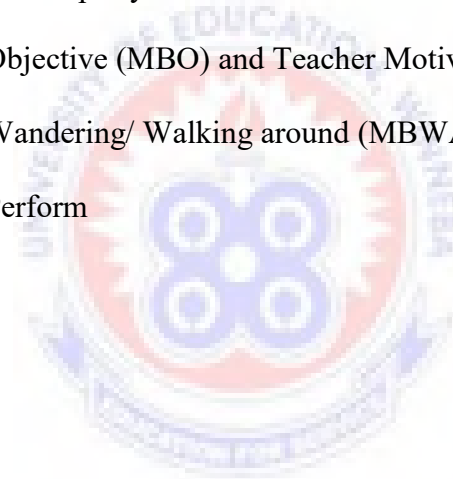
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ABSTRACT

Several studies have been carried out to discern the relationship between leadership styles of heads of second cycle institution and teacher motivation to perform but such studies have not been carried out on a large scale in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. This study therefore sought to investigate the leadership style used by the Heads of second cycle institutions in the Ashanti Region of Ghana and whether the leadership styles adopted motivates teachers to perform satisfactorily. Sample of five Senior High Schools (SHS) in the Kumasi metropolis were used for the study. Simple frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the data. Of the five headmasters interviewed, four revealed that they more often than not use democratic leadership style while all the five maintain that in addition to democratic style they again maximize the use of transactional style. The study adopted a mixed method by the use of both qualitative and quantitative approach involving the use of questionnaire and interview. The findings revealed therefore that the Heads of the five SHS in the Kumasi metropolis used the democratic, transactional leadership styles extensively while Management By Objective (MBO) and Management By Wandering Around (MBWA) were also used on limited scale. Leadership styles such as laissez faire, autocratic and paternal were rarely used. It is recommended however that other forms of leadership styles such as situational leadership style, pacesetter style should also be used when necessary.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

As the saying goes, “Education is the key to success”. Secondary school education plays an essential role in the economic development of every country (Doran, 2007). It is the link between the basic and the tertiary education. In Ghana and other developing countries, second cycle education provides the platform for the student to decide on their career pursuit by choosing from the available courses the one that leads to a particular career opportunity. For instance, a student with the aim of pursuing medicine begins with a science programme at the secondary school.

In the light of the pivotal role that second cycle education plays in the development of the country’s economy, prudent and pragmatic approaches in the leadership styles of the heads should shape up the operations of these institutions. Olum (2014) highlights that the manager is the dynamic, life-giving element in every business whose quality management and performance determines the success of a business.

In the words of Andre, Anatole and Gerard (2008), the staff of the secondary school is divided into three categories: the administrative staff, teaching staff and the support staff. The administrative staff is made up of the head teacher and his assistants, the bursar or accountant and the secretary while the teaching staff is mainly the entity of personnel in charge of giving knowledge or teaching pupils. The support staff is made up of the other personnel whose work complement those of the teaching and administrative staffs. They include the security person and the attendants (Andre et al., 2008).

The success of the institution is contingent on the services of each of the staff members identified above. However, the role of the administrative staffs, spearheaded by the head is the most sensitive to the attainment of the set objectives of the school. Lai, Luen, Chai and Lian (2014) assert that the principal is the most important and influential individual in the school whose leadership shapes the school's learning climate, the level of relationship between staff, and the teacher morale. Darr (2000) adds that at the organization's level, senior managers must ensure effective current organizational activities that transform the organization through their visionary leadership.

In a formal organization such as the school, interactions are rationally coordinated and directed through time on a continuous basis and the person at the helm of affairs is the leader who direct the pursuit of its own collective goals and controls its own performance (Almansour, 2012). According to Darr (2000), managers are persons who are formally appointed to the positions of authority in organizations who guide their subordinates to do their work and are accountable to a higher authority for their work. Bush (2006) argues that the pursuit of efficiency may be the mission statement of management.

This means managers' roles are extremely sensitive to the operations of every organization. Darr (2000) maintains that, managers have interpersonal roles which includes figure-head and influencer role; informational role which implies monitoring and spokesperson roles; and decisional role which includes entrepreneur and negotiator roles. According to Darr, the success of the manager depends on how he is able to integrate the various roles above without making a clear distinction.

Further, the work of the manager is to mobilize the human and material resources for the attainment of organizational objectives. Andre et al. (2008) explains that the head teacher is the human resource manager of the institution. Therefore, he is in charge of the good governance of school curricular and co-curricular activities of the school. Olum (2014) asserts that human resource management should be based on strategic integration of human resource, assessment of workers and exchange of ideas between shareholders and workers. In the words of Almansour (2012), the human resource is the integral element of School set up. Andre et al. (2008) explains that the human resource is the most important in the operations of an organization for it ensures its function by organizing the means of its operation such as goods, money and legal texts for its effective operations. Vinesh (2014) points out that, the training and development of organizational activity aimed at bettering the performance of individuals and groups in organizational setting is called human resources development. This means, developing the human resources to remain competitive in the marketplace.

Staff motivation is key to the success of the school. The work of Heath (1999) highlights that within the management literature, different schools of management have disagreed about which of the two, extrinsic or intrinsic factors motivates workers better. The informal relationship of headteachers as managers with their teachers as workforce motivates the teachers to work for the achievement of the school objectives. Brown and Owusu (2014) indicate that the informal relationship of headteachers with teachers serve as a motivation for the teachers to work to achieve institutional goals.

Sharma and Jain (2013) affirm that there are four major factors in leadership according to U.S. Army (1983): First, a leader must have an honest understanding of who

he is, what he knows, and what he can do. Second, different people require different styles of leadership. Third, one leads through two-way communication much of which is nonverbal. Finally, situations are different, therefore, what works for one situation may not work in another.

Despite the fact that a voluminous body of literature has been compiled by researchers in the field of education, and to be specific, second cycle education, further research is needed to understand the relationship between headteacher's management style and its impact on staff motivation given the high incidences of teacher attrition and poor performance of students in the West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE). Hence, this study attempts to study the impact of headteacher's management style on staff motivation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Secondary school education contributes significantly to the Ghanaian economy. To underline the role of secondary school education, both the erstwhile National Democratic Congress (NDC) and the incumbent New Patriotic Party (NPP) take pragmatic measures to improve secondary education in Ghana.

Arguably, all stakeholders of education have underscored the need for secondary school education in words and action. However, secondary school education has been bedeviled with a lot of setbacks which include the poor performance of secondary school candidates at WASSCE and teacher attrition to other sectors of the economy. Some scholars have assigned the influence of the internet and social media, poor attitude of students to their books among others and economic inducements influencing staff high

turnover rates as reasons for the negative developments in secondary education above, teacher satisfaction to duty as a result of their relationship with their heads is equally worth considering.

The work of Brown and Owusu (2014) discussed the “Influence of Head Teachers’ Management Styles on Teacher Motivation” in Selected Senior High Schools in the Sunyani Municipality of Ghana. In line with their research objectives, Brown and Owusu (2014) found that, on issues concerning disciplinary policies, a clear majority of the teachers they interviewed disagreed that they were involved in such decisions and this clearly discouraged a lot of them. Also, on the issues of planning of structural facilities and new projects, a greater number of the respondents disagreed with those issues. Therefore, Brown and Owusu (2014) asserted that this is a clear indication that most of the decisions taken in the schools were solely taken by the head teachers. Again, on the issue of whether the respondents were involved in planning disciplinary policies, majority (87%) of the respondents indicated that they were not involved.

Sufficient number of research discussed leadership role and teacher motivation but there has not been any serious attempt to look into the leadership style of heads of second cycle institutions in the Kumasi Metropolis (KM). This research therefore sought to discern whether headmasters’ leadership role influence has any influence on teacher motivation in the KM.

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

There are several studies on leadership and motivation in second cycle institutions but there has not been any serious attempt to discern into the influence of headmasters’ leadership style and teacher motivation in the Kumasi metropolis.

1.3.1 The Objectives of the Study

The Objectives of the study are to:

- i. Identify the leadership styles of heads of second cycle schools in Kumasi metropolis.
- ii. Determine the extent to which the leadership styles of the heads of the second cycle schools in Kumasi metropolis affect staff motivation to work.
- iii. Investigate as to whether Management By Objective(MBO) affects teacher motivation
- iv. Investigate as to whether Management By Wandering/Walking Around (MBWA) affects teacher motivation.

1.4 Research Questions

- i. What are the leadership styles of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis?
- ii. To what extent do the leadership styles of the heads of the second cycle schools in Kumasi metropolis affect staff motivation to work?
- iii. How does Management by Objective (MBO) affect teacher performance?
- iv. How does Management by Wandering/Walking Around (MBWA) affect teacher performance?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Teacher motivation and satisfaction are very important factors that help school to achieve stated targets and goals. Sufficient literature hold that highly motivated teachers work extra hard to ensure that institutional goals are achieved (Andre et al., 2008,

Seniwoliba, 2013 and Bush, 2016). Some of these goals include students' performance, discipline and attitudinal change. The study will help heads of second cycle schools to find the best blend of management styles that will facilitate the achievement of the schools objectives.

The findings of this study is expected to influence not only decision-making in the secondary schools but also policy formulation on the management of second cycle schools by the district, regional and national education directorates as well as the Ministry of Education.

The academic world will also benefit tremendously by build-up of new knowledge espoused to the existing ones. This work would also inform policy makers and stakeholders that increase in salary or conditions of service are not the only factors that motivate teacher performance. So, in an attempt to increase teacher performance, management style should also be given due considerations.

1.6 Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study was conducted in the Kumasi Metropolis where the selected secondary schools were located. The respondents included the heads and the teaching staff of the secondary schools. This study was therefore conducted to identify the relationship between headteacher's management style and staff motivation to work. Therefore, the key issues that will be significantly looked at in the scope of this study will include: (a) management style (b) motivation and (c) decision-making

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study failed to make use of interviews which could have added ideas, facts, views and opinions. The failure was due to the tight schedules of the respondents who provided time of meeting but could not meet that. The results obtained from the research may be institution and employee specific because not all the staff and heads of second cycle schools in Kumasi were involved. Hence the findings of this study should be used with caution as it cannot be generalized. Again, since the study could not record the discussion held with the interviewees, the researcher chose his own wordings according to what he understood from the interviewees and which might be slightly different from what the interviewee actually meant. Some margin of error was therefore possible.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The research was organized under five major chapters. The first chapter is comprised of the background of study, research problem, objectives of the study, research questions, and significance of the study, scope of the study and the chapter outline and organization of research. The second Chapter reviewed relevant literature which revolves around the central Theme of the Study and provides empirical relationship and insight in this field of Study. Furthermore, it gives an exposure to the concepts and theories in organizational management and motivation. The third Chapter involves methodology and organizational profile. It gives highlights on the study area, source and study population, sampling techniques and sample size, data collection instrument and method, data processing and the organizational profile. The results of the study which entailed presentations of the findings, analysis and discussions of data collected from the field

featured in the fourth Chapter. The fifth chapter which is the final chapter comprised the summary of the study and concluding remarks, based on the discussions of findings; on which some recommendations and suggestions for further study were made.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Management style is very important in determining the level of employee motivation. Seniwoliba (2013) argues that a happy worker is a productive worker. Motivated employees exhibit citizenship behavior which has direct relationship with productivity. Headmaster's management style is perceived to have great impact on teacher motivation and is expected to yield positive results. Andre et al. (2008) indicate that the school as an organization needs the resources to run efficiently. These resources are mainly of humans, material, financial, legal and technical in nature and the effectiveness of which depends on their efficient combination and utilization by the school management.

The concept of management overlaps with two similar terms, leadership and administration. Bush (2016) highlights that management is widely used in Britain, Europe, and Africa while administration is preferred in the United States, Canada, and Australia. Olum (2014) explains administration as following laid down procedures for the execution, control, communication, delegation and crisis management.

Almansour (2012) quotes Hoover et al. (2001) who claim that leadership has been linked to management as it involves directing, controlling to an extent the nature, degree and extent of activities and changes occurring within the organization. Management as a process is rooted in the interactions of people at work directed towards maximization of efficiency and scarce resources made up of labor, machines, raw materials and information.

Against the aforementioned background, I will use the concept of management interchangeably with the concept of leadership for this study. In line with this, this chapter reviews various theories of management, management in educational institutions, motivation and the relationship between head teachers' management/leadership style and teacher motivation.

2.2 Management and Managerial Theories

The concept of management overlaps with two similar terms: leadership and administration. Bush (2016) highlights that management is widely used in Britain, Europe and Africa while administration is preferred in the United States, Canada, and Australia. However, Bush (2016) postulates that school leaders experience tensions between competing elements of leadership, management and administration. He clarifies that administration is not associated with lower order duties in the U.S. but may be seen as the overarching term which embraces both leadership and management. Darr (2000) highlights that management is distinguished from leadership based on the view that managing is more caretaking and maintaining status quo (transactional) whereas leading is more dynamic and visionary (transformational). Olum (2014) conceives management as the art or science of achieving goals through people. Literally, it means "looking over". It implies making sure that people do what they are supposed to do to ensure greater productivity. More broadly, management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims (Olum, 2014). The study by Olum (2014) again adds, therefore, management entails the acquisition of managerial competence, and effectiveness in problem solving, administration, human resource management and organizational

leadership. Olum (2014) and Darr (2000) highlight that this basic definition imply the five management functions as planning, organizing, controlling, directing and staffing as the major functions of managers.

On the basis of the explanation of Olum (2014) and Darr (2000) management comprises interrelated social and technical functions and activities that accomplish organizational objectives by the use of people and resources within a formal organizational setting. They clarify that managers can be described by the functions they perform, the skills they use, the roles they play and the competencies they must have to succeed. According to the authors, management competencies may be conceptual (the mental ability to see how various factors in a given situation fit together and interact, example the consequences of a decision taken or nondecision); technical or clinical (the use of methods, processes and techniques of managing such as preparing a budget and reorganizing a workgroup); interpersonal or collaborative (cooperating with others, understanding, motivating and leading them in the workplace); political (the ability to understand and work within the framework of organizational politics); commercial (the ability to create economic exchange that offer value to those involve); and governance (working with the governing body to establish a vision, assemble resources, lead the organization and ensure accountability to all stakeholders). The governing body determines the right thing to do (direction) while the manager determines the right way to do it (Olum, 2014; Darr, 2000).

They explain that planning involves selecting missions and objectives and the actions to achieve them; organizing involves establishing an intentional structure of roles for people to fill in an organization by assigning roles to people who can do them best;

controlling is the measuring and correcting of activities of subordinates to ensure that events conform to plans. It measures performance against goals and plans, shows where negative deviations exist and put in motion actions to correct deviations, helps ensure accomplishment of plans; leading or directing entails influencing of people so that they will contribute to organization and group goals through motivation, leadership styles and approaches and effective communication; and staffing involves filling the positions in the organization structure by identifying work-force requirements, inventorying the people available, and recruiting, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising, planning the careers of, compensating, and training or developing both candidates and current jobholders to accomplish their tasks effectively and efficiently. Planning set out an objective to be achieved while controlling determines whether it has been achieved (Olum, 2014; Darr, 2000). Darr (2000) asserts that management of any organization can hardly fall outside the purview of the five management functions outlined above.

In the school setting, the head acts as both the leader and the manager who steer the affairs of the institution. Lai et al. (2014) asserts that the principal is the most important and influential individual in the school whose leadership shapes the school's learning climate, the level of relationship between staff and the teacher morale.

The principal works in collegiate fashion with other staff members to achieve the objectives of the institution. The work of Andre et al. (2008) explain that the staff of the secondary school is divided into three categories: the administrative staff made up of the head teacher and his assistants, the bursar or accountant and the secretary; the teaching staff who are mainly the entity of personnel in charge of giving knowledge or teaching pupils and the support staff that include the security, messenger and the attendants.

Management in educational institutions largely determines the success or otherwise of those institutions. Doran (2007) explains that the key task of management in schools is to secure quality and support in every classroom so that all children or young people can obtain maximum benefit from their experience. The main focus is professional issues relating to the quality of teaching and learning. Andre et al. (2008) explain that the management of secondary school personnel includes activities related to the quality of services rendered, working behaviour, human rights and people's liberties by law and fulfillment of obligations. Brown and Owusu (2014) assert that Senior High School administration in Ghana is bedeviled with a lot of problems most of which emanate from deficiencies in management styles of heads of these institutions. They point out that there have been times when teachers have to stage open protests to register their displeasure about head teacher's management styles which they often describe as administrative and managerial incompetency. This situation dampens the morale of these teachers.

According to Brown and Owusu (2014), for the management of schools to respond to local circumstances and to allow for the development of structures which reflect future changes in curricular and other demands in school, they must be flexible in the discharge of their duties. This implies that management must not be dogmatic but rather should be designed to respond to changing needs within the institution and in the country at large.

In line with the position of Brown and Owusu (2014), the management of secondary schools have the responsibilities for learning, good management and strategic direction of colleagues. Doran (2017) highlights that heads of secondary school have the responsibility for development, implementation and evaluation of the whole school

policy in behaviour management, pastoral care and additional support for learning. She adds that, added to the above responsibilities are the responsibilities for the coordination of curriculum development and quality assurance as well as working with partners, other professionals and external agencies (Doran, 2017).

In line with the above, scholars have come up with various propositions to facilitate the work of heads of human and commercial organizations. Olum (2014) argues that it is worth distinguishing management theory from management techniques. Contrary to theory, techniques are ways of doing things and methods of accomplishing a given result. Techniques normally reflect theory and are a means of helping managers undertake activities most effectively. In the field of management, the role of theory is to provide a means of classifying significant and pertinent management knowledge (Olum, 2014). Bush (2016) echoes Willower (1980) who asserts that the application of theories by practicing administrators is difficult and problematic. According to Willower, it is clear that theories are simply not used very much in the realm of practice. Bush also cites Hoyle (1986) who distinguishes between theory-for-understanding and theory-for-practice. While both are potentially valuable, the latter is more significant for managers in education.

The relevance of theory should be judged by the extent to which it informs managerial action and contributes to the resolution of practical problems in schools. According to Olum (2014), a theory is a systematic grouping of interdependent concepts made up of mental images of anything formed by generalization from particulars and principles which are generalizations or hypotheses that are tested for accuracy and appear

to be true to reflect or explain reality that gives a framework to or tie together a significant area of knowledge.

Models are necessary in educational leadership. Sykes (2015) argues that recognizing models of educational management contextualizes decision-making and helps to rationalize and explain actions that are taken. By reflecting on these models, managers can consider whether, and to what extent they might need to reassess and change their management style for the betterment of their organizations.

Under the supervision of the school head, three models of decisions can be taken first, strategic decision commits the school for a long period. Second, an administrative or tactical decision defines how human, material, financial and technological resources shall be utilized so as to achieve defined objectives in the framework of strategic decision. Third, operational decision applies in the framework of daily management of the school (Andre et al., 2008).

It is also argued that the productive manager is the one who is resourceful enough to adopt the best model under given circumstances. Doran (2007) concurs with Bush (2006) that there is no single all-embracing theory of educational management and this reflects the astonishing diversity of educational institutions, ranging from small rural elementary schools to very large universities and colleges considering the wide variation in local circumstances in schools such as size of school, level and depth of deprivation, ethnic diversity, the range of priorities and differing emphasis on them.

Leithwood et al. (1999) highlight that theory provides mental models to help in understanding the nature and effects of practice. Reliance on facts as the sole guide to action is unsatisfactory because all evidence requires interpretation. If practitioners shun

theory then they must rely on experience as a guide to action in deciding on their response to a problem they draw on a range of options suggested by previous experience with that type of issue. However, such decisions are often based on implicit theories. When a teacher or a manager takes a decision it reflects that person's view of the organization. Such views are based on experience and by the attitudes engendered by that experience thereby reflecting certain theories, which inevitably influence the decision-making process. The study by Olum (2014) highlights that because individuals often interpret similar interests in different ways, and their efforts toward mutual goals do not automatically mesh with the efforts of others, it becomes the central task of the manager to reconcile differences in approach, timing, effort or interest and to harmonize individual goals to contribute to organizational goals.

2.2.1 Scientific Management Theory

Frederick Taylor (1856 –1915), the father of the scientific management movement, seeks ways to effectively use men in industrial organizations. Taylor's background and experience as labourer, clerk, mechanist, foreman, chief craftsman and finally Chief engineer reinforces his belief that men could be programmed to be efficient machines. The key to the scientific management approach is the concept of man-as-machine. Taylor and his associates think that workers motivated by economics and limited by physiology, needed constant direction (National Humanities Center, 2013; Grover (2010); Olum, 2014).

Taylor consistently sought to overthrow management “by rule of thumb” and replace it with actual timed observations leading to “the one best” practice. He believes that the workload would be evenly shared between the workers and management with

management performing the science and instruction and the workers performing the labour, each group doing the work for which it was best suited (Olum, 2014; National Humanities Center, 2013).

Like other theories, the scientific approach has its strengths and weaknesses. Heath (1999) points that scientific managers offer workers better wages and greater security in exchange for working in the most efficient way. She cites Taylor (1911) that what workers want most from their employers beyond anything else is high wages.

However, it is argued that Taylor's theories tend to "dehumanize" the workers. Heath (1999) explains that McGregor and other members of the human relations school of management argue that scientific managers suffer from a kind of extrinsic incentives bias. This implies they overestimate how much employees care about extrinsic task features like pay or job security, and they underestimate how much employees are motivated by intrinsic features like having a meaningful task. However, Grönroos (1993) indicate that Taylor does take into account the wellbeing of the workforce. Mass production and economies of scale are considered fundamental parts of this management philosophy.

2.2.2 Classical Organizational Theory School

Classical Model is also called The Formal Model. The work of Sykes (2015) explains that the model is characterized by a high degree of job specialization which is highly centralized, has a fixed command structure, rigid hierarchy, top-down communication, firm control, strict procedures and a dogmatic approach. They highlight further that people within the organization have clearly defined positions, which influence professional relationships and perpetuate the status quo. Therefore, those at the

top of the hierarchy have primacy in setting goals, making decisions and formulating policy. Objectives are set at the institutional level while staff support is axiomatic (Sykes, 2015). The classical organizational school entails the collegial model, political models, cultural models and the ambiguity model

2.2.2.1 Bureaucratic Approach

Max Weber's bureaucratic theory and Henri Fayol's administrative theory form the basis of the classical theory. According to Olum (2014), Weber postulates that western civilization is shifting from value oriented thinking, affective action derived from emotions and traditional action derived from past precedent to technocratic thinking. He believes that civilization is changing to seek technically optimal results at the expense of emotional or humanistic content (Olum, 2014).

Weber develops a set of principles for an "ideal" bureaucracy as follows:

First, a fixed and official jurisdictional areas. Second, a firmly ordered hierarchy of super and subordination. Third, management based on written records. Fourth, thorough and expert training. Fifth, official activity taking priority over other activities. Sixth, management of a given organization follows stable, knowable rules. The bureaucracy was envisioned as a large machine for attaining its goals in the most efficient manner possible. He predicts that the more fully the system is realized, the more bureaucracy "depersonalizes" itself. Weber predicted a completely impersonal organization with little human level interaction between its members (Bush, 2006).

On the other hand, Henri Fayol's administrative theory postulates that management has five principle roles to forecast and plan; to organize; to command; to co-

ordinate; and to control. He explains forecasting and planning to be the act of anticipating the future and acting accordingly; organization to be the development of the institution's resources, both material and human; commanding to be the institution's actions and processes running; co-ordination to be the alignment and harmonization of the group's efforts; and finally, control to imply that the above activities are performed in accordance with appropriate rules and procedures (Almansour, 2012).

Fayol developed fourteen principles of administration in consonant with management's five primary roles. These principles are: specialization or division of labor; authority with responsibility; discipline; unity of command; unity of direction; subordination of individual interest to the general interest; remuneration of staff; centralization; scalar chain or line of authority; order; equity; stability of tenure; initiative; and esprit de corps. Fayol believes personal effort and team dynamics are part of an "ideal" organization (Olum, 2014). A notable disadvantage is that the classical organizational theory with its less emphasis on motivation as a tool managers could use to woo the support of subordinates or staff to achieve the set objectives of the institution.

This administrative process is widely used in school administration to deal with the day-to-day problems of the school. Despite the many good aspects of the classical school of management thoughts with emphasis on task, process and structure, they have the greatest limitations of not given consideration to the psychological state of men at work. Again, the rigid insistence with which many classical thinkers tend to apply some of the concepts in practice is most often attacked. These limitations gave rise to the wave of a new movement – the human relations movement (Olum, 2014). The work of Grover (2010) argues that on one hand, having set policies and procedures allows for smoother

conflict resolution in certain situations while on the other hand, the exclusion of emotion and personal feelings or factors seem to limit creativity.

2.2.2.2 Collegial Models

The model relies on collective decision making in running an organization (Bush, 2016; Singh, 2005). Collegial models include all those theories that emphasize that power and decision-making should be shared among some or all members of the organization. Collegial models assume that organizations determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus. Singh (2005) claims that the collegial model shares power among some or all members of the organization who are thought to have a shared understanding about the aims of the institution. Bush (2016) echoes Brundrett (1998) who says that collegiality can broadly be defined as teachers conferring and collaborating with other teachers. Sykes (2015) highlights that in this model, the head of the organization assumes the role of overlord and mediator between managers of various departments. Each manager is heavily involved in bargaining and negotiating in order to ensure effective decision-making. Doran (2007) explains that collegiate management structure reflects the necessary management capacity to lead and manage schools while recognizing that responsibility for curriculum development and delivery and pastoral care lies with every member of the teaching staff to ensure efficiency of employees.

The work of Sykes (2015) explains that whereas the Collegial Model emphasizes mutuality and consensus, the Political Model (Bush, 2003) is built upon the notion that decisions are likely to be made according to the power relationships of the participants. Departments, committees and informal groups promote their own interests and objectives, thus producing an environment in which conflict is the primary

characteristic. Sykes reproduces Bush (2003) who points out that such organizations are often dominated by those groups or individuals who are able to promote their own interests above those of their colleagues (Bush, 2003 in Sykes, 2015).

Sykes (2015) concurs Bush (2016) that the Collegial Model and other participative approaches represent the most appropriate means of managing educational institutions. In contrast, critics have argued that it is rather idealistic and may lead to a lack of control and direction on the part of management. Therefore, due to its flexible nature, those who attempt to adopt the Collegial Model may fail to implement it fully or effectively for fear of the organization becoming akin to a rudderless ship.

Collegial models have their own distinct features which distinguish them from other formal models (Bush, 2016). First, they are strongly normative in orientation. That implies, they are research-based studies of school practice. Second, collegial models seem to be particularly appropriate for organizations such as schools and colleges that have significant numbers of professional staff. Teachers require a measure of autonomy in the classroom but also need to collaborate to ensure a coherent approach to teaching and learning. Third, collegial models assume a common set of values which guide the managerial activities of the organization and lead to shared educational objectives. Fourth, the size of decision-making groups must be sufficiently small to enable everyone to be heard. Fifth, collegial models assume that decisions are reached by consensus (Bush, 2016).

2.2.2.3 Political Model

Political models embrace those theories that characterize decision-making as a bargaining process. According to Bush (2016), the main focus of the political models is

the distribution of power and influence in organizations and the bargaining and negotiation between interest groups. Conflict is regarded as endemic within organizations and management is directed towards the regulation of political behaviour (Bush, 2016).

The common assumption of this set of theories is that the policies of the organization are influenced by conflicting interests from the stakeholders of the organization. Conflict is viewed as a natural phenomenon and power accrues to dominant coalitions rather than being the preserve of formal leaders (Singh, 2005). Bush (2016) cites Baldrige's (1971) who concludes that the political model, rather than the formal or collegial perspectives, best capture the realities of life in higher education.

The features of the political models may include:

First, they tend to focus on group activity rather than the institution as a whole. Political models stress the influence of interest groups on decision-making by the assumption that organizations are fragmented into groups, which pursue their own independent goals. Political models are regarded primarily as descriptive or explanatory theories. Their advocates claim that these approaches are realistic portrayals of the decision-making process in schools and colleges (Bush, 2016; Singh, 2005).

According to Bush (2016), interests imply pre-dispositions embracing goals, values, desires, expectations and other orientations and inclinations that lead a person to act in one way rather than another. He assumes that the goals of organizations are not consensual. Individuals, interest groups and coalitions have their own purposes and their actions are dictated by those goals. Decisions within political arenas emerge after a complex process of bargaining and negotiation. Organizational goals and decisions

emerge from ongoing processes of bargaining, negotiation and jockeying for position among members of different coalitions (Bolman & Deal, 1991 in Bush, 2016).

The suggestion that teachers should pursue their own self-interest is too narrow and oversimplified as they get paid for the duties they perform. It also seems to contradict the primary aim of education which is rooted in collective interest. Nevertheless, the less attractive aspects of political models may be cancelled out by their areas of strengths.

2.2.2.4 Ambiguity Models

Ambiguity models stress uncertainty and unpredictability in organizations. These theories assume that organizational objectives are problematic and that institutions experience difficulty in ordering their priorities. Sub-units are portrayed as relatively autonomous groups, which are connected only loosely with one another and with the institution itself. Decision-making occurs within formal and informal settings. Ambiguity is a prevalent feature of complex organizations such as schools and is likely to be particularly acute during periods of rapid change (Bush, 2016).

Ambiguity models are a counter model to formal models which are seen as unsuitable for many organizations. Bush (2006) claims that the most celebrated of the ambiguity perspectives is the garbage can model developed by Cohen and March (1986) which points to the jumbled reality in certain kinds of organization. The ambiguity theorists argue that theories of choice underestimate the confusion and complexity surrounding actual decision making. Many things are happening at once; theories of choice are changing and poorly understood; alliances, preferences, and perceptions are changing; problems, solutions, opportunities, ideas, people, and outcomes are mixed together in a way that makes their interpretation uncertain and their connections unclear

(Bush, 2006). The work of Bush (2006) again claims that the data supporting ambiguity models have been drawn largely from educational settings, leading March and Olsen (1976) to assert that ambiguity is a major feature of decision making in most public and educational organizations.

Ambiguity models are characterized by first, the assumption of lack of clarity about the goals of the organization. Educational institutions are regarded as typical in having no clearly defined objectives because teachers work independently for much of their time and they may experience little difficulty in pursuing their own interests. Second, ambiguity models assume that organizations have a problematic technology in that their processes which are not properly understood. For instance, it is not clear how students acquire knowledge and skills so the processes of teaching are clouded with doubt and uncertainty. Bush (2006) argues that ambiguity infuses the central functions of schools.

Third, ambiguity theorists argue that organizations are characterized by fragmentation. Schools are divided into groups which have internal coherence based on common values and goals. Links between the groups are more tenuous and unpredictable. Bush (2006) cites Weick (1976) who uses the term „loose coupling“ to describe relationships between sub-units. To Bush, „Loose coupling“ carries connotations of impermanence, dissolvability and tacitness all of which are potentially crucial properties of the „glue“ that holds organizations together.

Fourth, within ambiguity models organizational structure is regarded as problematic. Committees and other formal bodies have rights and responsibilities, which overlap with each other and with the authority assigned to individual managers.

Fifth, ambiguity models tend to be particularly appropriate for professional client-serving organizations. The requirement that professionals make individual judgments, rather than acting in accordance with managerial prescriptions, leads to the view that the larger schools and colleges operate in a climate of ambiguity. Sixth, ambiguity theorists emphasize that there is group participation in the management of organizations.

Seventh, further source of ambiguity is provided by the signals emanating from the organization's environment. In an era of rapid change, schools may experience difficulties in interpreting the various messages being transmitted from the environment and in dealing with conflicting signals. The uncertainty arising from the external context adds to the ambiguity of the decision-making process within the institution. Ninth, ambiguity theorists emphasize the prevalence of unplanned decisions. The lack of agreed goals means that decisions have no clear focus. Problems, solutions and participants interact and choices emerge from the confusion.

Tenth, ambiguity models stress the advantages of decentralization. Given the complexity and unpredictability of organizations, it is thought that many decisions should be devolved to subunits and individuals. If there is a breakdown in one portion of a loosely coupled system, it is compensated for by the other parts.

The major contribution of the ambiguity model is that it uncouples problems and choices. The notion of decision-making as a rational process for finding solutions to problems is supplanted by an uneasy mix of problems, solutions and participants from which decisions may eventually emerge. In the garbage can model, there is no clear distinction between means and ends, no articulation of organizational goals, no

evaluation of alternatives in relation to organizational goals and no selection of the best means.

Like other models, the ambiguity model has some strengths and weaknesses. The concepts of problematic goals, unclear technology and fluid participation are significant contributions to organizational analysis. Most schools and colleges somewhat exhibit these features, so ambiguity models should be regarded primarily as analytical or descriptive approaches rather than normative theories. The ambiguity model appears to be increasingly plausible but it does have four significant weaknesses:

First, it is difficult to reconcile ambiguity perspectives with the customary structures and processes of schools and colleges. Participants may move in and out of decision-making situations but the policy framework remains intact and has a continuing influence on the outcome of discussions. Specific goals may be unclear but teachers usually understand and accept the broad aims of education.

Second, ambiguity models exaggerate the degree of uncertainty in educational institutions. Schools and colleges have a number of predictable features, which serve to clarify the responsibilities of their members. Students and staff are expected to behave in accordance with standard rules and procedures. The timetable regulates the location and movement of all participants. There are usually clear plans to guide the classroom activities of teachers and pupils. Staffs are aware of the accountability patterns, with teachers responsible to principals who, in turn, are answerable to the education directorates.

Third, ambiguity models are less appropriate for stable organizations or for any institutions during periods of stability. The degree of predictability in schools depends on

the nature of relationships with the external environment. Where institutions are able to maintain relatively impervious boundaries, they can exert strong control over their own processes.

Fourth, ambiguity models offer little practical guidance to leaders in educational institutions. While formal models emphasize the head's leading role in policy-making and collegial models stress the importance of team-work, ambiguity models can offer nothing more tangible than contingent leadership (Bush, 2006).

2.2.2.5 Subjective Models

Subjective models focus on individuals within organizations rather than the total institution or its subunits. Bush (2006) explains that these perspectives suggest that each person has a subjective and selective perception of the organization such that events and situations have different meanings for the various participants in institutions. Organizations are seen as the products of individual values and perceptions rather than the concrete realities presented in formal models (Bush, 2003). The basic assumption of this model is that the individual perceptions and values of participants give rise to social entities in the shape of organizations. The systems theory is a counter theory to the subjective model as it overemphasized the system to the neglect of people's values and perceptions.

According to Bush (2016), subjective models have the following major features: They focus on the beliefs and perceptions of individual members of organizations rather than the institutional level or interest groups. Thus, the main concern is the meanings placed on events by people within organizations and this is a fundamental difference between subjective and formal models. They treat structure as a product of human

interaction rather than something that is fixed or predetermined. Thus, individual behaviour is thought to reflect the personal qualities and aspirations of the participants rather than the formal roles they occupy. Bush (2016) indicates that Bolman and Deal (1991) reject this position because organizations exist to serve human needs, rather than the reverse. The view that organizations are simply the product of the interaction of their members leads naturally to the assumption that objectives are individual not organizational.

2.2.2.6 Cultural Models

Cultural models emphasize the informal aspects of organizations rather their official elements. They focus on the values, beliefs and norms of individuals in the organization and how these individual perceptions translate into shared organizational meanings. Cultural models are manifested by symbols and rituals rather than through the formal structure of the organization. Cultural models assume that beliefs, values and ideology are at the heart of organizations. Individuals hold certain idea and value-preferences, which influence how they behave and how they view the behaviour of other members. These norms become shared traditions, which are communicated within the group and are reinforced by symbols and ritual (Bush, 2003 in Bush, 2006).

The societal culture within or without catchment areas of an organization could be reflected in its management since the both the administrative and the working staff could be influenced by that culture. Sykes (2015) cites Bush (2003) that advocates of the Cultural Model suggest that the informal norms and rituals which characterize organizations may be equally important as the formal structures when attempting to understand management processes within them. Bush (2003) holds the view that in

order to have an effective system, managers need to understand and attempt to influence the collective values held by those working in the organization. This is particularly important for new management who may not be in tune with the culture specific to the organization in question. By understanding and influencing values so that they can affect positively the changes they wish to bring about. For effective implementation of change, staff must feel part of the innovation. This requires the manager to utilize the existing culture or develop new attitudes to give staff a sense of partnership in change.

However, there is also an emerging literature on the broader theme of national or societal culture. Bush (2006) cites Walker and Dimmock (2002) who provide a helpful distinction between societal and organizational culture: Societal cultures differ mostly at the level of basic values while organizational cultures differ mostly at the level of more superficial practices, as reflected in the recognition of particular symbols, heroes and rituals.

This allows organizational cultures to be deliberately managed and changed whereas societal or national cultures are more enduring and change only gradually over longer time of periods. Societal culture is one important aspect of the context within which school leaders must operate. They must also contend with organizational culture which provides a more immediate framework for leadership action.

Characteristically, organizational culture focuses on the values and beliefs of members of organizations. Shared values, beliefs, meaning and understanding are all different ways of describing culture. Also, cultural model focuses on the notion of a single or dominant culture in organizations but this does not necessarily mean that individual values are always in harmony with one another. There may be different and

competing value systems that create a mosaic of organizational realities rather than a uniform corporate culture (Morgan, 1997 in Bush, 2006). The interaction between members of the organization, or its subgroups, eventually leads to behavioural norms that gradually become cultural features of the school or college. These group norms sometimes allow the development of a monoculture in a school with meanings shared throughout the staff on the way things are done in the school. Culture is typically expressed through rituals and ceremonies, which are used to support and celebrate beliefs and norms. Schools are rich in such symbols as assemblies, prize-givings and corporate worship. Symbols are central to the process of constructing meaning (Hoyle, 1986 in Bush, 2006). Further, organizational culture assumes the existence of heroes and heroines who epitomize the values and beliefs of the organization.

2.2.2.6.1 Moral Leadership

It is argued that the leadership model most closely linked to organizational culture is moral leadership. Bush (2006) echoes Leithwood et al (1999) that moral model assumes that the critical focus of leadership ought to be on the values, beliefs and ethics of leaders themselves that have been embodied from years of professional practice. These acquired values and beliefs are generated, communicated and sustained both within the organization and to external stakeholders. Authority and influence are to be derived from defensible conceptions of what is right or good values, beliefs and attitudes of principals and other educational leaders. It focuses on the moral purpose of education and on the behaviours to be expected of leaders operating within the moral domain. It also assumes that these values and beliefs coalesce into shared norms and meanings that

either shape or reinforce culture. The rituals and symbols associated with moral leadership support these values and underpin school culture (Bush, 2016; Raza, 2015).

Cultural models add several useful elements to the analysis of school and college leadership and management. The focus on the informal dimension is a valuable counter to the rigid and official components of the formal models. By stressing the values and beliefs of participants, cultural models reinforce the human aspects of management rather than their structural elements. The emphasis on the symbols of the organization is also a valuable contribution to management theory while the moral leadership model provides a useful way of understanding what constitutes a values-based approach to leadership. However, cultural models do have three significant weaknesses:

First, there may be ethical dilemmas because cultural leadership may be regarded as the imposition of a culture by leaders on other members of the organization. The search for a monoculture may mean subordinating the values and beliefs of some participants to those of leaders or the dominant group. Second, cultural model may be unduly mechanistic, assuming that leaders can determine the culture of the organization (Morgan, 1997 in Bush, 2016). While they have influence over the evolution of culture by espousing desired values, they cannot ensure the emergence of a monoculture. As we have seen, secondary schools and colleges may have several subcultures operating in departments and other sections. This is not necessarily dysfunctional because successful subunits are vital components of thriving institutions. Third, the cultural model's focus on symbols such as rituals and ceremonies may mean that other elements of organizations are underestimated (Bush, 2016). Official hierarchy is downplayed completely.

However, the cultural model is a valuable addition to our understanding of organizations. The recognition that school and college development needs to be preceded by attitudinal change is salutary. Since organization ultimately resides in the heads of the people involved, effective organizational change always implies cultural change (Morgan, 1997 in Bush, 2016). Cultural models also provide a focus for organizational action, a dimension that is largely absent from the subjective perspective. Leaders may adopt a moral approach and focus on influencing values so that they become closer to, if not identical with, their own beliefs. In this way, they hope to achieve widespread support for or ownership of new policies. By working through this informal domain, rather than imposing change through positional authority or political processes, heads and principals are more likely to gain support for innovation. An appreciation of organizational culture is an important element in the leadership and management of schools and colleges (Bush, 2016).

Arguably, all the approaches identified above for the management of schools and colleges have something to offer albeit some have more significance to the management of schools and colleges than others. Admittedly, no single approach is all-embracing enough to deal with management problems in all schools, thereby warranting the need for multifaceted approach whereby aspects of one approach complement the shortfalls of the other for optimal output of management.

2.2.3 The Behavioural School

Professor Elton Mayo's Behavioural School is a reaction to Taylor's Scientific School that claims that the best of the employee could be gained under controlled conditions. In contrast, Mayo and associates attempt to affirm that performance is

basically noneconomic. It rather depends largely on working conditions and attitudes which are the products of communications, positive management response and encouragement.

2.2.3.1 Behavioural Approach or the Social Science Movement

The origin of behaviorism is the human relations movement that is a result of the Hawthorne Works Experiment carried out at the Western Electric Company, in the United States of America in the early 1920s (Olum, 2014). The theory is a counter theory to Taylor's Scientific Theory that ascribes highest productivity to controlled environment. The Hawthorne studies attempts to determine the effects of lighting on worker productivity. When these experiments show no clear correlation between light level and productivity, the ensuing experiments then start looking at other factors. These factors that are considered when Mayo is working with a group of women include rest breaks and no rest breaks; no free meals; and more hours in the work-day/work-week or fewer hours in the workday/work-week. With each of these changes, productivity goes up. When the women are put back to their original hours and conditions productivity increases exponentially.

According to Olum (2014), these experiments prove five things: First, work satisfaction and hence performance is basically not the product of economic factors but rather the product of working conditions and attitudes such as communications, positive management response and encouragement and work environment. Second, it rejects the emphasis on employee self-interest and the claims of over-riding incentive of monetary rewards by Taylor. Third, large-scale experiments involving over 20,000 employees show highly positive responses to improvements in working environments such as

improved lighting, new welfare and rest facilities, expressions of thanks and encouragement as opposed to coercion from managers and supervisors improve job satisfaction and improve performance. According to Heath (1999), relationships among humans relate to the setting within which they interact and agency relationships differ from the traditional attribution study in three key features: First, agency relationships involve an explicit deal between an organization and employees, and the deal involves salient incentives like money. Second, agency relationships are long-term, unfolding over months or years, which means that actors have a chance to habituate to the incentives that are involved. Third, in agency situations, actors typically make conscious choices about their jobs and careers that requires them to consider their own long term preferences and rank their importance (Heath, 1999).

Fourth, the influence of the peer group is very high hence, the importance of informal groups within the workplace. Finally, it denounces „rabble hypotheses“ that society is made up of a horde of unorganized individuals pursuing his or her self-preservation or self-interest (Olum, 2014).

The model is assumed to operate better in a decentralized setting. Sykes (2015) cites Everard, Morris & Wilson (2004) who indicate that this model requires an organizational structure which is largely decentralized, has flexible procedures and multi-directional communication, thus providing for the widespread distribution of influence rather than it being concentrated in the hands of senior management. Jones (2008) opines that leaders cannot solve problems alone because in today's complex world, problems call for the combined expertise of multiple resources and assistants.

These results imply group dynamics and social makeup of an organization are an extremely important determinant of higher or low productivity. Humanistic Models are based on the assumption that agreement can be reached when the staff shares common values and plays an active role in decision making. Policies emerge by consensus via committees and informal groups, in which respect is given to the needs, ideas and opinions of all participants (Sykes, 2015).

Finally, while Taylor's impacts are the establishment of the industrial engineering, quality control and personnel departments, the human relations movement's greatest impact entails what the organization's leadership and personnel department are doing. The new concepts of "group dynamics", "teamwork", and organizational "social systems", are the products of Mayo's work in the mid-1920s (Olum, 2014).

Due to the fact that the classical and human relation approaches ignore the impact of social relations and of formal structure respectively, the behavioural perspective fuses these approaches and adds propositions drawn from psychology, sociology, political science, and economics. Such an approach differs from other behavioural sciences in its subject matter, being the worker behaviour in formal organizations (Olum, 2014).

2.2.4 Recent Developments in Management Theories

It is also eluded that some theories are of modern origin in the pool of management theories available for use for the management of organizations including the second cycle schools. These theories may include the system's theory, situational or contingency theory, chaos theory and team building theory.

2.2.4.1 The Systems Theory

A system is a collection of parts unified to accomplish an overall goal (Olum, 2014). If one part of the system is removed, the nature of the system is changed as well. Olum (2014) highlights that a system has four broad components which are inputs or resources such as raw materials, money, technologies, people; processes such as planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling; outputs which are products or services; and outcomes of enhanced quality of life or productivity for customers or clients and productivity. Bush (2016) argues that systems theory is bad theory because it focuses on the institution as a concrete reality. He holds the view that most theories of organization grossly simplify the nature of the reality with which they deal. They tend to see the organization as a single kind of entity with a life of its own apart from the perceptions and beliefs of those involved. Bush (2016) cites Greeneld (1973) who asserts that systems theory is the dominant model of educational organizations.

Like other theories, the systems theory has its strengths and weaknesses. Olum (2014) indicates that the systems theory in management helps managers to look at the organization more broadly. It has also enabled managers to interpret patterns and events in the workplace by helping them to recognize the various parts of the organization and the interrelations of the parts. The system theory bears some semblance of the scientific theory in the opposite way as it emphasizes on system as a concrete reality as the scientific theory emphasizes on man as a machine to be manipulated.

2.2.4.2 Contingent/ Situational Theory

By the assertion of Olum (2014) and Almansour (2012), the assumption of the situational or contingency theory is that when managers make a decision, they must take

into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. For example, if one is leading troops in war, an autocratic style is probably best. On the other hand, if one is leading a hospital or University, a more participative and facilitative leadership style is probably best. Olum (2014) and Almansour (2012) adds that the situational leadership promotes interaction among the dimensions of task and relationship behaviors, as well as follower readiness or maturity for performing a certain task. Bush (2016) indicates that the model is meant to modify traditional notions of leadership. Bush explains that the contingent model take into account the diverse nature of school context and provides an alternative approach that adapts leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a one for all approach. In the light of this, Bush (2016) cites Yuk (2002) who claims that managerial job is too complex and unpredictable to rely on a set of standardized responses to events. Effective leaders are continuously reading the situation and evaluating how to adapt their behaviour to it. Therefore, contingent leadership depends on managers' mastering a large repertoire of leadership practices (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999 in Bush, 2016) and Olum, 2014).

The key to being a situational leader rests primarily on two variables. First the degree of difficulty of the task, second the development level of the person doing the task. Development level is the degree of competence and commitment an employee has to perform a particular task without supervision. Competence is a function of knowledge or skills which can be gained from education, training or experience; Commitment is a combination of confidence self-assuredness and motivation interest and enthusiasm.

Thus, the amount of direction provided will depend on the development level of the employee and the task at hand (Almansour, 2012).

2.3 Leadership Style at the Senior High School

The success of any organization hinges on the management style of its leadership. Jones (2008) highlights that style of leadership could ensure the success of their higher education institutions. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) explain that leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organization goals. A leader can be defined as a person who delegates or has the capacity to influence others to act in a certain way and manner so as to achieve specified objectives. Voon et al. (2011) echo Northouse (2010) and Yukl (2005) who define leadership as a process of interaction between leaders and followers where the leader attempts to influence followers to achieve a common goal. They also conceive leadership style as the relatively consistent pattern of behavior that characterizes a leader. Raza (2015) defines leadership style as the way a person uses power to lead other people. Tomson et al. (2016) assert that leadership style consists of two broad and independent behaviour dimensions. They are the production-oriented or task-oriented and focus on employees and relations. Raza (2015) claims that the most appropriate leadership style depends on the function of the leader, the followers and the situation.

Almansour (2012) echoes Dubrin (2007) that management styles relate to planning, organizing, directing, controlling and co-ordination of all activities as they relate to the activities of the firm in order to achieve the firm's objectives. He also cites Paley (2004) who explains that planning is a process of looking ahead to determine the

course of action a firm or organization will follow to achieve its objectives. Both short and long term plans should be duly considered for an organization's success. Also, organizing as a function involves correlating the basic components of the firm made up of people, tasks and materials so that they follow and align with the set goals and objectives (Almansour, 2012).

Sharma and Jain (2013) cites Northouse's (2007) who defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. They added that leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. They argue that good leaders are made not born. Therefore, to be a good leader one must have the desire and willpower to become an effective leader. On the contrary, Tomson et al. (2016) echo Smith and Petersson (1988) that leadership behaviour can be learned, but some researchers believe that personal attributes such as intelligence and temperament sets limits for the learning.

Echoing Goleman (2000), the different leadership styles are derived from different emotional intelligence competencies each one of which work best in particular situations, and affects the organizational climate in different ways. According to Goleman (2000), organizational climate can profoundly influence financial results which in turn, is influenced by leadership style by the way that managers motivate direct reports, gather and use information, make decisions, manage change initiatives, and handle crises. Lai et al. (2014) Korkmaz (2007) who claims that dissatisfaction of teachers relates to low salaries, lack of resources, inappropriate administrative leadership

styles and job-related stress. Lai et al. (2014) therefore, attribute strong correlations between the principal's leadership style and teachers' job satisfaction.

Majority of writers believe that leadership is learnt, but the inbuilt attributes that make a successful leader are fixed in people at birth or in their environment. Sharma & Jain (2013) cite Jago (1982) who holds the view that good leaders develop through a never ending process of self-study, education, training and experience. Olum (2014) adds that organizational leadership should be developed along lines of interpersonal relationship, teamwork, self-motivation to perform, emotional strength and maturity to handle situations, personal integrity, and general management skills. Sharma & Jain (2013) believe that while leadership is learned, the skills and knowledge processed by the leader can be influenced by his or hers attributes or traits such as beliefs, values, ethics and character.

Tomson et al. (2016) cite Cook (2001) who identified five the attributes that characterize effective nursing leaders as highlighting, respecting, influencing, creativity and supporting. On the basis of the claim of Sharma & Jain (2013), there are four major factors in leadership according to U.S. Army (1983): They indicate that for one to inspire his workers into higher levels of teamwork, there are certain things they must be, know and do.

First, a leader must have an honest understanding of who he is, what he knows, and what he can do. Also, the leader must note that it is the followers, not the he or she or someone else who determines if the leader is successful. Second, different people require different styles of leadership. For example, a new hire requires more supervision than an experienced employee. A person who lacks motivation requires a different approach than

one who is highly motivated. Third, one leads through two-way communication much of which is nonverbal. Finally, situations are different, therefore, what works for one situation may not work in another. One must use their judgment to decide the best course of action and the leadership style needed for each situation. For example, one may need to confront an employee for inappropriate behavior, but if the confrontation is too late or too early, too harsh or too weak, then the results may prove ineffective (Sharma & Jain, 2013).

A successful leader must bear certain desired attributes. Sharma and Jain (2013) reproduces U.S. Army (1983) that a successful leader must exhibit certain defined traits. They highlight that to help one be, know, and do, they must follow these principles of leadership:

Two, be technically proficient. As a leader, one must know their job and have a solid familiarity with their employees' tasks. Technical skill is knowledge of and proficiency in activities involving methods, processes, and procedures. Thus, it involves working with tools and specific techniques (Sharma & Jain, 2013 and Olum, 2014).

Three, seek responsibility and take responsibility for their actions. Search for ways to guide their organization to new heights. And when things go wrong, as they often tend to do sooner or later, they should not blame others. They should analyze the situation, take corrective action and move on to the next challenge. Four, take sound and timely decisions. Use good problem solving, decision-making and planning tools.

2.3.1 Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership is where the leader rewards the subordinates for performance. Almansour (2012) highlights that transactional leadership involves leader-

follower exchanges necessary for achieving routine performance agreed upon between leaders and followers. Based on the claim of Raza (2015), the transactional leader maintains or continues the status quo of the organization. Raza adds that the transactional leadership involves an exchange process, whereby followers get immediate, tangible rewards for carrying out the leader's orders. Highlighting on the behaviours of the transactional leader, Raza (2015) says that transactional leadership behaviors can include: clarifying what is expected of followers' performance; explaining how to meet such expectations; and allocating rewards that are contingent on meeting objectives.

Relationship of the transactional leader with his followers is characterized by exchange. Raza (2015) agrees with Hollander (1986) cited by Bass (1997) that the transactional leaders and subordinates enter into exchange beginning with negotiation to establish what is being exchanged and whether it is satisfactory. The success of the engagement depends on the leader's power to reinforce his power for the successful completion of the bargain. Voon et al. (2011) reproduce Bass and Avolio (1995) who propose that transactional leadership consists of three dimensions, namely contingent rewards, management by exception which is active and management by exception which is passive. According to Voon et al. (2011), contingent reward entails leaders clarifying the work that must be achieved and use rewards in exchange for good performance. Management by exception (passive) refers to leaders intervening only when problem arise whereas management by exception (active) refers to leaders actively monitoring the work of followers and make sure that standards are met (Antonakis et al., 2003 in Voon et al., 2011).

In the words of Almansour (2012), Raza (2015) and Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) all maintain that the transactional leader is a leader who is characterized by being authoritative, creating high expectations, monitoring employees to identify their mistakes, rewarding those who do as they are told, disciplining those who do not and controlling their employees through a reward/discipline system. Almansour (2012) agrees with Bass (1997) who cites Levinson (1980) that the transactional leader gives rewards of carrots for compliance and punishment of stick for failure to comply with agreed on work to be done. Dean (1994) highlights that that transactional leadership emphasizes the workgroup level.

Almansour (2012) cites Conger and Kanungo (1998) who agree that transactional leaders have three primary characteristics which are as follows: First, transactional leaders work with their team members to develop clear, specific goals and ensure that workers get the reward promised for meeting the goals. Second, they exchange rewards and promises of rewards for worker effort. Third, transactional leaders are responsive to the immediate self-interests of workers if their needs can be met while getting the work done. Transactional leadership encourages specific exchanges and a close connection between goals and rewards. Therefore, employees are not motivated to give anything beyond what is clearly specified in their contract. This is especially troubling for knowledge employees for whom it is much more difficult to specify complete job descriptions in advance. According to Conger (1999) and Kanungo and Schneider (2002) in Almansour (2012), all leaders exhibit characteristics of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Individual leaders tend to emphasize one of these styles more than the other. Both types of leaders are required to effectively manage knowledge.

it could be inferred from the above write up that transactional and transformational leaderships exhibit the characteristics of leadership by objective as espoused by Brown & Owusu (2014).

The focus of transactional leadership style is based on an identified mission. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) clarify that transactional leadership is focused on staff's basic and external demand whereby the relationship between leaders and subordinates is based on the contract. The attainment of organizational goal is by specific job roles and mission design. Their basic purpose is to maintain a stable organization.

2.3.2 Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational or charismatic leadership attempts to change or transform subordinates. Transformational leader is a leader who is characterized by having charisma, developing and clearly articulating vision, building consensus, inspiring others to share the vision and to sacrifice to make it a reality and empowering them (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014, Almansour, 2012 and Lai et al, 2014). Almansour (2012) cites Northouse (2001) that the transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. In line with the explanation of Raza (2015), transformational leadership is all about initiating change in organizations, groups, oneself and others. According to Tomson et al. (2016), the transformational leadership style can be seen as a combination between the employee relation-oriented and the change-oriented leadership styles. Almansour (2012) cites Frances and Cohen (1999) that transformational leadership is the ability to get people to improve, to change and to be led. It involves assessing associates motives, satisfying their needs and valuing them.

Hence, a transformational leader could improve the company's performance and make more successful of the company objectives.

In the words of Jones (2008), transformational leadership involves the ability to inspire and motivate followers. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) explain that transformational leadership has the characteristics of individual influence, spiritual encouragement and intellectual stimulation. They often take individual into consideration, establish vision and aim inside, create open culture, trust the staff to reach their goals and give full play for staff's potential.

With respect to its implementation, Almansour (2012) suggests that transformational leadership is implemented when leaders involve broaden and elevate their sub-ordinates' interests, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the group's tasks and mission. This also happen when a leader creates the need within subordinates to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of others.

2.3.3 Affiliative Leadership Style

Per the claim of Goleman (2000), the hallmark of the affiliative leader is a "People come first" attitude. Goleman (2000), Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014), Neely (2017) and Almansour (2012) agree that the affiliative coincides with the team building approach of management. In the words of Goleman (2000), management researchers associate the affiliative approach to leadership with the creation of trusting relationships.

According to Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014), Almansour (2012) and Lai et al. (2014), the affiliative leader unites followers in harmonious relationships. Neely (2017) highlights that with the affiliative approach, managers promote connection and

harmony between team members. They solve personality conflicts between team members, praise good work, and maintain healthy morale.

The affiliative approach of management is applied in various circumstances. Goleman (2000) suggests that by means of the affiliative style, leadership should focus on relationships and collaboration during stressful transitions and peak output. Use affiliative management strategies after setbacks and when personality conflicts damage productivity. Use affiliative management when creating a new team from scratch, unlike authoritative management, which works best when introducing new workers into existing, high-risk environments. Give everyone time to learn their roles and work out the personality conflicts which naturally arise in the early stages of team development. When reorganizing a department, take special care to understand how each team member works best.

However, Goleman (2000) believes that the affiliative style with its exclusive focus on praise can allow poor performance to go uncorrected. Also, affiliative leaders rarely offer advice, which often leaves employees in a quandary.

2.3.4 Autocratic/Coercive Leadership Style

The wording of Goleman (2000) has it that the coercive style or autocratic leader is a “Do what I say approach”. According to Neely (2017), the autocratic leader is any leader with a „Because I told you so“ mentality. Almansour (2012) and Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) explain that the coercive or autocratic leader is a leader who demands followers to comply with his or her policies and directives. Almansour (2012) highlights that the autocratic leader is unwavering with his decisions. Raza (2015) asserts that in this leadership, leaders make decisions on their own without

consulting subordinates. They reach decisions, communicate them to subordinates and expect prompt implementation. In this kind of leadership, guidelines, procedures and policies are all natural additions of an autocratic leader.

According to Goleman (2000), the coercive leadership is very effective in a turnaround situation, a natural disaster, or when working with problem employees. Neely (2017) indicates that autocratic leadership is necessary in high-risk fields. Autocratic leadership, subordinates need to obey instructions without question in many life-or-death environments such as military deployments, search and rescue operations, heavy industry, sensitive laboratory experiments, first responder situations, emergency rooms/surgical settings (Goleman, 2000).

However, Goleman (2000) believes that in most situations, coercive leadership inhibits the organization's flexibility and dampens employees' motivation. Grover (2010) opines that the first process of leadership is autocratic. According to him, within this process there are two styles: AI and AII. Grover (2010) explains that an AI leader makes decisions based on whatever information is available while an AII Leader secures necessary information from the group and makes a decision.

2.3.4 Authoritative Leadership Style

Goleman (2000) conceives of an authoritative leader's approach as a "Come with me" approach. According to Goleman (2000), the authoritative leader states the overall goal but gives people the freedom to choose their own means of achieving it. Neely (2017) explains that authoritative leadership means a manager takes complete control of and responsibility for a situation. Instructional leadership of Rautiola (2009) coincides with the authoritarian leadership style. According to Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008)

in Rautiola (2009), schools with instructional leadership typically have a climate free of distraction, a system of clear teaching objectives and high teacher expectations for students. Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy (2014) highlight that the authoritative leader is a confident leader who mobilizes followers to realize his or her vision by providing clear direction. The authoritative leader may accept the advice of subordinates.

On the advice of Neely (2017), authoritative leadership is applied when a business is adrift. And it is less effective when the leader is working with a team of experts who are more experienced than he is.

Neely (2017) opines that if leadership's situation call for an authoritative management style, they should use the path-goal method of leadership by communicating clear and immediate goals for their team. The leadership must ensure that the subordinates know exactly how to carry out their instructions and have all the resources they need. Everyone in the team should understand their roles and responsibilities and how to handle any obstacles that may arise.

According to Rautiola (2009), comparative researchers on the effectiveness of instructional leadership style and transformational styles found that on average, the impact of instructional leadership on student achievement was three to four times that of transformational leadership.

2.3.5 Leisure-faire Leadership Style

The leisure-faire leader has a carefree attitude. Raza (2015) and Jones (2008) claim that the laissez-faire leader gives the majority of control in the decision-making process to the followers on the assumption that followers are intrinsically motivated and should be left alone to accomplish tasks and goals. Raza (2015) adds that departments or

subordinates are allowed to work as they choose with minimal or no interference. Jones (2008) explains that the laissez-faire leader does not provide direction or guidance and this demotivates worker performance.

The leader doesn't take proactive measures in dealing with problems. Jones (2008) highlights that the laissez-faire leader uses Management-by-Exception (passive) which implies only intervening when goals have not been met or a problem arises. According to him, the Management-by-Exception leader (passive) waits to take action until mistakes are brought to his or her attention. Laissez-faire behaviors are ones that delay decisions and give up responsibility. Laissez-faire leaders offer no feedback or support to the follower. Jones (2008) cites Northouse (2004) who see the laissez-faire leadership as a "hands-off" approach to leadership.

According to Jones (2008), the laissez-faire leadership is also termed a non-leadership style. He highlights further that the laissez-faire leader avoids accepting responsibilities, is absent when needed, fails to follow up on requests for assistance, and resists expressing his or her views on important issues.

2.3.6 Democratic Leadership Style

Democratic leaders allow people time and space to create the best possible products and services. Goleman (2000) explains that the democratic style gives workers a voice in decisions and this helps democratic leaders to build organizational flexibility and responsibility and help generate fresh ideas. In contrast to the autocratic leader, the democratic leader, according to Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014), solicits input and builds consensus by encouraging followers to participate in decision making. Raza (2015) and Goleman (2000) explain democratic leadership as the leadership style that

allows subordinates participation in making decisions. Raza explains that democratic leader holds final responsibility, but he or she is known to delegate authority to other people, who determine work projects. Neely (2017) clarifies that democratic leaders value listening, collaboration, and investment. They allow people time and space to create the best possible products and services.

Democratic leadership is characterized by consensus and collaboration between leadership and subordinates. Neely (2017) asserts that democratic leaders value listening, collaboration and investment. Raza (2015) highlights that democratic leadership is characterized by fairness, competence, creativity, courage, intelligence and honesty. Lai et al. (2014) highlights that the democratic leadership style is in line with the humanistic model of management as it is based on teamwork through building consensus. Neely (2017) indicates that democratic leadership involves getting everyone's consensus on decisions. If every voice is heard, leaders know they're getting the most possible information and feedback. In situations that require the investment of all stakeholders, building consensus can mean the difference between success and failure. The democratic style is known for effective communication network. According to Raza (2015), the most unique feature of this leadership is that communication is active upward and downward. On the basis of the claim of Neely (2017), democratic leaders work best in situations where time and resources don't limit brainstorming and debate. However, even teams in rigid and dangerous environments can benefit from occasional democratic decisions. A leader of a surgical team could encourage the group to choose the location of their next training retreat by vote or just the location of an after-hours hangout (Neely, 2017).

However, Goleman (2000) points that sometimes the price is endless meetings may confuse employees who feel leaderless.

2.3.7 Pacesetting Leadership Style

Based on the explanation of Goleman (2000), the pacesetter leader sets high performance standards and exemplifies them himself. The pacesetter leader is a role model to his subordinate (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014 & Lai et al., 2014). Neely (2017) posits that pacesetting leaders use their experience in a certain market/niche to get the most they can from highly-motivated workers. Goleman (2000) highlights that pacesetter leaders are often high achievers themselves. Pacesetters lead by example and ask a lot from their followers. They set high standards, though they lead best by setting both short and long-term goals.

According to Neely (2017), unlike other management styles, the pacesetting strategy often involves restraining achievers with big egos to avoid burnout and increase sustainability. Leaders who embrace this method often use detailed performance metrics to get the best possible outputs from their teams. Certain employees in certain fields such as sales thrive when recognized and rewarded for their specific achievements (Neely, 2017). Goleman (2000) highlights that pacesetting leaders expect excellence and self-direction.

Pacesetting is most suitable among professionals. Lai et al. (2014) and Goleman (2000) indicate that pacesetting has a very positive impact on employees who are self-motivated and highly competent. But other employees tend to feel overwhelmed by such a leader's demands for excellence and to resent his tendency to take over a situation.

Pacesetters motivate subordinates through their leadership by example. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) explain that the pacesetter leader is a leader who motivates followers by setting high standards for performance and leading by example. Neely (2017) argues that pacesetter has a hidden benefit in encouraging overachievers to work hard and remain aware of long-term perspectives. By setting reasonable goals, they can avoid costly employee burnout and turnover (Neely, 2017). However, in the words of Goleman (2000), employees tend to feel overwhelmed by the leader's demands for excellence and to resent his tendency to take over a situation.

2.3.8 Coaching Leadership Style

Coaching style is human-centered. Goleman (2000) explains the coaching style as a style with a focus on personal development rather than the immediate work-related tasks. According to Goleman (2000), the coaching style works well when employees are already aware of their weaknesses and want to improve, but not when they are resistant to changing their ways. Lai et al. (2014) explains that the coaching leader is a leader who develops followers for the future by providing instruction and encouragement. Neely (2017) opines that leaders and managers act as coaches to inspire, encourage, and guide their teams to greater outputs and efficiencies.

Coaching works best with subordinates who could work independently under little guidance. Neely (2017) asserts that the coaching model works best with maturing teams. For instance, once a new wilderness firefighter has been through a few seasons, they don't need specific instructions. They need information about new technology, terrain, etc. but can be trusted to work independently or even begin leading small groups (Neely, 2017). Goleman (2000) adds that coaching works best with employees who have

demonstrated competency and earned their coworkers' trust. Use this hybrid model to guide teams toward higher performance after using an extremely strict or lenient management style to accommodate new employees and difficult environments. Neely (2017) asserts that smart leaders know when their teams have the cohesion and trust to handle new challenges and new responsibilities.

2.3.9 Situational Leadership Style

Grover (2010) see the situational leader as a leader who uses not just one style of leadership but whatever style he/she sees fit in a given situation. According to Grover (2010), the situational style is otherwise termed as the "Right Style". According to Olum (2014) and Almansour (2012), the assumption of the situational or contingency theory is that when managers make a decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. For example, if one is leading troops in war, an autocratic style is probably best. On the other hand, if one is leading a hospital or University, a more participative and facilitative leadership style is probably best.

Grover (2010) argues that an effective leader needs to be able to read his/her team and make split second decisions based on the dynamic of the group. Bush (2016) indicates that the model is meant to modify traditional notions of leadership. bush explains that the contingent leadership style takes into account the diverse nature of school context and provides an alternative approach that adapts leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a one for all approach.

2.3.10 Management by Objective

The father of the two management approaches, MBO and MWA is Druker (1945), according to Brown and Owusu (2014). They cite Druker (1945) who claims that by MBO, top level management jointly set organizational targets and define individual's responsibilities in terms of the expected results with subordinates. According to them, the procedure of objectives setting and progress monitoring are determining factors towards the function of organizations. This means that ideas should permeate the entire organization from management to subordinate without any party feeling alienated from the mainstream operations of the organization. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) agree with Brown and Owusu (2014) that if management fail to involve subordinates in decision making, the organization faces the risk of having a downward decision making approach and which implies that goals are set by top level management and handed down to subordinate for implementation. Goleman (2000) in Almansour (2012) asserts that top-down management adversely affects the flexibility of the organization. People lose their motivation because they have little ownership of the strategies of the organization, and the rewards system of the organization is damaged because it depletes pride in the organization.

The management by objective theory is a result-centered managerial approach for the effective utilization of materials, physical and human resources of the organization which tries to combine short term goals with long term goals of the organization (Brown & Owusu, 2014).

2.3.11 Management by Walking/Wandering Around

On the other hand, management by walking around (MBWA) as defined by Peters and Waterman according to Brown and Owusu (2014), is the management style whereby management wander around in an unstructured manner at the workplace randomly with a view to checking with employees, equipment, about the status of ongoing work. Brown & Owusu alludes to the fact that this management approach has the tendency to increase productivity as workers are put on high alert due to the unceremonial visits of management. Workers also get to know their bosses well and disclose minor happenings in the organization before they become problems so that they are fixed timeously. Brown and Owusu (2014) and Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) are agreed on the claim that the approach uses the most unusual leadership style as it makes use of high technical skills and abilities to analyze audience using appropriate humor and presentation skills. It makes subordinates put on a “can do” spirit attitude. Brown and Owusu (2014) highlights that MBWA operates better when adopted concurrently with other management techniques. According to Goleman (2000), leaders who get the best results are those who employ various leadership styles depending on the challenges their organizations are facing. Almansour (2012), opines that the individual styles will be used based on a combination of management’s beliefs, values and preferences, as well as the organizational culture and norms which will encourage some styles and discourage others.

2.4 The Influence of Head Teachers' Management/Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

Different leadership styles may affect organizational effectiveness or performance. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy argue that the success or failure of proper organizations, nations and other social units has been largely credited to the nature of their leadership style.

Increased involvement of workers in decision making boosts their morale. Brown and Owusu (2014) highlight that when goals are jointly set by teachers as the workforce of a school organization and headmasters as managers it boosts the morale of the teachers. They caution that headteachers who sit in their offices to take their own decisions and issue directive or bring decisions taken by the management board to formal meetings with staff for discussions are likely to demotivate the teachers to work towards the achievement of their organizational objectives.

According to Lai et al. (2014) teachers prefer to work in a school where order is maintained, and where they receive support in classroom management. According to them, many of the new teachers in the interview express dissatisfaction with their principals. However, principals who receive accolades from the new teachers are identified as being visible, innovative, fair, supportive, effective problem solvers, positive in their interaction with teachers, strong instructional leaders, and clear communicators. This implies that leaders can motivate their subordinates by the way they interact with them (Lai et al., 2014).

Brown and Owusu (2014) assert that in a school setting, when members of staff are involved in decision making, they develop a high level of satisfaction and this encourage them to work in concert with the principal. They cite Liontos (1993) who suggests that shared decision making strategy in management has the potency to improve the quality of decisions thereby increasing acceptance rates, boosts staff morale, increase staff efficiency, staff commitment and teamwork; build trust among staff; help staff to acquire new skills and increase overall school effectiveness.

According to the Blake Mouton Model in Grover (2010), a team leader stresses production needs as well as the needs of people equally high. By nature, team work tends to be a great motivator, but more importantly, the team has a greater sense of ownership and satisfaction.

The work of Lai et al. (2014) echo Johnson (2004) who describes contemporary schools as “egg-crate” organizations in which teachers still work independently in isolation and are left to sink or swim on their own. They opine that school reform must include “team teaching, job-embedded professional development, and differentiated roles for expert teachers” the importance of administrator support and effective induction programs in determining their success and job satisfaction.

According to Seniwoliba (2013) the primary antecedent of job attitude of an employee is within management ability to influence. Leadership is a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organization goals. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) argue that today’s organizations need effective leaders who understand the complexities of the rapidly changing global environment.

Lai et al. (2014) many administrators lacked the knowledge to be curriculum and instructional leaders, and this lack could hinder schools from becoming high performers. Therefore, Denton (2009) cited by Lai et al. (2014) explains that successful school principals have the ability to wade through the myriad of ideas from teachers that promise to improve student learning and focus on specific goals and objectives that produce improved achievement.

To achieve optimal output in the school as an organization, there must be flexibility and companionship between staff and management. Brown and Owusu (2014) reveal from their studies that most teachers see their heads as bosses and not as friends. They explain that the attitude of some organizational management of being unsocial and distant people where they make themselves available once in meetings and specific programmes does not auger well for staff motivation and the achievement of the objectives of the organization in the long run. Andre et al. (2008) explains that the head teacher is the human resource manager of the institution. Therefore, he is in charge of the good governance of school curricular and extracurricular activities of the school.

According to Almansour (2012), the psychologists George Litwin and Richard Stringer study the impact of leadership styles on work climates or environments and find six factors that influence working environment. The factors include flexibility to innovate, responsibility to the organization, the level of standards, performance feedback and rewards, clarity about the mission and values of the organization and the level of commitment to a common purpose. They find that authoritative, affiliative, democratic and coaching styles have significantly positive effects on climate while the coercive and pacesetting styles have significantly negative effects on climate. The coercive style

demands immediate action on the part of subordinates and often helps struggling organizations pull out of a crisis (Almansour, 2012).

The authoritative style inspires people to come alongside the leader and his or her clearly communicated vision. As a result, it has the most positive impact on organizational climate. Authoritative leaders identify standards and strategies that will move the organization in the direction of the vision. Doing so increases the commitment to the organization. The affiliative style builds strong relationships within organizations by placing people first. It builds harmony and loyalty within organizations because people care about one another and work together in trusting work communities. Affiliative leaders are able to create unity in organizations where trust has been broken. The democratic leadership style is characterized by the leader spending time listening to people and seeking their ideas. It is found to increase flexibility and responsibility within organizations. In addition, workers' morale is improved when leaders demonstrate democratic leadership. It is best used when leaders are not sure what the best direction is for the organization to take and when they have able employees to include in decision making. However, it has negative aspects including long meetings, wasted time, escalating conflicts and indecision. The pacesetter style is characterized by a leader who sets very high standards and practices them himself. A pacesetter leader is quick to identify employees who cannot meet his or her standards and either demand immediate improvement or replace such employees.

Though the pacesetter style has its place, it should be used in small doses because it has the potential to destroy organizational morale due to its intense demands for excellence. Coaching leaders are those who help their employees identify their

strengths and improve their weaknesses so that they may succeed in their careers. They are encouragers who delegate responsibilities effectively and give their subordinates the authority and respect they need to successfully get the job done. In spite of the fact that coaching is a very effective leadership tool in improving climate and results, it is used least often because it requires much time and effort. Many leaders find themselves too busy to take the time to develop their employees, but those who do reap the benefits (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Almansour, 2012; Lai et al, 2014).

The transformational leadership promotes unity of purpose among workers. Almansour (2012) opines that transformational leadership is characterized by providing a culture of building that fulfills followers' need for "achievement, responsibility, competence, and esteem". It is marked by a culture of bonding in which the leaders and followers share values and a mission.

Transformational leadership promotes positive work attitude among workers. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) and Almansour (2012) agree that the transformational leader is also a nurturant leader, who has the responsibilities to instill positive work values beside his affection, personal care, and warmth for the subordinates before he or she can lead. The nurturant caring attitude will in return strengthen the subordinates' sense of competence and self-sufficiency. Subordinates eventually will reduce the salience of dependency, personalized relationship, and status differentials among the leader-follower relationship. These eventually allow his subordinates to look for more freedom, autonomy and more recognition and to contribute to the task (Sinha, 1980 in Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014).

Transformational leadership is associated with high motivation. Voon et al. (2011) cite Burns (1978) that transformational leaders emphasize followers' intrinsic motivation and personal development by aligning followers' aspirations and needs with desired organizational outcomes. Almansuour (2014) indicates that the transformational leadership appeals to higher-order, intrinsic motives of followers who are driven by doing what is rewarding and what is good rather than just by what gets rewarded. Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) in Voon et al. (2011), Rautiola (2009), Jones (2008) and Raza (2015) have all highlighted that transformational leader motivates followers to work to achieve beyond their normal performance. Voon et al. (2011) adds that the transformational leader moves the subordinates beyond individual interest to the good of the group, organization or country. Raza (2015) concludes that transformational leadership tends to have more committed and satisfied followers.

Transformational leadership promotes creativity and innovation. Tomson et al. (2016) highlight that transformational leader can be characterized as a gardener who shapes a developing and growing culture through stimulating and empowering the staff in creative thinking and gives freedom for innovation and individual growth. Almansuour (2014) agrees with Bass and Avolio (1985) and Ward (2002) in Tomson et al. (2016) that the transformational leadership is characterized by inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Transformational leadership is a stronger predictor of both job satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Organizational culture is influenced by leadership style and consequently, leadership style affects organizational performance. Lai et al. (2014) cite Day (2000) and others who demonstrate that transformational leadership has significant

influence on teachers' commitment to school reform as compared with other types of leadership styles.

According to Goleman (2000), the leaders who get the best results are those who employ various leadership styles depending on the challenges their organizations are facing. Darr (2000) asserts that the various demands of effective leadership necessitate the need for various models of leadership styles. Doran (2007), Brown and Owusu (2014) and Almansour (2012) agree that no uniform management structure could be adopted for all organizations including schools considering the wide variation in local circumstances in schools such as size of school, level and depth of deprivation, ethnic diversity, the range of priorities and differing emphasis on them. Brown and Owusu (2014) highlight that MBWA operates better when it is applied simultaneously with other management techniques. They represent this diagrammatically as follows:

MBO + MBWA = Motivation to work hard.

In line with the argument of Goleman (2000), the more styles a leader has mastered, the better. According to Goleman (2000), the effectiveness of the leader is contingent upon whether he is able to switch among the different styles as conditions dictate to create the best organizational climate and optimizes business performance. Grover (2010) and Raza (2015) argue that an effective leader needs to adjust to all circumstances and environments. Goleman (2000) claims that each style, by name and brief description alone, will likely resonate with anyone who leads, is led, or as is the case with most of us, does both. Neely (2017) argues that effective leaders know when to strictly apply the rules and when to break them; when to be flexible and when to hold the line; and the management styles that suit different situations and various types of teams.

Almansour (2012) indicates that Goleman says the affiliative style of leadership should not be used alone. It has been found to be most effective when it is combined with the authoritative style. Resourceful leaders are guided by their emotional intelligence to move from one style to another as the need arises.

It must be highlighted that each of the leadership styles has their strengths and weaknesses. Conclusively, the manager who has the dexterity to combine two or more styles in the management of the affairs of the organization does not only stand the chance to achieve optimum productivity but also develop the human resource of the organization and the state in the long run.

2.5 Theories of Motivation

Theories are set of ideas that explain observed facts (Porter, 2003). Scholars have developed some of these sets of ideas to explain several phenomena including worker satisfaction. Therefore, theories of motivation are committed to developing set of ideas that explain what can either encourage staff to work effectively or things that can discourage workers to leave the organization or adopt a lackadaisical attitude to work. Maslow's Theory of Motivation, the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Theory and the Attribution Theory are considered for the purpose of this work.

2.5.1 Maslow's Theory of Needs

Maslow's Theory of Motivation is a premier theory of motivation which in itself is a source of motivation to other motivation theories. Naylor (1999) in Seniwoliba (2013) and Wahba and Bridwell (1976) argue that Maslow's theory has become the basis

to developing a grand theory of motivation and many continue to find the hierarchy model very attractive.

As a theory of motivation, Maslow uses the two concepts of deprivation and gratification to provide the dynamic forces that link needs to behaviour (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). He uses the deprivation concept to establish the dominance within his hierarchy of needs. The key principle is the emergence of less potent needs upon the gratification of more potent ones. For instance, the physiological needs, when unsatisfied, dominate the organism until they are satisfied. Thus, the deprivation or dissatisfaction of a need of high prepotency will lead to the domination of this need over the organism's personality. Therefore, relative gratification of a given need submerges it and allows the next higher need in the hierarchy to emerge, dominate and organize the personality so that instead of, for instance, being hunger-obsessed it will now be safety-obsessed, then love-obsessed, esteemed-obsessed and finally, self-actualization-obsessed (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976).

Maslow's theory is summarized diagrammatically as follows: Dynamic cycle over time of deprivation-domination-gratification-activation continues until the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs have all been gratified and the self-actualization need has been activated. Thus, the need to satisfy lower order needs first in order to be in the position to satisfy the next higher order needs is a source of motivation for every human being (Sharma & Jain, 2013).

The theory fails to deal with some traditional issues of motivation such as persistence in behaviour, the role of learning, perception and environment of human action (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). It is also clear from the experiences of human life that

the order in which Maslow attempts to place the gratification of human needs is idealized as, for example, parental love may be satisfied before or coterminous with security needs of children.

2.5.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Theory

In the education sector, the theory is used for staff evaluation Voon et al. (2011) cite Kalleberg (1977) who propose that job satisfaction consists of two components. These are the intrinsic component referring to the work itself and the extrinsic component representing facets of the job external to the task itself job. The focus is on extrinsic incentives. Firestone (2014) cites Podgursky & Springer (2007) that two streams of social science theory support different ideas about teacher evaluation: the economics-based theory which recommends using conventional quantitative data to distribute rewards and punishments through continued tenure and financial incentives, including rewards for working in hard-to-staff areas as well as for measured high performance.

In contrast the psychology-based theory relies on intrinsic incentives through professional development and job design that could be triggered by teacher assessment. The economics-based and cognitive evaluation theories rely on the use of incentives as a means of motivation (Firestone, 2014). Gagne and Deci (2005) echo Zuckerman et al (1978) who highlight that cognitive evaluation theory suggests that external factors such as tangible rewards, deadlines, surveillance and evaluations tend to diminish feelings of autonomy, prompt a change in perceived locus of causality from internal to external and undermine intrinsic motivation whereas some external factors, such as providing choice about aspects of task engagement tend to enhance feelings of autonomy, prompt a shift in

perceived locus of causality (PLOC) from external to internal and increase intrinsic motivation. The work of Gagne and Deci (2005) echo Ryan, Mims and Koestner (1983) who argue that when rewards are contingent on high quality performance and the interpersonal context is supportive rather than pressuring, tangible rewards enhance intrinsic motivation relative to a comparison condition with no rewards and no feedback. In brief, extrinsic motivation theory assumes that people respond to extrinsic incentives, including money whilst the intrinsic motivation theory assumes that people reward themselves in response to the feedback they receive from their work.

2.5.3 Extrinsic Motivation

Firestone (2014) highlights that some of the challenges of distributing extrinsic incentives are explicated through principal agent theory, with an emphasis on situations in which a principal or authorizer has the authority to demand an agent's compliance but cannot adequately monitor the agent's work. The authorizer can monitor the outcome of the work but not the agent's action. With each having their own wishes and the authorizer unable to monitor the agent all the time, the authorizer cannot trust the agent to comply with his wishes. In his capacity, the authorizer builds incentives into the contract. What makes these incentives extrinsic is that they are conditional on the agent generating some measurable outcome. The authorizer's challenge is to define a contract in which the promised incentives overcome the agent's information advantage and yet still induce the agent to keep working within the contract (Miller, 2005 in Firestone, 2014).

2.5.4 Intrinsic Motivation

Several theories must be combined to develop a complete understanding of intrinsic motivation. Generally, internally motivated individuals experience both autonomy and self-efficacy. Autonomously motivated people find the activity itself so interesting that no additional incentive is needed. These individuals work for personal interest without oversight or coercion and they can also be motivated by internalizing others' goals. When these goals come from a legitimate authority such as the school principal, then specific, achievable, yet challenging goals generate great effort. In addition to interest, the sense of an autonomous choice of the goals is important for motivation (Locke & Latham, 2002 in Firestone, 2014). Hirschfeld (2000) in Voon et al. (2011) highlights that intrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves whereas extrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself.

Gagne and Deci (2005) highlight that professional development and capacity building can help build teachers' knowledge. They indicate that available research suggests that effective professional development promotes intrinsic motivation in a number of ways: first, it challenges teachers intellectually while giving them powerful images of teaching and learning and building their pedagogical content knowledge. Second, it actively engages teachers in collaborative settings. Third, it reinforces learning through congruent learning activities that permit practice and refinement. Finally, it offers teachers opportunities to solve their own real instructional problems. Competence enhances intrinsic motivation most when the individual gets feedback on performance which is a direct, clear information coming from the work itself (Borko, 2004, Hackman & Oldham, 1980 and others in Firestone, 2014).

However, efficacy assessments depend on teachers' specific assignments. Teachers are rewarded for their knowledge, for doing extra work, for working in hard-to-staff schools or fields and for achieving measurable objectives (Firestone, 2014). The second is expectancy, which refers to the estimate of the probability of carrying out the task leading to the intended outcome (Vroom, 1964 in Firestone, 2014).

Firestone (2014) argues that the most powerful incentive may not be adjustments to compensation but access to employment itself because removing incompetent teachers is a central tenet of the extrinsic approach. The core argument for this approach is not really about motivation rather staying employed. Third, autonomy is crucial not only as a psychological state but also as a working condition. Teachers still report that their work is less influenced by those policies than by such traditional sources of guidance as informal feedback from their students and feedback from fellow teachers. According to Gagne and Deci (2005) social-contextual factors that promote feelings of autonomy and competence enhance intrinsic motivation whereas factors that diminish these feelings undermine intrinsic motivation leaving people either controlled by contingencies or motivated. Furthermore, clear, challenging goals can provide needed clarity for teachers and typically come from two sources. Locally, setting challenging goals is a task for transformational leadership, usually from the principal or district level (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005 in Firestone, 2014).

The work of Firestone (2014) reproduces Eisenhardt (1989), Haubrich (1994) and Miller (2005) who observe that the theory does not examine why extrinsic incentives should motivate the agent, but it offers extensive guidance on how to design incentives for various kinds of performance measured in different ways under many conditions. For

instance, it has been used to address a variety of problems in economics, organizational studies and political science.

2.5.5 Attribution Theory of Motivation

Attribution theories of motivation start from the premise that people try to bring order into their lives by developing personal implicit theories about why things happen as they do in their lives and in the lives of others (Tollefson, 2000). Miller and Ross (1975) highlight that the concept of a self-serving attribution process owes its existence to Heider's (1958) "naive analysis of action" model. According to Heider, the selection of an acceptable causal attribution depends on two factors: First, the reason has to fit the wishes of the person. Secondly, the datum has to be plausibly derived from the reason. They explain that Weiner has related attribution theory to achievement motivation and presents two attribution theories of motivation: one, an intrapersonal theory which addresses how individuals explain their successes and failures and two, an interpersonal theory addresses how they explain other's successes or failures.

The work of Miller and Ross (1975) highlights that the theory is variously labeled as ego-defensive, ego-protective, or ego-biased attribution. Miller and Ross (1975) claim that we are prone to alter our perception of causality so as to protect or enhance our self-esteem. We attribute success to our own dispositions and failure to external forces. Tollefson (2000) indicate that Weiner uses the metaphor of person as scientist to illustrate the intrapersonal theory of motivation and the metaphor of person as judge to illustrate the interpersonal theory of motivations.

To Kelley's (1971) in Miller and Ross (1975), the notion of effective control that it is important for individuals to be able to exercise control over their environment

because the attribution to self of success and the attribution to external factors of failure provides for the continuation of control attempts.

The process of discovering how much effort one needs to expend to achieve a particular educational outcome is an ongoing process for most students. In the scientist metaphor, students are constantly in the process of (a) selecting among a diverse set of educational and personal goals, (b) collecting information about the task, either how to increase their mastery of the task or how they have performed on the task relative to the performance of others, and (c) making and testing their judgments about the amount of effort needed to achieve the goals (Tollefson, 2000).

People develop their personal sense of efficacy from four sources: first, performance accomplishment. Second, observation of the performance of others. Third, verbal persuasion and related types of social influence. Fourth, states of physiological arousal from which they judge personal capabilities and vulnerability (Bandura, 1982 in Tollefson, 2000).

Like other theories, critics raises the following arguments against the attribution theory. the self-enhancing effect may not be due to motivational distortion, but rather to: first, the tendency of people; second, to expect their behavior to produce success; third, to discern a closer covariation between behavior and outcomes in the case of increasing success than in the case of constant failure; and fourth, to misconstrue the meaning of contingency. Miller and Ross (1975) also note that only minimal evidence is found to suggest that individuals engage in self-protective attributions under conditions of failure. That notwithstanding, the theory has emphasized the need to look within oneself for reasons why certain objectives of life could not be accomplished rather than finding

perfect excuses for our failures by blaming others. This could be quite catastrophic to personal growth as one will not make effort to rectify their shortcomings in life.

2.5.6 Staff Motivation

Staff motivation is an intrinsic part of any successful organization because motivated human resource guarantees the achievement of its set objectives. Almansour (2012) explains that motivation of the teacher can have many effects on how students learn and their behaviour to the course matter. He can direct behaviour toward particular goals; lead to increased effort and energy; increase initiation of, and persistence in, activities; enhance cognitive processing; determine what consequences are reinforcing; and ultimately, lead to improved performance. Students need supported through their class by the teacher, who create the circumstances conditions that make students ready to the above mentioned points. Lai et al. (2014) cite Harris et al. (2003) who assert that school effectiveness is easier to achieve by motivated and committed teachers, while less committed teachers can bring undesirable adverse effects that can be financially costly.

According to Heath (1999), Barnard (1938) posits that to motivate their staff, organizations offer their members inducements in exchange for contributions. This means that when direct or indirect rewards are attached to services rendered, employees will be encouraged to serve diligently and efficiently. Heath (1999) added that at some point, one individual (a principal) must infer what kind of deal would effectively motivate another (an agent). If principals accurately infer how to motivate agents and offer them an attractive deal, then organizations may successfully align the goals of their members; if not, then organizations may fail to meet their fundamental challenge (Heath, 1999).

The work of Seniwoliba (2013) cites Peretomode (1991) who postulates that motivation and job satisfaction are related terms but are not synonymous and acknowledged that job satisfaction is one part of the motivational process. According to Peretomode (1991) while motivation is primarily concerned with „goal-directed behaviour“, job satisfaction refers to „the fulfillment acquired“ by experiencing various job activities and rewards. Seniwoliba (2013) quotes Franken (1994) and Golembiewski (1973) who conceive motivation as the degree of readiness of an organization to pursue some designated goal. He also echoes Hoy & Miskel (1987) that motivation is the complex forces, drivers, needs, tension states among other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity directed towards the achievement of personal goals. Seniwoliba (2013) also indicates, from the psychological point of view, that motivation is an „internal state“ or condition (need, desire or want) that serves to activate or energize behaviour and give it direction. He also clarifies that theoretically, the concept of motivation is used to describe the factors within an individual which arouse, maintain and channel behaviour towards a goal. Thus, motivation is goal-directed behaviour.

Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. According to Voon et al. (2011), intrinsic motivation occurs when individuals are motivated to experience interest and suggest that a variety of goals may be associated with interest for different people and/or in different contexts. They suggest that interest that results from a particular set of situational characteristics is not necessarily intrinsically motivated. Instead, intrinsic motivation occurs when the activity is central to the self (Hidi), or when it is associated with individual interest. This implies that there is more enduring interests that develop as knowledge and value increases. According to them there is now a fair degree of

consensus among the present writers that rewards can have a variety of effects on intrinsic motivation and performance. There is also consensus that these reward effects depend on the nature of the activity, the reward contingency, the feedback obtained, the more general context for reward administration and the people offering and receiving the reward. Heath (1999) indicates that extrinsic factors are “outside a thing, outward or external”; intrinsic factors are “inward,” “belonging to or lying within a given part” (Webster’s New Universal Unabridged Dictionary, 1994 in Heath, 1999).

According to Heath (1999), at a deep level all motivations depend on an interaction between external and internal factors an extrinsic factor like pay will affect behavior only if individuals have some internal desire for it; an intrinsic factor like “doing something worthwhile” will affect behavior only if there is something in the external environment that individuals consider worthwhile. Seniwoliba (2013) echoes Mullins (1999) who notes that needs and expectations can be economic rewards, intrinsic satisfaction, and social relationships. Economic rewards, which consist of payment, fringe benefits and material goods, are instrumental orientation to work. Intrinsic satisfaction is provided by the work itself and represents a personal orientation to work. Friendships, teamwork, and the need for affiliation are part of social relationships that constitute the relational orientation to work. To buttress the role of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives, Heath (1999) points to the late 1980s GSS findings when a group of respondents are asked about the role of extrinsic incentives for others, people generally believe that pay is quite important. Of this sample, 73% thought that “large differences in pay” are necessary “in order to get people to work hard,” and 67% agree that “people would not want to take extra responsibility at work unless they are paid extra for it.”

Sixty-four percent say that they are pursuing a legal career because it is intellectually appealing or because they have always been interested in the law.

Teacher's involvement in the running of affairs in the school is a source of motivation to them. Lai et al. (2014) refers Greenlee (2007) who agrees with Carr (1997), and asserts that frustration and dissatisfaction among teachers is rooted in their lack of understanding of the school functions beyond the classroom, such as budgeting, scheduling, and so on. At the same time, it seems that many administrators lacked the knowledge to be curriculum and instructional leaders, and this lack could hinder schools from becoming high performers. Therefore, Denton (2009) cites by Lai et al. (2014) explains that successful school principals have the ability to wade through the myriad of ideas from teachers that promise to improve student learning and focus on specific goals and objectives that produce improved achievement.

Another factor that demotivates teachers is posting to rural areas. Adelabu (2005) reports that about half of the government-recognized secondary schools in Osun State are located in rural areas and he stresses that one major problem they face in posting teachers to rural schools is the refusal of teachers, especially female teachers, to accept the postings. Most of these teachers cite spouse employment as the main reason for refusal to accept rural postings. Even those who accept postings to rural schools, start applying for a transfer after a year or two. This explains why there are more teacher vacancies in rural than urban. According to Seniwoliba (2013) inequity among teachers is a major demotivation factor. He highlights the fact that when teachers compare themselves with their colleagues with the same qualifications, experience and responsibilities in nonteaching organization and observe differences in conditions of service, they feel

unfairly treated as professionals with equal qualification. He points out that the Adams' Equity Theory of Motivation postulates that mismatch of salary with work input demotivates a worker. Thus, when staff input such as skills, abilities, and work load are incompatible, they are demotivated to work diligently and efficiently. Seniwoliba (2013) outlines ten most important factors of motivation that could cause teachers to stay or vacate their post are salary, working conditions, incentives, medical allowances, security, recognition, achievement, growth, students indiscipline, school policy and status.

According to Lai et al (2014), commitment of employees of an organization has many dimensions. They maintain that many authors agree that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct. They cite Meyer and Allen (1987) who develop a commitment model that comprises three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative. Later, Allen and Meyer (1991) proved that attitudinal commitment of affective, continuance and normative components are conceptual and empirically separated. According to Lai et al. (2014) McShane and Glinow (2010) define affective commitment (AC) as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in a particular organization", while continuance commitment (CC) is "the employee's calculative attachment to the organization, whereby the employee is motivated to stay only because leaving would be costly". Lai et al. (2014) also indicate that Meyer and Allen (1991) state that normative commitment (NC) is the employee's feeling of obligation to stay in the organization based on one's personal norms and moral values. According to Seniwoliba (2013) argues that the relevance of job satisfaction and motivation are therefore very serious to the long-term growth and development of any educational system. They probably rank alongside professional knowledge and skills,

core competencies, educational resources and strategies as the veritable determinants of an educational system's success and performance.

Many factors affect staff motivation and satisfaction in the school. Adelabu (2005) classifies the factors that affect teacher motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in Nigeria according to three main categories, namely job context, job content and reward system.

Employees do best when they feel committed to their duties because their needs are met. Almansour (2012) cites Fry et al. (2005) who mention that the field of performance excellence has emphasized the need to go beyond reporting financial metrics to include non-financial predictors of financial performance such as customer satisfaction, organizational outputs such as quality and delivery, process or internal operating measures, and employee commitment and growth. Therefore, the needs for satisfaction and motivation to work cannot be over emphasize and are very essential in the lives of teachers because they form the fundamental reason for working in life.

According to Lai et al. (2014) most teachers' feel more committed to their tasks when principals are able to create work communities that are supportive and stimulating, student-oriented, facilitate feelings of community, and foster their feelings of efficacy. According to them, many factors have been identified as influencing teacher job satisfaction and retention, and salary is often at the top of the lists. In most public school settings, school principals have little control over teacher salaries. Private school leaders, on the other hand, may have more input in determining teacher salaries, but they are often plagued by smaller budgets for salaries. According to Liu & Meyer (2005) in Lai et al. (2014) in addition to compensation, student discipline problems, school leadership,

professional support, school climate, and working conditions are factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction. They also argue that the principal's leadership style and the organizational structure of the school can also have significant effects on teacher retention.

Symptoms of teacher demotivation are quite manifest. Adelabu (2005) asserts that the most serious symptoms of teacher demotivation in Nigeria are low teacher output, high teacher turnover, regular strike actions, poor pupil performance, and refusal of teachers to accept postings to rural areas, and irregular attendance and teacher absenteeism, especially in rural areas. Ifinedo (2003) demonstrated that a motivated worker is easy to spot by the person's agility, dedication, enthusiasm, focus, zeal, and general performance and contribution to organizational objectives and goals. Seniwoliba (2013) argues that a happy worker is a productive worker. According to him, lack of job satisfaction is a potential determinant of absenteeism, high labour turnover, in-role job performance and extra-role behaviours.

On the basis of the claim of Lai et al. (2014), as a profession, teaching has historically been infamous for the relatively low compensation it offers. However, it has attracted those who love children and who want to have a positive impact on their lives. Lai et al. (2014) quote Strunk and Robison who find that higher teaching salaries meant lower attrition rates, and teachers are less likely to leave larger schools possibly because of larger support staffs and fewer additional duties. The work of Seniwoliba (2013) opines that it is possible that an employee may display low motivation from the organization's perspective yet enjoy every aspect of the job.

2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the human resource is the kingpin of all organizations. Seniwoliba (2013) highlights that individuals are considered assets in so far as they choose to invest knowledge and skills that benefit their organization. This implies that the most important resource is the human resources. Echoing Schullz (1980), Seniwoliba (2013) argues, human capital is an important input and forms the basis for wealth creation. The human capital is the active agent of production who accumulates capital, exploit natural resources, build and develop social, political and economic organization. He also plans national development programmes.

The terms management, leadership and administration are used interchangeably to refer to the activity of influencing others actions in achieving desirable ends and maintaining efficiently and effectively current organizational arrangements. Different management styles are employed in managing organizations and each has a set of effects on employee motivation and the achievement of the set objectives of the organization.

For instance, the democratic, affiliative, coaching, pacesetter, transformational styles encourage staff participation as they feel involved in the management of the organization. Contrariwise, the autocratic and transactional styles among others have the tendency to make staff alienated. Different theoretical schools formulate various management strategies, each with their strengths and weaknesses. These theories help in different ways to explain human behaviour and how to get him discharge his duties diligently and efficiently to facilitate the achievement of the desired goals of the organization including secondary schools.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the method adopted in the research and the profile of the study area. The chapter therefore begins with the research methodology which includes the research design, research purpose, description of the population, sample and sampling technique, data collection technique (including the pilot testing) and data analysis. The next section involves the discussions on the organisational profile, which includes a brief history about the study area, an overview of the second cycle education in Ghana, a brief profile of the Ghana Education Service under which the second cycle institutions operate.

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a mixed research method by the use of both qualitative and quantitative approach involving the use of questionnaire and interview. Quantitative research method entails collecting and interpreting numerical data while qualitative research method involves interpreting and making sense of the individual and generally practical meanings of a phenomenon under study (Saunders et al., 2012). Quantitative methods help to analyze and present data statistically while qualitative methods are subjective in nature and help to look into less tangible aspects of a study such as perceptions, attitude and values. The researcher used both quantitative and qualitative methods to analyse data. The questionnaire was administered to the headmasters and the teaching staff of second cycle institutions in the Ashanti Region. The administered questionnaire sought to solicit information on the impact of leadership styles of headmasters of Senior High School in Kumasi and its impact on staff motivation to work.

Since the research sought to establish the relationship between or among variables, explanatory research design was used in this work. In seeking to answer the research questions, mixed methods strategy was used to explain the impact of leadership styles on teacher's motivation to work in the second cycle institutions in Kumasi. The mixed methods were used so as to allow the researcher to use both qualitative and quantitative methods to collect and analyze data. Mixed methods usually consist of the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research methods; they help overcome shortcomings that characterize using only one method. Mixed methods also present a better approach to data collection, analysis and interpretation (Bryman, 2006). A survey strategy was adopted and data was collected through questionnaires and interviews to answer research questions and objectives. In conducting an explanatory research, one of the domain which has been identified by some researchers, and recommended for organizational and management research, is case study design and this was also employed.

3.3 Brief Methodology

This section discussed the process used to accomplish the research. Primary data was collected through administering questionnaire to sampled employees in ten secondary schools in the Kumasi Municipality. Sample of 100 respondents were selected for the study. Non-probability sampling technique was used to draw the sample size through the use of purposive and convenience sampling technique. Statistical tools such as frequencies and percentages were used to describe the results or findings. The use of tables was employed to facilitate easy understanding of the analysis.

3.4 Population

The target population included all teachers and heads of second cycle schools in the Ashanti Region and since it was practically impossible to use all teachers and heads of second cycle schools in the Ashanti Region, this study therefore sampled some schools and these included heads and teaching staff of Anglican SHS, Islamic SHS, Prempeh College, Opoku Ware SHS and Uthmaniya SHS.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

This sub-section dealt with the sampling technique to choose a reliable sample and to further determine the sampling size

3.5.1 Sample Size

Sample size refers to the number of respondents chosen out of the entire sampling frame calculated from the targeted population (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The sample size chosen for this study was 5 heads, each from a sampled second cycle school in Kumasi metropolis and 100 teaching staff, 19 from Islamic SHS, 12 from Uthmaniya SHS, 21 from Anglican SHS, 23 from Prempeh and 25 from Opoku Ware SHS. The total response received totalled 88(88%). Proportional sampling technique was used to select sample from each of the five second cycle schools mentioned above.

Table 3.1: Population and sample size distribution

| School | Population of teachers | Sample | Response received | Response rate (%) |
|-----------------|-------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Islamic SHS | 55 | 19 | 17 | 89 |
| Uthmaniya SHS | 35 | 12 | 12 | 100 |
| Anglican SHS | 60 | 21 | 18 | 86 |
| Prempeh College | 65 | 23 | 19 | 83 |
| Opoku Ware SHS | 70 | 25 | 22 | 88 |
| Total | 285 | 100 | 88 | 88 |

Source: Field survey, (2018)

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

Sampling technique is defined as the method used by the researcher in choosing the members of a sample from a larger population (Saunders et al., 2009) and where sampling frame could not be obtained, non-probability sampling technique could be used. Non-probability sampling technique is where the samples are gathered in a process that does not give all the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected (Saunders et al., 2009).

This study made use of both proportional sampling and non-probability sampling to gather response. The use of purposive sampling was warranted by the fact that the study was targeting only second cycle institution and so only teachers of second cycle institution were considered. The use of convenience sampling was also warranted by the fact not all teachers of second cycle schools were interested in the study and were not therefore prepared to provide response. The researcher therefore gave the questionnaires to those who were interested to provide response.

3.6 Data Collection

Data collection involved the sources from which data was collected and the data collection instruments used.

3.6.1 Sources of Data

The researcher collected data from primary and secondary sources.

3.6.1.1 Primary Data

Primary data is the data that are collected purposely for the research being undertaken (Saunders et al., 2012). In line with the definition above, primary data used in the collection of relevant information was through the questionnaire and the interview. The research questions were answered by the use of questionnaire on five-point (Likert) scale. Semi-structured interview was also set to gather maximum information from the heads of second cycle schools.

3.6.1.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data are materials or information gathered by authorised and reliable bodies for the use of public and private individuals (Saunders et al., 2012). The secondary data was collected from staff register books and time books.

3.7 Data Collection Instrument

Data collection instrument is the technique employed to collect information from necessary individuals and institutions. The study used both questionnaires and interviews.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

A well designed questionnaire was used as research instrument. Since the design was explanatory, field survey was therefore used to collect data. Consequently, questionnaire on five-point (Likert) scale were developed. The questionnaire was pilot

tested using 9 teachers of Ibadul Rahman SHS, Sakafia and Kumasi Academy who were not part of the used sample. The purpose of the pretesting was to find out the appropriateness and usefulness of the designed questionnaire and also to check the understanding of the questions by the respondents. The pilot study revealed that the questionnaire had been very clear devoid of any ambiguity.

The finalized questionnaire was administered to the teaching staff of the selected second cycle schools personally. The researcher accomplished this by administering the constructed questionnaires and the respondents took the questionnaire home and brought the response after one week. Contact addresses of the selected respondents were taken to ensure timely submission of filled questionnaires.

3.7.1.1 Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire was in four parts. The first section dealt with the profile or background of the respondents while the second section provided questions that dealt with the leadership styles of the heads of the selected second cycle schools. The third section concentrated on the impact of the leadership styles of heads of the second cycle schools on staff motivation while the last section dealt with questions relating to management-teacher relations that motivated the teacher to perform. The questionnaire was developed on a five-point (Likert) scale and the subjects were asked to use the five-point Likert response format which was anchored with 1= “Strongly Disagree”, 2= “Disagree”, 3 = “Agree and 4 = “Strongly Agree”.

3.7.1.2 Interviews

Interview involves having a formalized and semi-structured interview on participants to solicit response for research questions raised (Saunders et al., 2012). The researcher adopted a face--to- face approach of interview the 5 heads of the selected second cycle schools. A semi-structured interview was conducted with these heads of the selected schools to provide relevant information on the leadership styles of the heads and its implicit effect on staff motivation. Detailed interview guide (as shown in Appendix 1) consisting of a list of questions was used.

3.8 Data Analysis Technique

Quantitative data analysis was done by the use of Stata14 and quantified in terms of the descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution and percentages. The frequency and percentages were used to indicate the proportion of respondents for various responses. This was carried out for each of the items relating to the research questions. The proportions demonstrated the diverse views of the respondents. The use of tables was to facilitate easy understanding of the analyses. Thematic analysis was used for the interviews. This implied that the interviews were analyzed qualitatively by transcribing the written and recorded conversations with the heads of the selected second cycle schools into theme and sub-theme.

3.9 Reliability and Validity

According to Saunders et al. (2012), reliability is the extent to which data collection techniques would reveal consistent outcome irrespective of the time frame or place that similar research would be conducted whilst validity is the extent to which data collection methods precisely measure what they were intended to measure or the extent to which research findings exactly measure what it seeks to measure or achieve. The researcher understood the data required for the study and therefore designed questions that would produce anticipated results. Precise and unambiguous words were used to ensure easy understanding for respondents. Respondents were able to understand the questions the way the researcher expected and this assisted the researcher to be able to decode the responses of respondents as they intended.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Ethics refers to the set of principles of right and wrong behaviour among a group of people. According to Donald Ary et al. (2002), ethics are the socially expected behaviours and attitude that are expected of individuals in a given society or organization. To get access to the second cycle schools whose staffs were used for the study, the researcher needed to use both existing contacts such as co-workers and friends, as the researcher is a teacher by profession. Notwithstanding the researcher's relationship with some of the teaching staff, the consents of heads were sought before the questionnaires were administered. The verbal request was complemented by introductory letters to underline the importance of the mission at hand. Arguably, teacher's high response rate was due to the involvement of heads of the institutions.

Despite the long standing relationship between the researcher and the teaching staffs and heads of the second cycle schools, the researcher promised to treat all provided information as confidential. The researcher therefore concealed both the name and views of individual respondent.

3.11 Profile of the Study Area

This research was conducted in the Kumasi Metropolis which is the regional capital of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. It has a complete urban settlement with a population of more than two million people as claimed by Ghana Statistical Service. The Ashanti Region which has a total land surface area of 24,889 km square is the third largest region in Ghana next to Brong Ahafo Region. It has been divided into 27 administrative districts and its capital is Kumasi, situated in the Kumasi Metropolis. According to the Ghana Statistical Service, the region is the most populous in Ghana with an approximate population of 4.8million people. Below is a district map of the Ashanti Region (Figure3.1) with all its 27 districts.



Figure 3.1: Map of Ashanti Region and the Kumasi Metropolis

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2017)

3.12 Conclusion

The study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches to accomplish the research. This was done through the use of both questionnaire and structured interview and therefore, non-probability sampling techniques-convenient and purposive sampling techniques - were used. The data was analysed through the use of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (Stata14) for the quantitative data and thematic analysis for the qualitative data. Ethical means were used to gain access into the second cycle schools used which are located in the Ashanti region. The next chapter discusses the findings on the headteacher's management styles and staff motivation in the second cycle schools in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the respondents and further discusses the main findings of the study. The chapter begins with the background of the respondents and followed by the leadership style adopted by heads of the second cycle institutions in Ghana. The chapter again presents the findings as to whether the leadership style of heads motivates teachers to perform. The chapter concludes by looking at the presence and relative importance of Management By Objective (MBO) and Management By Wandering Around (MBWA) as far as teacher motivation is concerned.

Table 4.1(a): Background of Respondents (Teaching Staff)

| | Gender | Age | Educational level | Marital status | Number of years in service |
|------------------------|--------|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| Male | 50 | | | | |
| Female | 38 | | | | |
| 25yrs | | 10 | | | |
| 26-30yrs | | 35 | | | |
| 31-40yrs | | 10 | | | |
| 41-50yrs | | 18 | | | |
| 51 + yrs | | 15 | | | |
| 1 st Degree | | | 45 | | |
| Masters | | | 43 | | |
| PhD | | | 0 | | |
| Married | | | | 38 | |
| Single | | | | 25 | |
| Divorced | | | | 20 | |
| Widow(er) | | | | 5 | |
| 0-1 | | | | | 5 |
| 2-4 | | | | | 7 |
| 5-7 | | | | | 36 |
| 8-10 | | | | | 12 |
| 11 & above | | | | | 28 |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.1(b): Background of Respondents (Heads of the Five Second Cycle Institutions)

| | Gender | Age | Educational level | Marital status | Number of years in service |
|------------------------|--------|-----|-------------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| Male | 5 | | | | |
| Female | 0 | | | | |
| 25yrs | | | | | |
| 26-30yrs | | | | | |
| 31-40yrs | | | | | |
| 41-50yrs | | 2 | | | |
| 51 + yrs | | 3 | | | |
| 1 st Degree | | | 0 | | |
| Masters | | | 5 | | |
| PhD | | | 0 | | |
| Married | | | | 5 | |
| Single | | | | 0 | |
| Divorced | | | | 0 | |
| Widow(er) | | | | 0 | |
| 0-1 | | | | | 0 |
| 2-4 | | | | | 0 |
| 5-7 | | | | | 0 |
| 8-10 | | | | | 0 |
| 11 & above | | | | | 5 |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Of the respondents in table 4.1(a), fifty (50) were males while females are thirty-eight (38). This is a clear indication that though there has been great increase in the number of females in the teaching profession, their male counterparts were more than them. Majority (35) of the respondents were within the age bracket of 26-30 years and followed by those in the age bracket of 41-50 years (18), suggesting that more experienced teaching staff were engaged in providing response.

Again, forty-five (45) of the respondents had first degree while the remaining forty-three (43) had master's degree. This again suggests that many teachers in the second cycle institutions had either first degree or second three. Diplomates are no more allowed to teach at the second cycle institutions.

It is revealed that majority (38) of the respondents were married while only twenty-five (25) were unmarried. While 20 were divorcees, 5 were widow(er). Furthermore, while majority (36) of the respondents spent 5-7 years in the service, twenty-eight (28) of them spent between 11 or more years in the service.

4.2 Leadership Style of Heads of Second Cycle Institutions in Ghana

This section seeks to investigate the type of leadership style or skills exhibited by heads of senior High Schools in Ghana, using Kumasi Metropolis as case study.

Table 4.2: Leadership Style of Heads of Second Cycle Institutions in Ghana

| SN | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|---|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1 | My headmaster regularly consults the teaching staff before taking decision | 5 (6) | 52 (59) | 13 (15) | 18 (20) | 88 (100) |
| 2 | My headmaster imposes his opinions and views on the teaching staff | 38 (43) | 20 (23) | 20 (23) | 10 (11) | 88 (100) |
| 3 | My headmaster does not bother much whether a staff member performs his/her assigned duties or not | 10 (11) | 13 (15) | 60 (68) | 11 (6) | 88 (100) |
| 4 | My headmaster always shows concern to the welfare of his staff and takes concrete measures to resolve differences among his staff in an amicable manner | 11 (13) | 19 (22) | 9 (10) | 49 (56) | 88 (100) |
| 5 | My headmaster is quite assertive and inspiring | 19 (15) | 50 (57) | 6 (7) | 13 (22) | 88 (100) |
| 6 | My headmaster insists on performance and duly | 15 | 20 | 15 | 38 | 88 |

| SN | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|--|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| | rewards performing staff and sanctions non-performing staff | (17) | (17) | (23) | (43) | (100) |
| 7 | My headmaster regularly sets objectives together with staff | 15 (17) | 11 (13) | 31 (35) | 31 (35) | 88 (100) |
| 8 | My headmaster regularly moves around or about and interacts with staff in the course of discharging their duties | 20 (23) | 2 (2) | 11 (2) | 55 (63) | 88 (100) |
| 9 | My headmaster is friendly and considerate at one time and harsh and coercive at another time | 5 (17) | 14 (16) | 54 (61) | 15 (6) | 88 (100) |
| 10 | My headmaster regularly motivates staff through his personal actions and demonstrations | 1 (1) | 34 (34) | 30 (39) | 23 (26) | 88 (100) |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

It could be seen from Table 4.2 above that 52 (59%) of the 88 respondents agreed that their heads regularly consult them before taking decisions while 18 (20) strongly agreed that their heads regularly consult them before taking decisions. This brought the total number of teachers who agreed that their heads pay them regular visits to 70(79), thus constituting the majority. This seems to suggest that majority of heads of second cycle institutions were democratic in their style. By nature, democratic leaders give voice in decision making to subordinates and this furnish them with fresh ideas about the operations of their organisations (Goleman, 2000 and Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014).

Again it is evident from Table 4.2, 38 (43%) of the total respondents 88 (100) strongly disagreed that their heads imposed decisions on them and 20 (23%) simply disagreed. This means, 58 (66%) of them did not think that their heads lead by authoritarian approach, which is the exact opposite of democratic style. Rautiola (2009) and Neely (2017) concur that the authoritarian leader takes decisions alone without

involving subordinates. He believes in setting clear-cut targets for followers to implement without question. And his style is akin to the transactional leader (Rautiola, 2009). Thus, majority of heads of second cycle schools are not authoritarian in their approach.

The result of field work as seen from Table 4.3 indicates clearly that 60 (68%) and 10 (11) of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that their heads fail to monitor or instruct teachers to perform their duties as expected of them. Thus, it is conclusive that most heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis were not the laissez-faire type. The laissez-faire leader is said to provide subordinates the space to initiate and implement their own decisions on the basis of the assumption that they are capable enough to carry out their official duties on their own (Raza, 2015; Jones, 2008).

It was evident from Table 4.3 that 49 (56%) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads showed concern for the welfare of their staff while 19 (22%) just agreed. Overwhelming majority (76%) agreed to the fact that their heads showed concern for staff welfare. It could be concluded that heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis are generally affiliative. The affiliative leadership depicts the mantra “People come first” (Goleman, 2000) as such leaders have deep concern for the welfare of their subordinates (Almansour (2012, Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Neely, 2017). The affiliative style is said to be in line with the team building approach (Almansour, 2012) whereby the needs of subordinates are looked at on personal basis so that the spirit of teamwork is promoted among workers.

Again, majority of the respondents (57%) agreed that their heads are quite assertive in designing and implementing decisions and also inspire them (the

subordinates) to work for the achievement of organizational goals. However, 22% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their heads are assertive and inspiring.

Also, 38 (43%) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads insist on performance and duly rewards good performance while only 20 (23%) just agreed to this assertion. In all, 58 (66%) majority indicated clearly that most of the heads of the second cycle schools are transactional in approach. The transactional leader sets clear-cut goals, rewards for good performance and punishes for poor performance (Raza, 2015).

It is clear from Table 4.2 that, 31 (35%) strongly agreed and 31 (35%) of them also agreed that their heads involved them in setting school objectives. In all, 62 (70%) of the respondents opined that the heads of the second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis involve their staff in setting school objectives. Leadership characterizes by collective decision making is modeled along collegiality (Bush, 2016; Singh, 2005) or democratic approach (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Raza, 2015). By collegiality, organizations determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus (Bush, 2016). Sykes (2015) highlights that in this model, the head of the organization assumes the role of overlord and mediator between managers of various departments. Each manager is heavily involved in bargaining and negotiating in order to ensure effective decision-making. Also, the leader being democratic solicits input and builds consensus by encouraging followers to participate in decision making. Such leaders hold final responsibility, but he or she is known to delegate authority to other people, who determine work projects (Raza, 2015).

As seen from table 4.2, majority of the respondents (61%) agreed and 17% strongly agreed that their heads are friendly and considerate where needs be but harsh and

coercive where necessary. It is therefore evident from this assertion by the majority that most heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis employ situational leadership strategy in administering their schools. The situational leader is one who takes into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand (Almansour, 2012; Olum, 2014). Bush (2016) explains that the contingent model takes into account the diverse nature of school context and provides an alternative approach that adapts leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a one for all approach.

It was also evident from Table 4.2 that 39% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their heads motivate them through their personal actions and demonstrations while 26% just disagreed that their heads motivate them through their personal actions and demonstrations. In all, 65% of the respondents are of the view that their heads are not pacesetters and therefore demotivate many teachers. This supports the work of Goleman (2000) that the pacesetter is a leader who sets high performance standards and exemplifies them himself and he is also a role model to his subordinate (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Lai et al., 2014).

In conclusion, majority of the respondents agreed to the fact that heads of second cycle institutions are democratic, inspiring, transactional, caring and also involve teachers in setting objectives and at the same time use situational leadership style. Majority of the respondent agreed also that the heads are not laissez-faire type and were not also pacesetters for many to emulate.

4.3 Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

This section investigates the relationship between headmasters' leadership style and teacher motivation to perform.

Table 4.3: Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

| SN | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|--|-------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1 | My headmaster regularly consults the teaching staff before taking decision and this motivates me to perform | 12 (14) | 12 (14) | 13 (15) | 51 (58) | 88 (100) |
| 2 | My headmaster imposes his opinions and views on the teaching staff and this demotivates me to perform | 20 (23) | 10 (11) | 38 (43) | 20 (23) | 88 (100) |
| 3 | My headmaster does not bother much whether a staff member performs his/her assigned duties or not and this motivates me to perform | 12 (14) | 10 (11) | 48 (55) | 20 (23) | 88 (100) |
| 4 | My headmaster always shows concern to the welfare of his staff and takes concrete measures to resolve differences among his staff in an amicable manner and this motivates me to perform | 12 (14s) | 23 (26) | 18 (20) | 55 (40) | 88 (100) |
| 5 | My headmaster is quite assertive and inspiring and this motivates me to perform | 31 (35) | 20 (23) | 19 (22) | 15 (17) | 88 (100) |
| 6 | My headmaster insists on performance and duly rewards performing staff and sanctions non-performing staff and this motivates me to perform | 42 (48) | 24 (27) | 12 (14) | 10 (11) | 88 (100) |
| 7 | My headmaster regularly sets objectives together with the Staff and this motivates me to perform | 13 (15) | 34 (39) | 21 (24) | 22 (25) | 88 (100) |
| 8 | My headmaster occasionally moves around or about and interacts with staff in the course of discharging their duties and this motivates me to perform | 20 (23) | 11 (9) | 2 (2) | 55 (63) | 88 (100) |
| 9 | My headmaster is friendly and considerate at one time and harsh and coercive at another time and this motivates me to perform | 32 (36) | 28 (32) | 25 (28) | 3 (3) | 88 (100) |
| 10 | My headmaster regularly motivates staff through his personal actions and demonstrations and this motivates me to perform | 18 (20) | 23 (27) | 11 (27) | 36 (41) | 88 (100) |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

It could be seen from Table 4.3 that 51(58%) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads consult them before taking decisions while 12 (14%) just agreed. In all, 63 (72%) of the respondents were in favour of heads consulting their teachers before taking decisions and this suggests that majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis motivated their staff to work through their democratic leadership style. This supports (Goleman, 2000) that a democratic leader gives workers a sense of self-worth by allowing them to make their input in decision making.

Furthermore, it is evident from Table 4.3 that, majority of the respondents (43%) strongly disagreed that their heads impose decisions on them while only 23% just disagree to this assertion. In all, 65% of the respondents disagreed that their heads impose decisions on them. This finding suggests that most heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis motivated their staff to work through their collegial leadership which is based on group decision taking not imposition. The study of Bush (2016) asserts that one way to motivate subordinates is by seeking their opinion in any given situation.

It is again evident from Table 4.3 that, majority of the respondents (55%) strongly disagreed that their heads did not monitor performance and that monitoring motivate them to work. Of the respondents 23% also disagreed that their heads do not monitor performance. In all 78% agreed that their heads monitored their performance and that motivated them to perform satisfactorily. This implies that the laissez-faire approach is not a common leadership style by heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis. It is also evident from the finding that the laissez-faire style demotivates worker performance. This confirms the claim of Jones (2008) that the laissez-faire leader does not provide direction or guidance and this demotivates worker performance.

Moreover, it can be observed from Table 4.3 that while 40% Of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads show concern about their welfare, 26% just agreed to this assertion. In other words 66% agreed that their heads show so much concern to their welfare. It could be argued therefore that the decision of the heads to involve staff in decision making is just aimed at getting the work done. This means that even though the heads were democratic in approach, majority of their style are characterized by transactional approach on the basis of setting targets to be achieved. This supports the work of Almansour (2012) that there are leaders whose main focus and concern is to get targets achieved and such leaders hardly take excuses. This explains why workers are demotivated by this style.

It is again clear from Table 4.3 that, 35% and 23% respectively of the respondents strongly agreed and just agreed that their heads were assertive and inspiring and that motivated them to perform. Since this majority (58%) held this view, it was factual that heads of second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis motivated their staff to perform through their transactional leadership approach as the style is characterized by leader-follower exchanges necessary for achieving routine performance agreed upon by the leader and his subordinates. This supports the study by Almansour (2012) that a transactional leader will provide all incentive necessary to accomplish the set target and will not relent in its effort to exact sanction for failure to comply or achieve set targets.

It was evident from the Table 4.3 that majority of the respondents (48%) strongly agreed that their heads duly rewarded them for good performance and punished them for poor performance while only 27% just agreed that they are sufficiently rewarded for good performance and sanctioned for poor performance. This finding provides evidence in

support of the claim that the transactional leadership style motivates hard working staff while indolent staff feel highly demotivated (Raza, 2015).

Majority of the respondents (39%) from Table 4.3 agreed that their heads involved them in setting targets for the schools while 15% strongly agreed that their leaders involve them in the setting of targets for their schools. It therefore revealed that majority of the respondents (54%) opined that heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis involved their staff in making decisions through their collegial style and that motivates them to work. This supports the work of Bush (2016) that involving staff in decision making would motivate them to work hard towards successful implementation of that decision since they are duly motivated.

Majority of the respondents (36%) strongly agreed that their heads are friendly and considerate while only 32% of them just agreed. In all, 68% agreed that their heads are friendly and considerate on one time but coercive and unyielding at another time and this strongly motivates teachers to perform. Thus, the contingent style characterized by considering all aspects of the current situation before acting accordingly highly motivates staff performance (Almansour, 2012).

From table 4.3, majority of the respondents (68%) disagreed that their heads regularly motivate them through their personal actions and demonstrations and this demotivates teachers. On the basis of majority claim that they are motivated by their heads' regular demonstrations of actions, the researcher argues that pacesetter leadership style, which is depicted by exemplary leadership (Goleman, 2000, Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014; Lai et al., 2014), motivates staff to perform.

In conclusion, majority of the respondents agree that the democratic style of leadership shown by their heads motivates them. Majority of the respondents again agree that their heads consult them before taking key decision and also involve them in setting targets and objectives and these motivates teachers to perform. The respondents also agree that their heads monitor their activities and performance and this quite motivate teachers to perform better. It is also agreed by the majority respondents that their heads are assertive and inspiring and grossly use the contingent or situational and transactional leadership styles and these motivate the teachers to do better. On the other hand, majority of the respondents agree that their heads do not show much concern to their welfare and are not also pace setters and these quite demotivate them.

4.4 Management by Objective (MBO) and Teacher Motivation to Perform

This section seeks to assess how involving teaching staff in the setting of objectives motivate them to perform satisfactorily.

Table 4.4: Management by Objective (MBO) and Teacher Motivation to Perform

| SN | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|---|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1 | My headmaster brings specific goals and measures for discussion during staff meetings and this motivates me to give off my best | 9 (10) | 25 (28) | 36 (41) | 18 (20) | 88 (100) |
| 2 | I become highly motivated if I accomplish my duties | 2 (2) | 6 (7) | 32 (36) | 48 (55) | 88 (100) |
| 3 | My head rewards for the accomplishment of goals and this serves as a motivation for me | 22 (25) | 31 (15) | 13 (35) | 22 (25) | 88 (100) |
| 4 | I have been involved in establishing disciplinary policies and so I am motivated to perform and do the right things | 15 (17) | 22 (33) | 29 (25) | 22 (25) | 88 (100) |
| 5 | I have been involved in planning structural facilities for the school and this is an incentive to work hard. | 6 (7) | 21 (24) | 18 (20) | 43 (49) | 88 (100) |
| 6 | I have been involved in planning new projects for the school and so I give off my best | 10 (11) | 9 (10) | 42 (48) | 27 (31) | 88 (100) |
| 7 | I have been involved in resolving staff disputes and this encourages me to give off my best | 15 (17) | 25 (11) | 10 (28) | 38 (43) | 88 (100) |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

It was evident from Table 4.4 that majority of the respondents (61%) agreed that their heads place topical issues for discussion during staff meeting and that motivates them to work. This finding is in line with the claim of the proponents of management by objective that it motivates staff performance (Druker, 1945 cited in Brown and Owusu, 2014).

From Table 4.4, 48(55%) of the respondents strongly agreed that they have a sense of accomplishment when they are able to execute their duties diligently while 32(36) of them agreed that they are highly motivated when they are able to accomplish their assigned duties. It could thus be concluded that majority of the respondents 80 (91%) were satisfied with their involvement in setting and pursuing objectives with their heads. Therefore, when subordinates are involved in the setting of organizational objectives, they are motivated to work towards achieving it as proclaimed by management by objective (Almansour, 2012).

It could be gathered from Table 4.4 that 25% of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads reward them for accomplishing assignments while 31(35) of them just agreed that they are they are rewarded for good performance. Thus, majority (60%) agreed that they are rewarded for accomplishing goals. This confirms the assertion of management by objective that when workers are duly rewarded for their accomplishment they are highly motivated to work Brown and Owusu (2014).

From Table 4.4, 29(33%) of the respondents disagreed that their heads involve them in establishing disciplinary policies while 22(25) of them strongly disagreed that their heads involve them in establishing disciplinary policies. Thus, majority (58%) of the respondents disagreed that they are involve in establishing school policies. It could be

concluded on the basis of this finding that majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis did not practice management by objective as they fail to involve their teachers in establishing disciplinary policies. Almansour (2012) concurs that when subordinates are not part of a decision, it makes it difficult for authorities to achieve their stated aims since those who will be used in implementing the decision are left out of the process.

Furthermore, it could be observed from Table 4.4 that 20% of the respondents disagreed that their heads involve them in planning structural facilities for the school while 43(49) of them strongly disagreed that their heads involve them in planning structural facilities for the school. Thus, majority 61(69%) of the respondents disagreed that they are involved in planning structural facilities for their schools. This finding suggests that majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis do not practise management by objective as they fail to involve their teachers planning structural facilities for their schools. According to Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) that when subordinates are not consulted in taking many sensitive decisions, there is every likelihood that the implementation of the decision will duly fail.

From table 4.4, 42(48) of the respondents disagreed that their heads involve them in planning new projects for their school while 27(31) of them strongly disagreed that their heads involve them in planning projects for their school. Thus, majority 69(79) of the respondents disagreed that they are involved in planning new projects for their school. This finding suggests that majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis do not practice management by objective as they fail to involve their teachers in planning new projects for their schools.

From table 4.4, 38(43) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads involve them in resolving staff disputes in their school while 25(28) of them agreed that their heads involve them in solving staff disputes in their school. Thus, majority 63(71) of the respondents agreed that they are involved in solving staff disputes in their school. On the grounds of this finding, majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis partially practice management by objective as they involve their teachers in planning and solving staff problems in their schools. This is supported by Almansour (2012) that successful leaders are those who involve their subordinates in many critical decisions in the organization.

In conclusion, MBO is seen to have the potency to motivate teaching staff to perform their duties satisfactorily. This is because teachers are involved in decision making at various levels and this motivates them to offer their best. Also, because teachers are involved in decision making they responsibly become part of the team to implement the decision. Again, in view of the fact that teachers are involved the setting of targets and objectives, relevant and achievable targets are set and this duly motivate teachers to perform. Furthermore, in view of the fact that teachers are offered various forms of rewards, they are motivated to work hard so that their efforts would be appreciated, acknowledged and duly rewarded. However, the study reveals that teachers are not involved in establishing disciplinary policies. Perhaps this is due to the fact that GES rules and regulations come from above, far beyond the powers of the school head. Again, the study reveals that teachers are not consulted on issues regarding provision of school projects or infrastructure and this grossly demotivates the team staff. It can be argued that since PTA is part of any project in every school, the representatives of

teachers are duly informed and they have to relay such vital information to their colleagues (the teachers).

4.5 Management by Wandering/ Walking around (MBWA) and Teacher

Motivation to Perform

This section seeks to assess the effect of management going about to observe teacher activities.

Table 4.5: Management by Wandering/ Walking around (MBWA) and Teacher

Motivation to Perform

| SN | Statement | SD | D | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|--|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1 | My head frequently visits my class | 13 (15) | 15 (17) | 24 (27) | 36 (41) | 88 (100) |
| 2 | I feel intimidated when I see my head around my class | 12 (14) | 16 (18) | 40 (45) | 20 (23) | 88 (100) |
| 3 | I feel relaxed when my head comes to my class to visit me | 25 (28) | 45 (51) | 10 (11) | 8 (9) | 88 (100) |
| 4 | I am able to share problems with my head more when he/she comes to visit me in my class | 18 (20) | 18 (20) | 24 (27) | 28 (32) | 88 (100) |
| 5 | My head is often curious to know how some topics are taught when he/she visits my class. | 30 (34) | 22 (25) | 21 (24) | 15 (17) | 88 (100) |
| 6 | My head often uses informal visits to discuss formal issues with me | 13 (15) | 9 (10) | 36 (41) | 30 (34) | 88 (100) |
| 7 | I am able to share personal issues during informal discussions with my head | 48 (55) | 13 (15) | 16 (18) | 11 (13) | 88 (100) |
| 8 | My head's informal visits approach reduces the cumbersome bureaucratic procedures | 10 (11) | 9 (10) | 51 (58) | 18 (20) | 88 (100) |

Source: Field Survey, 2018

From table 4.5, 36(41%) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads frequently visit their class while 24(27%) of them disagreed that their heads frequently visit their class. As majority 60(68%) of the respondents disagree that their heads frequently visits their class, it could be asserted that many of the heads of second cycle

schools in the Kumasi metropolis do not motivate their staff to work by not applying overly management by wandering about as described by Brown and Owusu (2014).

It could be observed from Table 4.5 that while 45% of the respondents disagreed that they feel intimidated when their heads visit their class, 23% of them strongly disagreed that they feel intimidated when their heads visit their class. This means, majority (68%) of the respondents disagree that they feel intimidated when their heads visits their class. it could be asserted on this grounds that many of the heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis display some semblance of management by wandering about by making their teachers feel at home in their presence. Almansour (2012) asserts that management by wandering about is an effective tool of reinforcement once subordinates believe that the leader could be on them at any given time or moment.

It could be discerned from Table 4.5 that 25(28%) of the respondents strongly agreed that they feel relaxed when their heads visit them while 45(51) of them agreed that they feel relaxed when their heads visit them in class. As majority 70(79) of the respondents agreed that they feel relaxed when their heads pay them a visit, it could be concluded on that grounds that majority of heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis practice management by wandering around as they make their teachers fell secured in their presence. According to Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) that when subordinates are educated on the purpose of the leader visiting subordinates on the field, the subordinates would feel at home seeing their leader when they are performing their tasks or assignment, for the visit would reassure that that their leader would be prepared to over technical supports and that the leader is not on a fault finding mission.

It could be deduced from Table 4.5 that 22(25%) of the respondents strongly agreed they are able to share problems with their heads when they pay them visit while 28(32) of them agreed that they are able to share problems with their heads when they pay them visit. Against this majority 50(57%) claim, it could be concluded that many heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis use management by wandering around to make their teachers feel at home to discuss their problems with them when they visit them in their classes. The work of Brown and Owusu (2014) asserts that the subordinates are expected to let their leader know the problems they face in carrying out of their duties and that would make the leader to bring his or her rich experience to bear.

From Table 4.5, 30(34) of the respondents strongly agreed that their heads are curious to know how they handle some topics in class when they pay them visit while 22(25) of them agreed that their heads are curious to know how they handle some topics in class when they pay them visit. Against this majority 50(57%) claim, it could be argued that many heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis use the ethics of management by wandering around to motivate their teachers to perform. The study by Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) reveals that subordinates would be delighted to see their heads at their offices or places of work when they believe that the leader is competent and has all it takes to improve their performance. That is, a leader is expected to know better than his or her subordinates so that the subordinates would count on his or her rich experience.

From Table 4.5, 36(41) of the respondents disagreed that their heads often use informal visits to discuss formal issues with them whereas 30(34) of them strongly disagreed that they feel intimidated when their heads visit their class. This means, majority

60(68) of the respondents disagreed that their heads often use informal visits to discuss formal issues with them. It could thus, be asserted on this grounds that many of the heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis properly implement the ethics of management by wandering about by restricting their formal discussions with their teachers to formal setting (Brown & Owusu, 2014).

It could be gathered from Table 4.5 that, 48(55%) of the respondents strongly agreed that they were able to discuss personal issues with their heads during informal discussions while 13(15) of them agreed that they were able to discuss personal issues with their heads during informal discussions. In line with this, majority (70%) claim that heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis use the ethics of management by wandering around to motivate their teachers to perform because their staffs are free to interact with them. The study by Almansour (2012) asserts that management by wandering about yields better results than most formal ways of monitoring performance.

From Table 4.5, 51(58%) of the respondents strongly agreed that their head's informal visits approach reduces the cumbersome bureaucratic procedures while 18(20%) of them agreed that their head's informal visits approach reduces the cumbersome bureaucratic procedures. In line with this majority (70%) claim that many heads of second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis use the ethics of management by wandering around to motivate their teachers to perform by creating an atmosphere of free interactions for their staff to feel free to discuss their problems with them.

In conclusion, the study reveals that management by wandering around has not been overly applied, making it less effective. However, teachers are not intimidated when they are visited by their head while teaching. This is because they understand the purpose

of such visit and they also prepare adequately before entering class. Also, the study further reveals that teachers feel relaxed when they are visited by their heads. Once they understand the purpose of such visits, they would welcome to since it is not meant for fault finding.

4.6 Interviews on the Five Heads of the Selected Schools

This section presents the various interviews conducted on five heads of second cycle institutions on the types of leadership style they use and the relevance of the style to motivating teachers and improving students' performance.

4.6.1 Leadership Style of Heads of Second Cycle Institutions in Ghana

Of the five heads selected for interview, three of them asserted that they regularly consulted their staff before embarking on major actions in the school while two of them however admitted that they occasionally consulted their teaching staff before taking decision. In all, all the interviewed heads maintain that they consult their teaching staff before taking decision. Per this assertion, it is believed that democratic leadership style was pursued by all the heads.

Again, three of the interviewed heads admitted that on sensitive issues that they believed that they were on the right path, they made sufficient effort to convince key staff such as the heads of departments and leaders of various committees to toe the line of administration. But generally, they allowed majority opinions to prevail. However, the remaining two heads admitted that on sensitive issues, they would take decision before informing the staff on the reasons why they took those action. This suggests that the majority of the heads use democratic leadership style in their institutions.

Furthermore, while one of the heads opined that he appeared very considerate all the time, the remaining four however maintained that they appeared friendly and considered at one time and could also be harsh at another time, all depending on the situations. This suggests that majority of the interviewed heads used situational theory in dealing with their staff.

Moreover, all the five interviewed heads claimed that it would be wrong to insist that teachers follow should follow certain rules and regulation that the head himself fail to abide by. One of the heads added that "... organizational failure comes about due to the fact that heads preach what they themselves do not practice", while two of the heads maintained that every head must be a role model, and leadership by example is the hallmark of every successful organization. This means that the heads believe in leadership by example and every leader must be a pace setter.

All the five heads admitted that they would not be happy where a teacher or group of teachers fail to live up to expectation. The five heads however mentioned that they would have to investigate the cause of the non-performance or poor performance before taking action or applying appropriate sanction to the under-performing teacher. We reward hardworking and dedicated teachers while we sanction underperforming teachers. Four of the heads however added that "...we would not be out on a fault-finding exercise but we would be prepared to recognize high-performing teachers while we would not also hesitate to provide appropriate sanction to under-performing teachers". This further suggests that majority of the heads apply transactional leadership style.

4.6.2 Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation in Second Cycle

Institutions

All the five heads were of the opinion that teachers got highly motivated when they were part of decision making in the school. Three of the heads added that “it pays off to involve teachers in decision making since that would make them feel that they are part of the decision-making body and it behooves on them to see to its successful implementation”.

Again, on the issue of whether teachers are duly motivated to work when sanction and coercion were being applied on them, four of the heads maintained that since people by nature are different one particular leadership style could not be applied across board and all the time. Three of the teachers added that “we echoed the use of sanctions on certain group of teachers when we noticed that coercion was the language they understood best while to some teachers, words of encouragement and praises could do the work”. That means that frequent and indiscriminate use of sanction and coercion would not pay much dividend. Once again, this assertion made by the heads confirmed that majority of them resorted to situational or contingent leadership style in their institutions in motivating staff.

It was again revealed that majority of the heads maintained that they used welfare package to motivate their staff. While one of the heads touched on the social aspects of welfare such as showing empathy to the bereaved, support during illness, marriage and outdoorings occasions, the remaining four heads added some economic aspects of the welfare. To this, they mentioned that periodic contribution was necessary to enable teachers get quick and soft loans to meet their urgent needs. One of the heads also added

that, he impressed on the PTA to always come to the aid of any needy teacher and bungalows were financed by the PTA to be occupied to serving teachers. All these went a long way to motivate teachers to be up and doing.

On the issue of leadership by example, all the five heads unanimously agreed that when the heads disciplined themselves and always did the right and expected actions, their subordinates would follow suit. So, teachers would become motivated to perform when their leaders set the pace.

4.6.3 Management by Objective and Teacher Motivation

It was asserted by all the five heads that teachers got motivated when objectives were made known to them and they were part of the decision making. One of the heads however added that the objectives set must be achievable and realistic enough to motivate a teacher. This means that where unrealistic objectives are set a teacher rather becomes demotivated. Two of the heads further added that, though a teacher could be part of objective setting, he needed to be provided with sufficient and appropriate resources and tools for him to be highly motivated to perform.

On the issue of how often staff are involved in setting objectives, three of the heads admitted that they usually involved teachers in setting objectives that related to academic work and seldom involved them in purely administrative issues, while the other two heads claimed that they more often than not involved teachers in setting academic objectives as well as objectives relating to non-technical issues.

Once teachers became part and parcel of objective setting, they became duty-bound to see to the successful implementation of those objectives. One head had this to say, "when I involved my teachers in setting academic objectives, they felt high sense of

ownership and belonging and this made them work tirelessly towards achieving the set goals and objectives”.

4.6.4 Management By Wandering / Walking Around

While one the heads admitted that he rarely visited teachers during their lesson delivery, the remaining heads claimed that they occasionally paid unannounced visit during lesson delivery. The surprise visit almost always put teachers on their toes, and hence became highly motivated to prepare adequately before entering classrooms. Two of the heads added that, surprise visit to classrooms by heads reduce teacher absenteeism. Three of the heads mentioned that most of the teachers felt good and emotionally balanced when they saw their heads seated in their classrooms to observe their lesson presentation. Two of the heads however said that, while most of the teachers were well-composed when they noticed the presence of their heads in the classrooms, some were actually nervous and would then be carried over by the head’s presence in their classrooms.

Furthermore, all the heads agreed that the movement of heads from class to class did indeed motivate teachers grossly. Three of the heads had this to say “when teachers got to know that the head could pay surprise visit to their classrooms, they would always prepare sufficiently before going to class and this serves a good motivation. One of the heads added that any suggestion offered by the head was keenly taken and used in future exercise and this demonstrated that teachers got motivated by their heads presence in their classroom.

In conclusion, majority of the heads admitted that they used more often than not leadership styles including democratic, transactional, situational, leadership by example, Management By Objective (MBO) and Management By wandering Around (MBWA). Also, majority of the heads believed that all these leadership style provided sufficient motivation to teachers to perform.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summaries the major findings of the study, indicates the implications of the findings, its limitations and offer recommendations. The chapter is concluded and area for further study is also stated.

5.2 Overview of Findings

The study reveals that heads of second cycle institutions in Ghana use several and diverse leadership styles to achieve their administrative ends. Among the leadership styles used include democratic, transactional, Management By objective (MBO), Management by Wandering around (MBWA), contingent or situational style and pacesetter style. Of these, the ones used extensively include democratic, transactional and situational style of leadership.

The study reveals that autocratic, paternal and laissez faire styles are rarely used by heads of second cycle institutions. Again, pacesetter or teaching by doing is not also used on a wider scale.

Furthermore, the study reveals that all the leadership style mentioned above motivate teaching staff to perform satisfactorily. However, the more important leadership styles as far as teacher motivation is concerned are democratic, transactional, MBWA and MBO leadership style.

5.3 Implication of the Findings

The implications for the findings are that the democratic leadership style motivates teaching staff to perform. The staff feels that he or she has been accorded the necessary respect and treated as part owner of the institution. He or she therefore does all within his or her ability towards realizing or achieving the organizational goals. Performance and output (students' performance in internal and external examinations) increase.

The transactional leadership style carries both positive and negative reinforcement. This style serves those teaching staff who seeks to climb up the leadership or administrative ladder. This is because a high performer is recognized and duly rewarded in various forms. Those staff who wish to be appointed to various positions in the school would find transactional leader appropriate. Again, indolent staff and those staff who have low level of commitment would notice that a transactional leader would use coercive power to get things done as the leader rewards for high performance as well as sanctions for poor performance. This increase performance and therefore output.

Furthermore, management by objective highly motivates teaching staff to give out their best and also assist towards implementing decisions agreed upon at staff meetings. When staffs are involved in setting objectives, they feel that they are part owners of the institution and that the decisions made are their own decisions, and they would therefore work hard towards implementing their own decisions. The end result is achieving high performance which manifest in the children doing well in both internal and external examinations.

Moreover, management by wandering about is seen to serve several purpose. Where in-service training is not carried out on a very large scale, heads occasionally visit teachers during their lesson delivery and offer technical assistance where necessary. It is also used as a check on absenteeism, and those who report to school but do not enter class to teach. Again, it offers the head the opportunity to get first-hand information on what goes on in the school as a whole. This in a way motivates all teaching and non-teaching staff to accomplish all that is expected of them.

The avoidance of autocratic leadership style is due to the fact that it pays little dividend. The teacher is lowly motivated, performance declines and output (students' performance at internal and external examinations) eventually falls.

5.4 Limitation of the Research

This study is conducted within five second cycle schools in the Kumasi metropolis and the findings must therefore be used with caution as it might not be representative of all metropolitan, municipal and districts in Ghana.

Ideally, the study should have included interviews for teaching staff to gather more and detailed response than what are being captured in the questionnaire. Limited time on the part of the researcher and respondents made use of interview on teachers difficult.

Again, more leadership styles are left uncaptured in this work and this renders the work somewhat incomplete. Future research must therefore recognise the inadequacy of this work and endeavor to improve on it.

5.5 Recommendations

It is recommended that MBO and MBWA should be overly used to the full benefits of these leadership styles. This is because sizeable number of respondents allege that these two styles are not extensively used. Some teachers are therefore less motivated by these two methods.

Again, it is also recommended that heads of second cycle institutions should also use to a greater extent leadership by example. This brings along many benefits. First, the head teaches the subordinates how things are done. This increases accuracy level. Second, it sends a positive message that if the head himself has participated in a particular task then no one can be exempted. Third, this style is very motivating as the head is seen to be very assertive and inspiring.

Furthermore, though educational leaders employ situational leadership style, its usage must be given due consideration and be cautiously used not to be too discriminative. Sticking to one of few leadership style might not help. Contingency theory holds that there is no one perfect or imperfect style, as all depends on the situation one finds himself in. Where the situation demands that the head should apply autocratic leadership style, it becomes appropriate to use it at that moment and where democratic style is demanded at another situation, then it should be applied appropriately. So leaders or heads should learn where and when to use what leadership style to enable the teaching staff realise their full potentials so that the organization would achieve it desired goals.

5.6 Conclusion

The study seeks to identify the major leadership style used by heads of second cycle institutions and which of the leadership styles motivate teaching staff to perform. Quite a number of leadership styles such as democratic, transactional, MBO and MBWA are extensively used as against other equally important styles. It is also found that the leadership styles used by headmasters greatly motivates teaching staff to perform. Though MBO and MBWA are used, respondents agree that they have not been used to the level that they would achieve their full impact.

Also, situational or contingency leadership style is being used on a limited scale while other neglected styles such as autocratic, paternal and pacesetter styles have not been used in spite of their relevance in some circumstances.

5.7 Area for Further Research

Investigate the indirect impact of leadership styles of head of second cycle institutions on students' performance at external examination.

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APPENDIX 1

**QUESTIONNAIRE TO SECOND CYCLE INSTITUTION TEACHERS IN
KUMASI METRO (KM)**

This is part of an MA research project seeking to investigate into the Influence of Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation to Perform. Whatever response you provide would be treated personal and confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation

Section A: (Bio Data)

(Tick [] the appropriate response)

1. Gender: Male [] Female []

2. Age:
 Below 25 [] 26-30 [] 31-40 [] 41-50 [] Above 50 []

3. Educational background: First Degree [] Masters [] PhD []

4. Marital status:
 Married [] Single [] Divorced [] Widow(er) []

5. Place of Work (please, provide)

6. What position/job role do you occupy in your current institution?.....

7. Number of years in the service
 0-1 year [] 2-4 years [] 5-7 years [] 8-10 years [] 11 years and above []

Section B: Leadership Style of Heads of Second Cycle Institutions in Ghana

This section seeks to investigate the type of leadership style or skills exhibited by heads of senior High Schools in Ghana, using Kumasi Metropolis as case study.

1=Strongly Disagree (SD); 2= (DA); 3 = (A); 4 (SA)

| SN | Statement | SD | DA | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|---|----|----|---|----|-----------|
| 1 | My headmaster regularly consults the teaching staff before taking decision | | | | | |
| 2 | My headmaster imposes his opinions and views on the teaching staff | | | | | |
| 3 | My headmaster does not bother much whether a staff member performs his/her assigned duties or not | | | | | |
| 4 | My headmaster always shows concern to the welfare of his staff and takes concrete measures to resolve differences among his staff in an amicable manner | | | | | |
| 5 | My headmaster is quite assertive and inspiring | | | | | |
| 6 | My headmaster insists on performance and duly rewards performing staff and sanctions non-performing staff | | | | | |
| 7 | My headmaster regularly sets objectives together with t | | | | | |
| 8 | My headmaster regularly moves around or about and interacts with staff in the course of discharging their duties | | | | | |
| 9 | My headmaster is friendly and considerate at one time and harsh and coercive at another time | | | | | |
| 10 | My headmaster regularly motivates staff through his personal actions and demonstrations | | | | | |
| | Total | | | | | |

Section C: Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

This section investigates the relationship between headmasters' leadership style DA and teacher motivation to perform.

4=Strongly Disagree (SA); 3=Disagree (A); 2= Agree (DA); 1=Strongly Agree (SD).

| SN | Statement | SD | DA | A | SA | Total % |
|----|--|----|----|---|----|---------|
| 1 | My headmaster regularly consults the teaching staff before taking decision and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 2 | My headmaster imposes his opinions and views on the teaching staff and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 3 | My headmaster does not bother much whether a staff member performs his/her assigned duties or not and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 4 | My headmaster always shows concern to the welfare of his staff and takes concrete measures to resolve differences among his staff in an amicable manner and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 5 | My headmaster is quite assertive and inspiring and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 6 | My headmaster insists on performance and duly rewards performing staff and sanctions non-performing staff and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 7 | My headmaster regularly sets objectives together with the entire staff and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| 8 | My headmaster regularly moves around or about and interacts with staff in the course of discharging their duties and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 9 | My headmaster is friendly and considerate at one time and harsh and coercive at another time and this motivates me to perform. | | | | | |
| 10 | My headmaster regularly motivates staff through his personal actions and demonstrations and this motivates me to perform | | | | | |
| | Total | | | | | |



Section D: Management By Objective (MBO) and teacher motivation to perform

This section seeks to assess how involving teaching staff in the setting of objectives motivate them to perform satisfactorily.

4=Strongly Disagree (SDA); 3=Disagree (DA); 2= Agree (A); 1=Strongly Agree (SA).

| SN | Statement | SD | DA | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|---|----|----|---|----|-----------|
| 1 | My headmaster brings specific goals and measures for discussion during staff meetings and this motivates me to give off my best | | | | | |
| 2 | I become highly motivated if I accomplish my duties | | | | | |
| 3 | My head rewards for the accomplishment of goals and this serves as a motivation for me | | | | | |
| 4 | I have been involved in establishing disciplinary policies and so I am motivated to perform and do the right things | | | | | |
| 5 | I have been involved in planning structural facilities for the school and this is an incentive to work hard. | | | | | |
| 6 | I have been involved in planning new projects for the school and so I give off my best | | | | | |
| 7 | I have been involved in resolving staff disputes and this encourages me to give off my best | | | | | |
| | Total | | | | | |

Section E: Management By Wandering/ Walking Around (MWA) and teacher motivation to perform

This section seeks to assess the effect of management going about to observe teacher activities

4=Strongly Disagree (SDA); 3=Disagree (DA); 2= Agree (A); 1=Strongly Agree (SA).

| SN | Statement | SD | DA | A | SA | Total (%) |
|----|--|----|----|---|----|-----------|
| 1 | My head frequently visits my class | | | | | |
| 2 | I feel intimidated when I see my head around my class | | | | | |
| 3 | I feel relaxed when my head comes to my class to visit me | | | | | |
| 4 | I am able to share problems with my head more when he/she comes to visit me in my class | | | | | |
| 5 | My head is often curious to know how some topics are taught when he/she visits my class. | | | | | |
| 6 | My head often uses informal visits to discuss formal issues with me | | | | | |
| 7 | I am able to share personal issues during informal discussions with my head | | | | | |
| 8 | My head's informal visits approach reduces the cumbersome bureaucratic procedures | | | | | |
| | Total | | | | | |

APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW GUIDE TO THE FIVE HEADMASTERS OF THE SELECTED SECOND CYCLE INSTITUTIONS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS.

TOPIC:

THE INFLUENCE OF HEADMASTERS' LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEACHER MOTIVATION TO WORK: THE CASE OF KUMASI METROPOLIS

This is part of an MA research project seeking to investigate into the Influence of Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation. Whatever response you provide would be treated confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation

A) Leadership Style of Heads of Second Cycle institutions

1. On what occasion do you consult your staff before embarking on any action in the school?
2. When do you insist that teachers should toe your line during staff meeting?
3. Is it always good as a head to appear considerate on your staff?
4. Is it proper for heads to insist that teacher should strictly abide by rules and regulations when they fail to do same?
5. How will react if a teacher fails to live up to expectation?

B) Headmasters' Leadership Style and Teacher Motivation

1. Are teachers motivated when you regularly consult them in taking decisions?
2. Teachers usually appear motivated for fear of being sanctioned when they under-perform. To what extent is this statement right?
3. Some heads often resort to harsh and coercive means to get things done by their staff. How do you see such heads?
4. How do you handle issues of staff welfare as far as staff motivation is concerned?
5. How does leadership by example motivate staff?

C) Management By Objective(MBO) and teacher motivation

1. Teachers get motivated when objectives are made known to them and are part of objective setting. Is that right?
2. How often do you involve teachers in setting objectives?
3. What are the areas that you involve teachers in decision making?
4. How does the setting objectives motivate teachers to perform?

D) Management By Wandering/Walking Around (MBWA) and Teacher Motivation to Perform

1. How often do you visit teachers during their lesson delivery?
2. How do teachers feel you sit to observe their lesson delivery?
3. How does your moving around motivate teacher to perform?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.