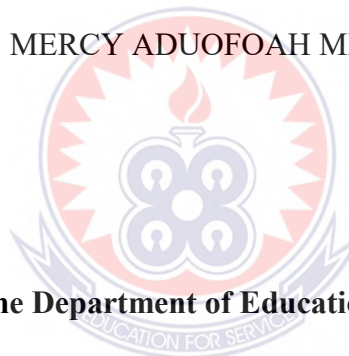


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

PERCEIVED ROLES AND CHALLENGES FACING FEMALE HEADTEACHERS  
IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

MERCY ADUOFOAH MENSAH



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

DECEMBER, 2017

## DECLARATION

### STUDENT'S DECLARATION

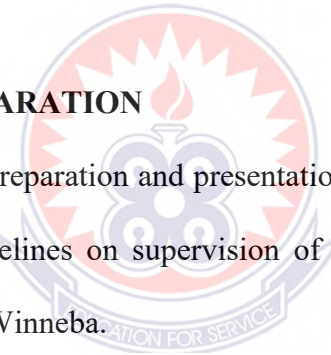
I, MERCY ADUOFOAH MENSAH, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and that it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree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

SIGNATURE: .....

DATE: .....

### SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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



NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROF. COSMAS COBBOLD

SIGNATURE: .....

DATE: .....

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## **DEDICATION**

To my husband Mr. Kwaku Asumadu and children Maame Yaa Adu-Nyame  
Asumadu, Barimah Kwasi Asumadu, Obaapa Akua Pokuah Asumadu and Nana Akua  
Agyeiwaa Asumadu.



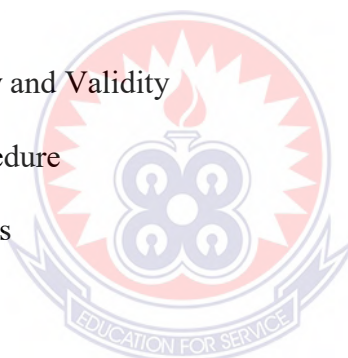
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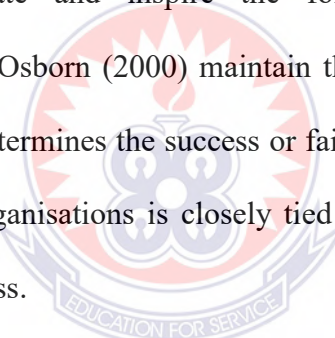
## ABSTRACT

In Ghana there is a perception that female head teachers are not well prepared to deal with challenges and issues arising from the complexities of institutional management. This study examined the leadership roles and professional development needs of female headteachers in junior high schools within the Kumasi metropolis. Using the census sampling method, all the 40 female head teachers in the Kumasi metropolis were used for the study. Field data collection was done through the use of open-ended and closed-ended questionnaire. The findings revealed that female head teachers identified seven tasks as their roles; staff monitoring, administration, resource management, professional leadership, teaching/academics; communication/public relations, and pastoral (nurturing) duties or responsibilities. The findings further revealed that female head teachers view staff monitoring as the number one priority, whereas communication or public relations is viewed as the least priority. It also emerged from the study that female head teachers needed skills in the following areas: better management training, direction and leadership from the educational authorities, mentoring and assistance with appraisal and ICT programmes. Based on the findings of the study, the study concluded that female head teachers of junior high schools in Kumasi metropolis are cognizant of their roles and professional development needs and are active in the acquisition of the skills needed to perform their roles. The study recommends that educational authorities need to organise professional development programmes for female headteachers and school leaders in general to enable them perform their roles effectively and efficiently.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

Leadership has been variously defined but Sashkin and Sashkin's (2003) and Hoy and Miskel's (2001) definitions appear to be a more recent perspective. They define leadership as the art of transforming people and organisation with the aim of improving the organisation. From this perspective, leaders (including head teachers) define the task and explain why the job is being done; they oversee followers' activities and ensure that followers have what they need in terms of skills and resources to do the job. It is required of leaders to develop a relationship between themselves and their followers, align, motivate and inspire the followers to foster productivity. Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organisation because it determines the success or failure of the organisation. Thus the study of leadership in organisations is closely tied to the analysis of organisations' efficiency and effectiveness.

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central shield with a book and a torch, surrounded by a wreath. The shield is set against a background of a sunburst. Below the shield, a banner contains the motto "EDUCATION FOR SERVICE". The entire emblem is encircled by a border.

In Ghana, government education policy and the Ministry of Education guidelines are implemented at school level where the headteacher as the leader has to be involved in all activities, including curriculum implementation, discipline of teachers, other staff and the students (Oduro & MacBeath 2003). Supervision has been identified as one of the major roles performed as a service to teachers and students as a means of offering special help in improving instruction (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003). Ensuring quality improvement in teaching and learning by emphasizing on ways and methods of instilling excellence in the quality of instruction, head teachers must execute their supervisory role with expertise. As such the head teacher is the leader of the school

responsible for organizing, providing requisite resources, implementing policies, communicating and evaluating the daily activities within the school.

The head teacher is always expected to take up effectively the staff-personnel management role in the school. It is the duty of the head teacher to ensure a good organizational atmosphere which is open and motivating, satisfying and relevant to job distribution and to encourage employees to be more productive all the time. The head teacher needs to have the knowledge and all the dynamics of managing human personnel. In educational management, females have been noted to exhibit characteristics such as empathy, compassion, supporting, patience, attention to detail and ability to integrate people to listen to them and to motivate them through non-monetary incentives (Funk, 2004).

It is almost impossible to end discussions on the head teacher's leadership roles without touching on the financial management systems in the school. Schools like any other organization require finance in order to run well. There must be an efficient controller of finance to keep the school afloat. Funds have to be obtained, budgeted, utilised and accounted for. The degree to which the head teacher may be involved in financial management, as opined by Onyango (2009), depends on the head teacher's roles in determining needs and means of acquiring financial resources, fair distribution of funds, preparing and managing budgets, accounting and record keeping procedures, supervising allocation and use of funds, identifying and implementing measures and inventories required for evaluations.

In the performance of these leadership roles, the head teacher plays a very vital role in bringing about school improvement and effectiveness within the complex operation of schools in the 21st century. Increased interest in leadership and

professional development of head teachers, typically the female head teacher, is based on the fact that school leaders can make a difference in both the effectiveness and efficiency of schooling (Hallinger & Snidvongs, 2008). Consequently, the need to ensure that head teachers play their roles effectively cannot be overemphasized and that could well be done through providing them with knowledge, skills and attributes necessary for their leadership roles. This can be achieved mainly if such head teachers are appropriately developed continuously to enhance their performance of duties as school leaders after appointment. Development of teachers will provide a framework within which they will operate to achieve not only the school but also the national objectives of education. In appreciation of the complex roles of school leaders (head teachers) one would expect an institution of pragmatic strategies to equip head teachers with the necessary competence, skills and knowledge for enhanced performance of these roles. But this does not appear to be the case in Ghana.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Though leadership development is a recent phenomenon (Coles & Southworth, 2005), studies (Bush & Jackson, 2002; Huber, 2004) indicate that development of school headteachers can lead to school effectiveness and improvement. As a result, many countries, especially in the developed world, have come up with institutions and programmes for the preparation and development of school headteachers. Conversely, not so much in terms of head teachers' development in developing countries, such as Ghana, has been brought to the fore. Most studies carried out on headteachers in Africa (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003) focus mainly on problems facing headteachers in various contexts. In most of these studies, development of those headteachers is recommended as one of the ways of solving those problems. Furthermore, females, in particular, have

been noted to exhibit characteristics such as empathy, compassion, supporting, patient, attention to detail and ability to integrate people to listen and to motivate them through non-monetary incentives (Funk, 2004), it is perceived that female head teachers are not well prepared to deal with challenges and issues arising from the complexities of school management.

The justification for this study can be traced to Government of Ghana Education Policy and the Ministry of Education Guidelines, which require among other things that headteachers be trained professionally. The expectation is that this would enable them to get the skills, knowledge and attributes (Bush & Oduro, 2006) to run schools in a professional and effective manner to ensure good teaching and learning practices.

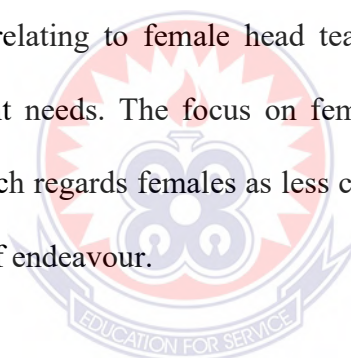
Reports (Bush & Jackson, 2002) emphasize that training of principals will bring about quality and raise standards of education in Ghana. They further refer to the connection between quality leadership and school effectiveness stating that, “the head teacher plays the most crucial role in ensuring school effectiveness” (p.417). One of the ways of ensuring that such a role is effectively carried out is through continuously developing those head teachers. According to Harris (2003), school leaders are viewed as people who can solve problems schools face.

In Ghana there is a perception that headteachers are not well prepared to deal with challenges and issues arising from the complexities of institutional management (Godwyll, Larson & Ahwireng, 2013). Knowledge and problem solving skills are not innate, but rather learnt through preparation and development. Bush and Jackson (2002) accentuated the importance of headteachers’ development and said that “in dealing with a wide range of issues, and managing relationships with many different groups within and outside the school, head teachers need to be able to call on a subsequent reservoir of expertise and experience, to identify solutions to what are often



complex problems” (p. 424). Most research and literature on leadership preparation and development is mostly based on the developed world.

But as rightly argued by Harbey and Dadey (1993), theories of educational improvement, head teacher role improvement and head teacher preparation and development transferred from America and adopted in African may not work. This is because of national and cultural differences between these two contexts which are very unique in themselves. Bush and Jackson (2002) elaborate that, this is due to different political, social, and professional contexts and concludes that as a result “what works well in one country may not succeed elsewhere”. In support of this, the current study is relevant to bridge literature gap by establishing the local context as far as Ghana is concerned, specifically relating to female head teachers’ perceived roles and their professional development needs. The focus on female head teachers is based on a perception in Ghana which regards females as less competent and effective compared to males in many areas of endeavour.



### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of this study is to identify the leadership roles and professional development needs of female head teachers in the Junior High Schools in Kumasi Metropolis, as reported by the female head teachers themselves and challenges they face in the performance of their roles.

### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The study is guided by the following research objectives to help achieve the general purpose of the study:

1. To identify what female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis consider to be their roles as educational leaders.
2. To determine the knowledge and skills female head teachers of junior high schools in Kumasi metropolis need to perform their roles.
3. To explore the strategies female head teachers of junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis use to acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their roles.
4. To find out the challenges female head teachers of junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis face in the performance of their roles.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

Towards the achievement of the research objectives, the following research questions are set as a guide:

1. What do female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis consider to be their roles as educational leaders?
2. What knowledge and skills do female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis need to perform their roles effectively?
3. What strategies do female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis use to acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their roles?
4. What challenges do female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis face in the performance of their roles?

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The study is primarily conducted to evaluate the leadership roles and professional development needs of female head teachers in public junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis. The study is justified in its significance of complementing the

stock of literature on female head teachers' leadership roles. Therefore, the study could serve as a secondary source of reference for future researchers who might need it. Furthermore, the findings from the study would guide head teachers and prospective head teachers who access the study report to enhance their performance of their leadership roles. Educational authorities and policy makers grappling with issues relating to head teachers' leadership roles and challenges would also find the research report relevant as a guide.

### **1.7 The Scope of the Study**

The geographical scope of the study was confined to only public junior high schools within Kumasi Metropolis. In terms of content, the study concentrated on what female head teachers consider as their roles, the required knowledge and skills necessary for the execution of such roles, appropriate strategies for the acquisition of such skills and knowledge as well as the challenges they face in the performance of their professional roles. Male head teachers were not included in the study.

### **1.8 Limitations of the Study**

The study confined itself to the leadership roles and professional development needs of female head teachers in Junior High Schools within Kumasi Metropolis. Data gathered for the study excluded all private schools and male-headed public junior high schools. The extent of generalization would therefore, be limited to only female-headed public junior high schools within Kumasi metropolis.

## **1.9 Organization of the Study**

The study has been organized under five chapters. Chapter One gives the introductory part of the study covering the background, the problem statement, purpose of the study, the research objectives as well as the research questions. The chapter further outlines the scope, limitations, significance and how the study was organized. Chapter Two follows with the review of related literature covering both theoretical and empirical issues. Such areas covered include definition and concept of leadership, head teachers' leadership roles, the professional development needs of female head teachers and some challenges the female head teachers face in the performance of their leadership roles. Chapter Three continues with the methodological approach of the study, touching on the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques as well as data collection procedures. Again, the chapter discusses data analysis procedures, validity and reliability of results as well as the ethical considerations for the study. Chapter four presents the analysis of the data collected from female head teachers. Chapter five covers the conclusions drawn from these findings and recommendation for improving the situation and for further study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Overview

This chapter reviews relevant literature that provides the theoretical framework and context for the study. It has four sections: the definition and theories of leadership, type of leadership styles and professional development needs of school heads. The empirical review examines previous studies that had similar focus as the current study.

#### 2.1 The Definition of Leadership

The role of leadership in the management process of institutions has been sidelined for long even though it is arguably one of the most relevant subject areas in the social sciences which run through all aspects of society. The concept of leadership emerged in the early 1900s and has since attracted a lot of interest in both the corporate world and academia. The number of publications on leadership increased exponentially from about 136 in 1970-71, to about 10,062 in 2001-02 according to Ebsco Business and Management publications database (Storey, 2004). It is even likely that this number has gone up over the last ten years. Despite the enormous interest that leadership has generated in recent times, there still remains the challenge of having a universally accepted definition of leadership. This has led many researchers to conclude that existing literature on leadership has not generated a clearer understanding on leadership (Rost, 1993). He further stated that existing definitions provided by scholars are not clear, concise, understandable, researchable, practically relevant and persuasive. Bolden (2004) also admits that the understanding of the concept of leadership is often based on a mixture of experience and learning which complicates the attempt to attain a compact definition.

There is also the challenge of one's theoretical perspective influencing to a large extent the way in which leadership is understood and defined. Despite the problem of defining leadership, some definitions are available. One of such definitions is the ability of a superior to influence the behavior of subordinates and persuade them to follow a particular course of action. Leadership is also a process which occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (Collins, 2001). Coles (2005) also defines leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.

Yukl (1994) also sees leadership as a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person (or group) over other people (or groups) to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization. Leadership according to Northouse (2004) is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. For Winston and Patterson (2006), leadership involves one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organization's mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted effort to achieve the organizational mission and objectives.

From the few definitions provided by some renowned scholars, it can be seen that leadership is either perceived by the social role played by leaders or by what leaders do. It is also perceived as a combination of the process, the techniques of leadership, the person, the specific talents and traits of a leader and the overall expectations of the task. There are those that criticize the leadership definitions as merely the accumulation

of behaviors and personal characteristics that are usually linked to performance when critically dissected. This limits the definition of leadership to a corporate organizational setting leaving the social impact of leadership unaccounted for. They further argue that an individual's actions cannot have any significant impact on organizational performance. Per their position, leadership is not a determinant of high organizational performance but rather, high organizational performance only determines the perception of leadership (Hackman, 2002).

The weak definition presented by linking leadership with performance is agreeable as it does not cover all the aspects that leadership effectively permeates. But the assertion that an individual's actions cannot influence organizational performance is arguable. This implies that leadership has no relationship with performance. This raises some questions about the concept of leadership as a whole. If leadership is about an individual or group influencing others to achieve a common goal, then how can we measure the extent of the leader's influence in contributing to the group's ability to achieve that common goal? This invariably resonates with the concern of performance.

A researcher such as Northhouse (2007) has explicitly demonstrated the plausible relationship between leadership and performance. Although more work needs to be done on an acceptable leadership concept that transcends organizational performance, it still remains that the concern of leadership is not mutually exclusive from the concern of performance.

## 2.2 The Theories of Leadership

To have a complete understanding of how leadership works, there is the need to understand the theories that have been formulated over the years. This section presents the theoretical underpinnings of leadership that are relevant to this study.

### 2.2.1. The Great Man/Trait Theory

The great man theory is one of the earliest leadership theories which was based on the psychology of leadership. Carlyle (1998) is credited as the founder of the great man theory. The name “great man” itself is indicative of the primitive era where men were often seen as leaders and women had no place in leadership. It is therefore not surprising that it stands as one of the most criticized leadership theories. The proponents of this theory believe that leadership is an innate quality which is God-given. It cannot be learned through one’s experiences, education or up-bringing. Thomas Carlyle basically developed his theory around his observation of the behaviors of influential military icons during his era. However, his critics do not agree with his assertions and challenge its scientific authenticity. Bennis (2006) responded to this theory by calling it childish, primitive and unscientific to connect historical events with the decision made by individuals and conclude on that as being leadership. He rather held the view that these great men identified by Carlyle were the result of the influence that their social environment had on them.

The trait theory which evolved from the “great man” theory on the other hand also believes that leadership is embodied by certain attributes such as charisma, exceptional sense of intuition, intelligence, courage, judgment, persuasiveness which cannot be passed on through learning in a formal setting. Just like the former theory, these features are genetically acquired or inborn or inherited through the family one



comes from. Leaders such as Mahatma Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Kwame Nkrumah, Nelson Mandela and Julius Nyerere were considered great leaders who had the natural qualities of leadership and divinely ordained as such. The trait theory is founded on the assumptions that leaders are born with genetic traits specifically befitting leadership and are endowed with a good combination of such traits.

Lipman and Blumen (2005) identified leadership traits based on their study of successful leaders. However, they also alluded to the assumption that if others were found to possess these traits, they could easily become great leaders too.

Whiteley and Johnson (2012) also studied the leadership traits of a large number of companies in America and discovered that the above traits were pervasive. He therefore concluded that a leader in one organization could be a leader in another. Further study was done by Koech (1999) to look into traits that make a leader either successful or unsuccessful. Unlike earlier studies that focused on successful leaders, this particular study analyzed the essential traits in both successful and unsuccessful leaders that led to their success or failures as leaders.

Traits do not guarantee that you a leader will be good or competent. The trait theorists however believe that you need to have these traits in order to even be a leader. Despite the position of the trait theorists, Northouse (2007) believes that leaders and non-leaders cannot be distinguished by a consistent set of traits and that the main weakness of the trait theory is that it has no place in training and development. There is little or no relevance in the study of leadership if it cannot be learned, acquired or passed on to others as perceived by the trait and the great man theories. Other issues with these identified traits are that they encompass behaviours, skills, temperaments and intellectual abilities of individuals. Quite often, trait theorists mix them up with

some very different qualities. Also the list is not exhaustive and may not fit into situations where successful leaders have some traits that are not the list.

### **2.2.2. The Behavioural Theory**

As the researchers became frustrated with the trait approach, they were led into examining the actions of leaders; not what they did, but how they behaved. This school of thought believes that instead of the trait of the leader, it is rather the manner in which the leader relates to or behaves within the environment that determines his level of effectiveness (Wright 1996). The behaviourists hold the assumption that leadership is founded on definite and learnable behaviour rather than “God-given” or inherited traits. They are more focused on what leaders really do. They considered a better way to learn and teach leadership compared to the trait theorists. To them, if leadership can be studied through definite actions of successful leaders, then others can also replicate these actions and obtain the same successful outcome of leadership. They do believe that a leader’s behaviour can best determine the extent of his/her influence and as such, the leader’s success. Behaviours can be fine-tuned under various circumstances to get the desired results. Successful leaders are those who are able to adopt their behavioural style under given situations to improve performance. Behavioural theory therefore led to the introduction of leadership styles.

### **2.2.3 The Situational / Contingency Theory**

This school of thought which seems most modern, is the view that a leader must be flexible and sensitive enough to respond to the particular indigenous circumstances within which he finds himself. In other words, a strategy that a leader may effectively adopt in one particular situation may not necessarily work in another. For example, in Ghana, as much as we would like to emphasise the need for unity of purpose as one

nation, one people with one destiny, we are also deeply aware of the fact that people are different in Tamale than in Tema and from Asankragwa to Accra. Therefore, a leader on transfer from one place to another must be open enough to the particular situation of his new field in order to be effective.

Even though this approach offers valuable contributions to the study and practise of leadership, its extreme form, for example when it claims that almost everything is determined by the environment could be disastrous. On the whole, advocates of the approach have helped us to think more about what as leaders we can do or ought to do as leaders in different situations. Walker and Dimmock (2006) thought that three things were important for any leader:

1. **The relationship between the leaders and followers:** It is believed that if leaders are liked and respected, they would more likely have staff support.
2. **The structure of the task:** If the work to be done is clearly stated to the staff, they would be more likely to do it, and consequently, the leader is likely to be more effective.
3. **Position of power:** If the purpose of given power to the leader is for the effectiveness of job output, this would quite likely enhance the influence of the leader.

This approach also suggests leadership styles for various unique situations. For example, Hersey and Blachard (1977) offer four different leadership styles that could be drawn upon to deal with different unique situations.

1. **Telling:** (High task / low relationship behaviour). Here, the leader gives a great deal of direction to subordinates, and clear role definitions. It is suggested that this approach is most suitable for dealing with new staff, or in cases where work is

menial or repetitive, or where there is the pressure of time. Clearly, subordinates are considered unable or unwilling to do a good job on their own.

2. **Selling:** (High task/ high relationship behaviour). Also known as the” coaching approach”, it is used where even though many of the instructions are given by the leader, he also makes an effort to get subordinates to buy into the task they are performing. This approach is recommended for staff who may have good will but lack the maturity, ability or self- drive.
3. **Participation :** (High relationship/low task behaviour). Decision making is shared with the staff, with the leader simply facilitating and communicating the bigger picture. It entails high support and low direction, and works best where the staff is competent but unwilling or insecure in doing their work. There is maturity, but is moderate to high.
4. **Delegating:** (Low relationship/ low task behaviour). The leader identifies the issue or the tasks, but delegates their execution to the staff. Obviously these workers need to be competent, mature, and motivated to work.

### 2.3 Leadership Styles

When leaders interact with followers they employ combination of traits, skills and behaviours that is called leadership style Chan and Maubourgne (1992). The style which a leader adopts is commonly based on a combination of his or her beliefs, ideas, norms, and values. Different theories and assumptions have resulted in a number of leadership styles that include authoritarian, democratic, laissez faire, transformational and transactional leadership styles.

### **2.3.1 Autocratic/Authoritarian Style**

The autocratic/authoritarian leadership style tends to demonstrate that the leader wants to retain full power. The leader does not consult with his staff and basically control much of the decision making authority. Hoy and Miskel (2001) stated “the authoritarian leadership style is characterized by a leader who makes all the decisions and passes the directives to subordinates who are expected to carry these out under very close supervision” According to Docheff (2011) some studies say that organizations with many autocratic leaders have higher turnover and absenteeism. These studies show that autocratic leaders; rely on threats and punishment to influence employees, do not trust employees, and do not allow for employee input. It is important that an autocratic leader resist the temptation of being overbearing, especially in the presence of experts and peers. It is important to note that one expert stated, top-down autocratic leadership is obsolete. Participatory leadership has its place (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). It can be perceived that a leader who uses this style does not trust his employees and may use other means of persuasion/threats to control them. It is believed that autocratic/authoritarian leadership style will accomplish the stated goals better than a democratic style in conditions of crisis or when detailed instructions are needed to accomplish the task at hand.

### **2.3.2 Democratic Style**

The democratic leader makes decision by soliciting for suggestions from team members. He is not a one man show and knows that the support of team members is needed in order for the organization to be successful. Even though the democratic leader allows the team to decide on how the task will be performed and how the members will evenly distribute the workload, control is still maintained by the leader. As Rost (1993) stated, the democratic leader does provide directions, but allows the

group to make its own decisions. Owolabi (1997) noted that the leader encourages members to determine goals and procedures, and stimulates members' self-direction and self-actualization. It is important to note, that even though the democratic leader solicits from the team members how the task will be accomplished; he should never lose sight of the fact that regardless of the outcome of any task, he bears the sole responsibility of leadership.

Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) make an interesting point by stating "that the democratic style is characterized by a structured but cooperative approach to decision making. It focuses on group relationships and sensitivity to the people in the organization". This type of leadership style fosters professional competence. Supervision is minimal as individuals take the responsibility for their behaviour. Subordinates are encouraged to express their ideas and make suggestions. However, shared decisions are not likely to occur in all aspects of the organizational operations. Democratic leaders sell ideas. They tend to be warm, confident, and friendly. The democratic leadership style encourages employee participation and professional growth. It is well suited in environments where people have a very high level of expertise such as software engineers, lawyers, doctors, mature teachers, etc. The democratic leadership style promotes greater job satisfaction and improved morale.

Evidence shows that the democratic style supports an environment that builds employee morale. This leadership style enhances teams' involvement and validates that they do make a difference in contributing to the overall success of the organization. According to Silins and Mulford (2004) "by spending time, getting employee's ideas, and buy-in, a leader builds trust, respect, and commitment. It allows the employees to have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work, and such a leader drives flexibility and responsibility. He further stated that by listening to

employees' concerns, the democratic leader learns what to do to keep employee morale high" (p.45).

However, when this particular leadership style is measured up against the climate of an organization, it is believed that the democratic style has the least impact than any of the other styles. According to Silins and Mulford (2004), "the democratic style has its drawbacks, which is why its impact on the climate of an organization is not as high as some of the other styles". (p. 56). While the democratic leader adds to value input from team members and their participation, he must also assess the abilities of the employees when soliciting ideas, and ensure that there is a level of competency.

### **2.3.3 Laissez-faire Style**

The laissez-faire leadership style is basically viewed as the hands-off approach. Even though it is believed that you must empower your employees to make sound decisions, this particular leadership style may not be as effective as the other leadership styles. As Avolio (2001) stated, "the laissez-faire leadership style is avoidance or absence of leadership. A leader is held accountable for the outcome of any decisions that will have an impact on the organization achieving its objectives and goals. This particular style is most effective when leading a team that is highly motivated and has a track record for success. With this particular leadership style, there is the absence of any real leadership and everyone is free to do as he pleases. Such a style may not provide the necessary guidance that is needed, thus creating a state of confusion and lack of confidence in leadership. The employees also often doubt their own ability to accomplish the task at hand, thus productivity is usually very low. Although this leadership style is not usually advocated, it has its place with persons who are highly motivated and can work totally on their volition (Roost 1993).

Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) found that leadership style had a powerful impact on both productivity and morale. Under autocratic leadership, the boys were productive but joyless and experienced a high level of dependence and frustration. Laissez-faire leadership led to aimlessness and confusion. The boys strongly preferred democratic leadership, which produced a more positive group climate. If a leader is going to be successful, he must rely on several of the leadership styles to be effective. As the leader is accountable for the overall performance of the organization, and how it will achieve its goals, it must clearly have the qualities of a good leader. As Avolio (2001) stated “research indicates that leaders with the best results do not rely on only one leadership style; they use most of them in a given week seamlessly and in different measure- depending on the business situation”

#### **2.3.4 Transformational Leadership**

Research further shows that “transformational leadership can be directive or participative, as well as democratic or authoritarian, elitist or levelling,” according to Avolio (2001). However, this type of leadership is based on a different form of power that is consensual in nature and emphasizes participative decision making as much as possible. It is a form of power brought forth through other people and not over them. This form of power is unlimited and substantially enhances the productivity of the organization. Allix (2000) explains that when a process makes people feel that they have a say in matter that affect them, they are more likely to have commitment and will take greater responsibility for what happens to the organization. Avolio (2001) makes a point in stating, “managers have at least learned that before making a decision it pays to consult with the people who will implement the decision” Overall, “transformational leaders develop people through delegation and empowerment. They make them

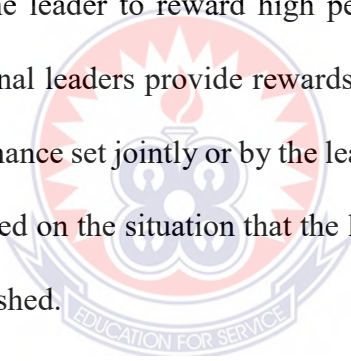


responsible and accountable for organizational goals, and then get out of their way” according to Avolio (2001), a leader must possess certain known characteristics in order to be effective within an organization. The development of character which reflects a high standard of moral and ethical behaviour is a vital aspect of effective leadership. A person with character has both the knowledge to know what is proper and the wisdom and courage to act on that knowledge and do what is right. Character is the link that enables the transformational leader to act in accord with their beliefs. The character issue is an important factor for effective leadership because it can allow the leader to look critically at how they influence the character development of those they lead. The leader not only has to develop his own moral character but has the responsibility to create situations that will enhance the character development of their followers. Transformational leadership arises when leaders are more concerned about gaining overall cooperation and the most energy from organization members than in getting particular tasks performed.

### **2.3.5 Transactional Leadership**

The transactional type of leadership has centralized control which maintains differences in status between workers and managers and among levels of management. It relies on top-down decision making or the power to control staff, the allocation of resources, and the process of change. The transactional leader is a manager that believes that, people prefer to be led, rather than be accountable for their own actions and decisions (Avolio, 2001). Research shows that when an organization is faced with performance issues and needs structure, the transactional leadership style may be best suited for the environment. According to Avolio (2001), “transactional leadership works well when the organization needs clarity, structure, communication, and focus is needed on performance” Further, transactional leadership is based on an exchange of

services for various kinds of rewards that the leader basically controls. Leithwood (2012) indicates that some researchers claim that the transactional practices help people recognize what needs to be done in order to reach a desired outcome and that transactional and transformational leadership practices are often viewed as complementary. Bass and Sergiovanni (2011) consider transactional practices to be central in maintaining the organization and getting daily routines accomplished. However, they believed that such practices do not stimulate improvement. Mitchell and Tucker (1992) have suggested that transactional leadership only works when both leaders and followers understand and agree about the important tasks to be performed. This leadership can be effective, if the necessary control is obtained over the rewards system, which enables the leader to reward high performing employees. As Avolio (2001) stated, “transactional leaders provide rewards and/or promises for people who meet standards of performance set jointly or by the leaders”. With any leadership style, it must be augmented based on the situation that the leader is faced with in getting the necessary goals accomplished.

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central sunburst design with a book and a torch. The text 'UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA' is written around the top inner edge, and 'EDUCATION FOR SERVICE' is written around the bottom inner edge.

## **2.4 Women in Leadership and Management**

Women have increasingly moved toward greater gender equality at home and in the workplace. Yet, women are still underrepresented in leadership roles and still considered an anomaly compared to men when in high positions of leadership especially within institutions of higher education. In examining differences between how men and women lead, it is often less what they do than in the different experience they face when they lead. Stereotypic gender role expectations can constrain their leadership behaviours. Perceived incongruity between women and leadership roles pose obstacles to leadership and result in double binds, more negative performance

appraisals, and different standards compared to those applied to men. It is increasingly clear that a gender neutral view of leadership is insufficient, and that we need to consider the influence of cultural worldviews and socialization on shaping leadership style. There is much to suggest that feminist leadership styles are intentionally different—more collaborative and transformational compared to men. This becomes more complex when we include dimensions of racial and ethnic diversity. We need to transform our views of leadership to promote more robust theories and diverse models of effective leadership. While current leadership theories favour transformational and collaborative leadership styles, organizational cultures often mirror social constructions of gender and ethnicity norms in society. Within the context of higher education institutions, there is often a tension between hierarchical and collaborative forms of leadership reflected in contradictory sets of practices. While women leaders may have an advantage in such contexts, they also face obstacles in needing to change organizational cultures that mirror social biases against women as leaders (Harris, 2003).

Traditionally, leaders were thought to exhibit certain traits that predisposed them to act effectively in leadership positions. Women, it was believed, lacked these traits and prerequisites: aggression, competitiveness, dominance, machiavellianism, ambition, decisiveness, high levels of energy, tallness, a commanding voice, persistence, and assertiveness. Female executives adhered to many of these “rules of conduct” because they were breaking new ground. Now, women are in a state of transition as they try to overcome their minority status and marginality. They find themselves caught in an ambivalent situation wherein they are stereotyped as “women leaders,” while the prevailing social norms project social representations of leadership that are predominantly male. Although the general characteristics of a “woman leader”

are being touted today as the ideal characteristics for leading an organization, there is still a disparity between the phrases “woman *as* leader” and “woman leader.” This is exemplified by the reality that the top ranks of management are still male-dominated, and a “glass ceiling” that is keeping women as a group from reaching these ranks still seems to prevail (Mabey & Ramirez 2004).

In theory of leadership, leader is always the main concern, and it accordingly has many aspects to understand, as mentions in the concept of leadership. Considering the topic of the paper, we hereby pay attention to the relationship between leader and power that embeds in leadership. It is actually a common way of thinking leader as holder of power, and power is a tool that leader uses to achieve their goals. A few scholars, however, disagree with it. Burns (1979) suggests understanding power from the standpoint of relationship, which implies that power, occurs in relationship and should be used by both leader and subordinates to achieve their collective goals. Similarly, Hughes Ginnett and Curphy (1999 as cited in Mabey & Ramirez, 2004) also consider leadership as a function of leaders, followers and the situation. Although leaders are able to influence their followers’ ideas and behaviours, followers may influence leaders as well. Meanwhile, situation can also affect leaders and followers’ attitude and act. In a word, power is not simply one way trip from leaders to followers (as cited in Mabey & Ramirez 2004).

## **2.5 Roles of Educational Leaders**

The job of the head teacher is both extremely demanding and critical to the success of a school. As Bennis (2006) writes, “while the work of teachers and the interest of parents contribute vitally to student success, make no mistake about the

fundamental ingredient the ability of the principal to lead change and establish direction.”

Head teachers are expected to make daily, often immediate decisions in the midst of constant demands from a variety of constituents. Further, the decisions they make can affect the lives of their students, teachers, other staff members, parents, and community members. The head teacher is expected to lead the school, maintain discipline, manage the budget, assist staff, respond to parental inquiries, and report to the school governance board.

As Bennis and Nanus (1985) state: Not only must school leaders perform the tasks of organizing, budgeting, managing, and dealing with disruptions inside and outside the system, today's instructional leaders must be able to coach, teach, and develop the teachers in their schools. They must be steeped in curriculum, instruction, and assessment in order to supervise a continuous improvement process that measures progress in raising student performance. They must build learning communities within their schools and engage the broader school community in creating and achieving a compelling vision for their schools. In some ways, the various roles of school heads can be divided into management and leadership responsibilities, although there is of course considerable overlap between the two categories. Managers focus on "running a smooth ship," while instructional leaders focus on learning and instruction. Effective principals are both managers and instructional leaders, recognizing that both roles are essential and providing a balance between management and instructional skills (Bennis, 2006).

Often, management responsibilities can, if allowed, take up all of a head's time, particularly because management issues are often very pressing and require immediate action. The consensus in the literature is that, although the role of the head as

instructional leader is widely advocated, it is seldom practiced; heads still spend most of their time dealing with managerial issues. Stronge (1988 cited in Bennis, 2006) calculated that elementary school heads spent 62.2% of their time on managerial issues and 11% on instructional leadership issues, even after undergoing training or in-service emphasizing their role as instructional leader. Thus, the image of instructional leadership has become entrenched in the professional rhetoric but all too often is lacking in administrative practice.

Most people are fairly familiar with the numerous management responsibilities of school heads. They are concerned with the overall functioning of the school, including ensuring that it is operational for the commencement of each school term and having a full school staff in place. Heads also manage the school budget and ensure that the funding available will allow the school to operate for the duration of the school year. Heads are responsible for having reasonable timetables in place. In addition, heads are generally asked to oversee discipline, ensure school safety, organize regular staff meetings, and maintain the school's record keeping, busing system, and instructional supplies.

While a head's management function can often seem to constitute a full-time job, it is imperative that principal's maintain a focus on their role in "educational leadership" that is supervision, ensuring quality curriculum and instruction, and ensuring that the school is continually working towards its goals for improvement. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985) "leadership practices of head teachers in high-performing schools include helping to establish clear goals, providing a vision of the good school, and encouraging teachers by assisting them in finding the necessary resources to carry out their jobs." (p.34)

School heads are, primarily, the instructional leaders of their schools, meaning that they shape the environment in which teachers and students succeed or fail. Although teachers are absolutely critical to the learning that takes place at the classroom level, the head teacher addresses school-wide issues in instruction and curriculum that relate to classroom decisions, and as such they have a significant impact on all of the teaching that takes place in the school. Principals, therefore, must understand every facet of instruction at a high level (Beach, 1985). As the instructional leader, the head teacher can affect every factor that encourages student learning in the school, and the principal is also responsible for continually assessing the school's operations and programs to ensure that they are meeting community and school expectations.

One of the key components of instructional leadership is to know what the community and school expects for its students, and maintain a clear focus on the goals or the "vision" for the school. Some schools may not have a clearly stated philosophy or a defined vision of what the school can achieve. In those instances, the head teacher can help the school and community to identify their educational values and set out a vision.

Head teachers are also the shapers of the school culture, which can become either a positive influence or a significant barrier to learning. The elements that make up a school's culture include all aspects of the school's environment that have the potential to influence the learning, discipline, and morale of all those who work and study there.

According to Koech (1999), the ongoing challenge for principals is to identify steps for enhancing school culture and the conditions under which students can learn more, educators can teach more, and everyone can feel welcome and respected.

Therefore, one of the critical roles of heads is that of “morale builder.” Ideally, heads will create a school culture that celebrates growth and high achievement. As Allix (2000) notes, “everyone in the school community should know full well that the head is an unequivocal advocate for excellence and that anything less is unacceptable.” Heads also need to create a school culture in which teachers feel supported, and heads must make every effort to ensure that teachers are successful.

### **2.5.1 Barriers to Women in Educational Leadership**

The largest body of research related to women has examined barriers to women in entering the leadership hierarchy or in moving up that hierarchy. These studies focus on a number of challenges for women and largely expand or repeat the research conducted through 1985. The question that was asked over two decades ago in the *Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity through Education* continues to be appropriate. Why the “higher you go, the fewer you see” syndrome for women in school administration? The research on barriers reviewed in this section responds to the categories identified in the 1985 *Handbook*. The majority of the studies on barriers are self-report surveys or interviews in which women identify the barriers they experienced either obtaining an administrative position or keeping it. Although much has been written on the career paths of males, there is no distinct literature on barriers to White heterosexual males; where barriers are examined as part of male career advancement, race and sexual identity have been the focus. In 1985, the barriers to women were described as either internally imposed or externally imposed. Since that time, the interaction of the two has been examined. The most recent research synthesized for this chapter indicates that more barriers previously identified as internal have been overcome than have barriers previously identified as external (Du Brin & Miller, 2006).



### 2.5.2 Poor Self-Image or Lack of Confidence

The barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence was introduced by Schmuck in 1976, almost 10 years prior to the 1985 production of the first *Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity through Education* (Klein, 1985 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). Twenty years after the original Schmuck citation, several studies have been added to the literature that relates to self-image of women administrators. The results of these studies are not disaggregated by race/ethnicity. Women who aspire to become administrators are more likely to report lowered aspiration or lack of confidence than women who have become administrators. In studies of females aspiring to become administrators, Brown and Irby (1995) cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) found a marked lack of self-confidence. On the other hand, 20 female elementary teachers who had been tapped for the headship but who didn't want to become administrators exhibited no signs of low self-esteem or lack of confidence according to Funk (2004). Although, Walker (1995) and Gupton (1998 as cited in Du Brin & Miller, 2006) both noted that female administrators rarely see themselves as experts, often expressing a lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top, women superintendents studied by Gardner (1990) reported no internal barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence. Grogan (1996 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) found the superintendent aspirants in her study to be very confident of their abilities and qualifications to lead school districts. Similarly, Grogan and Brunner (2005) as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) report that 40% of women in senior central office positions feel competent to take on district leadership positions. Low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence may be different than leadership identify, which is the feeling of belonging to a group of leaders or to a specific level of leadership and of feeling significant within that circle (Harris, 2003). Lack of a leadership identity can lead to a feeling of isolation and the feeling of being

an outsider (Christman, 2003 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). In their findings related to superintendents and aspiring superintendents, Walker (1995) and Scherr (1995) as cited in Du Brin & Miller (2006) indicated that women lack a sense of themselves as leaders and perceive that they have further to go in developing this leadership identity than do men. Perhaps it is this lack of leadership identity, rather than low self-esteem that also perpetuates the perception of women that they must get more information, more education, and more experience in the classroom prior to seeking an administrative position (Du Brin & Miller, 2006).

### **2.5.3 Lack of Aspiration or Motivation**

Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) argued that women's lack of success in obtaining administrative positions was not due to lowered aspiration or lack of motivation on the part of women. Findings since 1985 document a healthy level of aspiration among women. For instance, a 1991 study of 488 central office administrators in New York found that 13.2% of the female respondents aspired to the superintendent. As stated in the previous section, a little over a decade later, Grogan and Brunner (2005 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) found that 40% of women in central office positions plan on pursuing the superintendence position.

### **2.5.4 Family and Home Responsibilities**

Family and home responsibilities, place-bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments. According to Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in

Du Brin & Miller 2006), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility; she continued to voice this concern some 7 years later from data obtained in 1993 (Kamler & Shakeshaft, 1999 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). A 1989 study of Kansas teachers documented family responsibilities as one reason why women teachers were not choosing to enter administration (Hewitt, 1989 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). Native American women in Montana also identified family responsibilities as a barrier to entering administration. Other researchers in the PK–12 field that have found similar tensions between the personal and the professional include Hill and Ragland (1995) and Tonnsen and Pigford (1998 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). In 1993, Rost explored 1,344 female teachers' decisions in making or not making application to elementary or secondary headships. Among her findings was that females were likely to be influenced in their decisions by family care responsibilities; however, these women did have conscious aspirations for leadership careers. Grogan (1996), Gupton (1998), Watkins and Wynn (2003) as cited in Du Brin and Miller (2006) also noted that family responsibilities were considered by women in their decisions to apply for and maintain administrative positions.

### **2.5.5 Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination**

The components of administrative work, as well as the perceived and real male-defined environments in which many women administrators must work, shape women's perceptions of the desirability of administration. The women teachers studied by Hewitt (1989 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006) were discouraged from applying for administrative positions because of their understanding of the definition of the job of the principal. They did not perceive this definition as flexible or open for social

construction. Principals studied by Clemens (1989) and McGovern-Robinett (2002 as cited in Du Brin & Miller, 2006) noted that supportive work environments were essential in choosing to become principals. Fourteen years later, Wynn's (2003 as cited in Du Brin & Miller, 2006) study of teachers with leadership skills determined that these women chose to stay in the classroom, rather than move into administration, partly because of their negative perception of the job of the principal. These women identified student discipline as one of the negative dimensions of the headship.

### **2.5.6 Lack of Support, Encouragement, and Counselling**

Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in Du Brin & Miller, 2006) noted research studies from the late 1970s that pointed out that women traditionally had little support, encouragement, or counselling from family, peers, subordinates, or educational institutions to pursue careers in administration. At this time, even a little support from a few people such as a spouse or an administrator within the school district encouraged women to enter administration or stick with it. Support has continued to be an important factor for women moving into administration.

Most researchers found that family endorsements and support and mentoring made the difference in encouraging women into headship, the superintendence, community college presidencies, and other high-level executive positions in education. Lack of encouragement and support one of the reasons female elementary teachers in Kansas reported not entering administration. Several studies of women of colour noted their lack of encouragement and support, as did a study of native women in Montana (Brown, 2004 as cited in Du Brin & Miller 2006). As late as 2000, Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich found that silence on gender issues in educational administration preparation programs, state education agencies, professional organizations, and among school

board members and associations was still characteristic, and that women equated silence with lack of support (as cited in Du Brin & Miller, 2006).

The role of leadership in the management process of institutions has been sidelined for long even though it is arguably one of the most relevant subject areas in the social sciences which run through all aspects of society. The concept of leadership emerged in the early 1900s and has since attracted a lot of interest in both the corporate world and academia. The number of publications on leadership increased exponentially from about 136 in 1970-71, to about 10,062 in 2001-02 according to Ebsco business and management publications database (Storey, 2004). It is even likely that this number has gone up over the last ten years. Despite the enormous interest that leadership has generated in recent times, there still remains the challenge of having a universally accepted definition of leadership. This has led many researchers to conclude that existing literature on leadership has not generated a school of leadership (Rost, 1993). He further states that existing definitions provided by scholars are not clear, concise, understandable, researchable, practically relevant and persuasive. Bolden (2004) also admits that the understanding of the concept of leadership is often based on a mixture of experience and learning which complicates the attempt to attain a compact definition.

## **2.6 Career Stages of School Heads**

Before exploring the topic, it is worthwhile to look at the different stages that heads will go through in their career journey so that we can have a thorough understanding of their needs. There have been a number of attempts to describe the various stages or phases in a head's professional life. Bolden (2004) identified four broad phases through which leaders commonly pass during the course of their career; namely Formation, Accession, Incumbency and Divestiture.

Each individual leader will have his or her own journey through these phases. Davis, Schoorman and Donaldson (1997) in a study on 'headteacher development in post' identify an alternative framework which also consists of four phases: Initiation, Development, Autonomy and Disenchantment. But this framework is focused on a head's career pattern once they are in post. That is the phase of Incumbency. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (1999) modified Davis et al. (1997)' four-phase framework of Initiation, Development, and Autonomy and replace the final phase of Disenchantment with Advancement. In the study of the professional development of school heads, it is useful to explore the characteristics of each sub-phase under Incumbency in order to understand heads' professional development needs at different stages.

Initiation is the first sub-phase of Incumbency. Following an appointment to headship there is an immediate process of induction or 'initiation (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997). During this early period of headship, the beginning heads are familiarized with the organizational and workplace norms, and the new roles they are expected to fulfill. They also take induction courses to supplement their specific needs. According to Hughes et al. (1999)' study school heads involved themselves in wider perspectives in whatever field they think it is important. They have to establish relationships with colleagues, learn to cope with the stresses and strains of the job, and begin to formulate a vision for the school. Hence, this is a time of steep learning and competency building. Evidence indicates that this evolutionary period takes up to three years before a head is fully initiated into the post (Davis et al. 1997).

Development is the second sub-phase which takes about four to eight years (Davis et al. 1997). This phase is generally characterized by enthusiasm and growth. The heads are in control, have the measure of the job and are developing wide range of competencies required to carry out their roles and responsibilities effectively. Though

they have developed a strong sense of confidence in their ability to manage the school, ongoing personal professional development is viewed as important and is achieved by moving to another headship, developing new roles within the same school, getting secondment or taking further training (Hughes et al., 1999).

Autonomy comes after eight or more years into the job of headship. The head teachers at this period are generally very confident and competent. They have learnt strategies to cope with the personal stresses and strains of the job and are able to tackle the problems they face. Their increasing sense of competence and confidence may provide them with the strength to start tackling broader educational issues faced both within the school, and beyond it. They also may find time for involvement in other professional organizations.

Advancement is the final period of Incumbency. This last phase may take two alternative patterns, one characterized by Enchantment and the other by Disenchantment. Hughes et al. (1999) suggested that heads might have two main alternative career routes through their professional lives. Whilst they seem to have similar beginnings to their career, the second half may follow a different pattern. Their study indicated that some heads were even more confident, enthusiastic and visionary about what they could do. Whilst certain heads exhibited declining confidence, a lack of enthusiasm and a feeling of increasing fatigue with the pressure of the job.

### **2.6.1 Stages of Professional Development for School Heads**

Preparation, induction and in-service development are the three stages that school leaders need to go through in their professional careers. Special programs of development are designed to cater for the needs of aspiring, new and experienced heads. Cole (2005) suggested three distinct phases in an administrator's career which includes pre-service preparation, induction and ongoing in-service education. These three phases

are interrelated and interactive in nature. Pre- Pre-service preparation consists of those learning activities and other processes that take place prior to initial job placement. Recruitment, selection, training, licensure, and placement into a first job are all components of the pre-service preparation phase.

Induction is the period in a person's career when he or she is in a new position in an organization. The process of induction is not necessarily concluded after one year in a new job. Induction may take several years to complete, depending on conditions in the organization, the nature of the role, and the characteristics of the individual. In-service education consists of learning opportunities that are provided to school heads while they are actually doing the job. These opportunities may help heads to perform the duties more efficiently, or enhance personal growth and development.

### **2.6.2 Needs in Professional Development**

Needs identification of school heads is the foundation stone of an effective school. To be effective, school leaders need professional development to improve their skills. It is firmly believed that effective leadership creates effective schools. For professional development, all staff share responsibilities in identifying needs in the school. Jaques and Clement (1997) suggested that the responsibilities of individuals are twofold: to participate in any need identification activities and to recognize the extent and the nature of the needs that are identified. In other words, the principal has the responsibility to identify and acknowledge his or her own needs at each career stage.

The process of identifying needs can be divided into three stages: needs identification (data gathering), needs analysis (data interpretation) and priority setting (choices for action). Needs arise from the desire of the heads to build on their strengths and to improve their performance in their schools and in all other aspects of their work.



However, heads have different needs and come to the job with different prior learning experiences, development of the needs assessment instrument is necessary. Needs identification can be achieved through diagnostic documents, questionnaires, informal discussion and appraisal interview. At present, there is not a mechanism for the head teachers in Hong Kong to identify their own needs. However, it has already been confirmed that the head teacher appraisal system will be established in every school in the near future and it can be used as a method of need identification. Needs analysis is the second stage of identifying needs. It about “knows oneself. The main function of knowing oneself is to clarify one's limitations and weaknesses. The assumption is that once these are known, then improvements can be sought. This is the way that principals learn and change. It is noted that needs change with time and there should be a basis for ongoing and continuing review (Anamuah-Mensah, 2006).

In a study, Chan and Maubourgne (1992), interviewed a group of head teachers and found that the head teachers' needs are constantly changing, as they have to respond to new challenges within their schools. Moreover, there are different types of professional development needs.

According to Koech (1999), there is the need to learn new skills in response to new situations, such as those created by current educational reforms; the need to respond to new policy requirements such as those relating to information technology competency; the need for career development and the need for continuing improvement in a present job. It is important for the principals not to lose sight of the close link between their own development and school improvement. When priorities of needs are decided, appropriate training and development activities should be taken to seek improvement.

### **2.6.3 Professional Development Needs of Beginning Heads**

The roles of the heads within secondary schools includes responsibilities which have increased over the last eight or nine years through the process of education reform. The expanded responsibilities in the areas of management, increased community expectations on school improvement and accountability, increased staff and student expectations for high quality leadership and a supportive school environment have contributed to the pressures facing school principals. Particularly for the beginning principals, who start their initial introduction to the position, find difficulty in adjusting to the new environment.

### **2.6.4 Professional Development for Experienced Heads**

Based on the research of Davis et al. (1997) which has been discussed earlier, the beginning heads will move from the 'initiation' phase to the 'development' phase and 'autonomy' phase. Generally speaking, heads that have more than three years of experience can be grouped as experienced principals. The literature pertaining to professional development of heads is relatively recent. Most of the researchers in the 1990s suggest that for the heads to enhance the possibilities of bringing about significant changes in the school, they need to acquire new or additional knowledge and skills. Apparently, professional development is the most popular format.

Hughes et al. (1999) made an analysis of fifty studies on in-service professional development for school heads over a ten-year period in the United States. In looking at the content of the in-service programmes, they concluded that firstly in-service professional development for heads is regarded as effective when content is based on the needs of the participants. Secondly, desired course content is concerned with topics of immediate concern to the school heads. Programmes related to effective time

management are most welcome by practitioners. The last finding can be supported by the responses to Consultation Paper (2009) on Leadership Training Programme for heads given by the Association of Heads of Secondary Schools in Hong Kong. The responses stated that "If we agree that serving heads are of different calibre, expertise and at varying levels of professionalism and experience, then they should be provided with different courses and programs." This revealed that there is a relationship between the head's background and the desired in-service program content. The professional development needs of beginning heads appear to be different from the serving experienced heads (Hughes et al., 1999, Anamuah-Mensah, 2006, Godwyll, 2008).

## **2.7. Leadership and Performance**

Researchers such as Allix (2001) and Northouse (2007) have explicitly demonstrated the plausible relationship between leadership and performance. Although more work needs to be done on an acceptable leadership concept that transcends organizational performance, it still remains that the concern of leadership is not mutually exclusive from the concern of performance.

### **2.7.2 Staff Monitoring**

One of the leading roles of female head teachers is to ensure a good organizational environment which is open and motivating, satisfying and imperative to job distribution and to encourage employees to be more productive all the time. The head teacher needs to have the knowledge and all the dynamics of managing human personnel. Such dynamics include motivations of employees, knowledge in leadership styles, delegation of duties and responsibilities to the employees and styles of communication (Onyango, 2009). In educational management, women have been noted

to exhibit characteristics such as empathy, compassion, supporting, patience, attention to detail and ability to integrate people to listen to them and to motivate them through non-monetary incentives (Funk, 2004). Based on the above knowledge, female head teachers perform very well in motivating teachers, maintaining good staff relation and they also participate in the staff welfare decisions making.

### **2.7.3 Administration**

School administration refers to the process concerned with identifying, maintaining, controlling and unifying, formally and informally organized human and material energies within integrated system designed to accomplish pre-determined objectives. Kruger, Witziers and Slegers (2007) defined administration as the process of acquiring and allocating resources for their achievement of the organizational goals. Neither schools nor other institution could remain effective or survive for long without some type of administrative structure and personnel (Docheff 2011). Leithwood (2012) also highlighted that an Advancing Women in Leadership effective head teacher or leader is someone who helps the school achieve a positive school climate, increased time on instructive tasks, regular and systematic student evaluations community support and adequate resources.

In the education sector in Kenya, administration has often been seen as requiring certain male characteristics and drive. The stereotypical woman is said to lack such qualities, having been socialised into 'female' attitudes and behaviour which discourages her and others from seeing themselves as potential head teachers. However, the criteria involved in the selection of head teachers emphasize the „male aspects of the job in a fairly arbitrary manner. This also excluded women from administrative position and the reason for the under representation of women at school head teacher

levels on the basis of traditional perception of female and what constitutes good leadership (Huber, 2004).

School administration involves managing, administering the curriculum and teaching, pastoral care, discipline, assessment evaluation and examinations, resource allocation, costing and forward planning, staff appraisal relationship with the community, use of the practical skills necessary for surviving the policies of organisation such as decision-making, negotiation, bargaining, communication, conflict handling, running meetings and so on (Owolabi, 1997). All these tasks can be reduced to the following: planning, organising, directing, supervising, and evaluating the school system. These activities are those of the school principal who must ensure they are all directed towards efficient and effective teaching and learning in the school so as to be able to produce quality outputs. By implication, the principal of a school is a planner, director, controller, coordinator, organiser, adviser and a problem-solver (Harris, 2003). The principal is the person on whose shoulders rest the entire administration, success or failure of the school. The principal identifies and set goals and objectives of the school, which of course, must be in line with the national objectives, analyses tasks and share responsibilities of the staff according to specialization and expertise (Huber, 2004).

Several studies have discussed the administrative roles of principals. Owolabi (1997) stated that within the secondary school system, the principal stands out as the chief executive of the school, he is also the school administrator, the instructional leader, the personnel manager for both the pupils (students) and staff personnel. The principal is also the finance and physical facility manager. The principal is expected to maintain a good relationship with the immediate community and also ensure a continuous contact with the ministry of education in the area in which the school is

situated. There are several categories of administrative task areas in the school system. There are pupil personnel, staff personnel, instruction and curriculum development, school.

#### **2.7.4 Resource Management**

Schools physical facilities include buildings, constructional equipment and playground. On the other hand, material resources as explained by Onyango (2009) are those resources designed, modified and prepared to assist in teaching and learning. Learning involves identification of the resources, assessing quality in terms of needs, establishing criteria for standards determining the cost per unit and the use of the materials whether in groups or by individuals.

#### **2.7.5 Professional Leadership**

Apart from being an administrator, the head teacher should be conversant with what takes place in the classroom. Oluoch (1980) once commented that teachers have been asked to reconsider their teaching method so as to check the rising failure rate). Onyango (2009) emphasized that it is the responsibility of the head teacher to correctly articulate to the teaching staff the overall aims and objectives of the school's curriculum. This will guide teachers in formulating policies for their respective subjects and in preparation of schemes of work and lesson plans. Leithwood (2012) suggested that in managing curriculum and instruction, it is important that the head teacher comes up with supervisory programme. The significance of a good supervisory programme is the achievement of improved and well organized performance for the head teachers. The majority of female head, teachers organized learning activities to cope with large numbers in class. Most female head teachers supervised and checked documents and

instruction as part of curriculum and instruction. Their activities in the area of curriculum and instruction proved beyond doubt that they managed this role very well.

### **2.7.6 Pastoral Responsibilities**

A survey conducted by Rost (1993) demonstrated that a small number of participants recognised the ‘divide’ between the pastoral (nurturing) and the academic. Academic progress is, at times, referred to as a separate issue outside of the realm of pastoral care, yet it is acknowledged that these two aspects are inextricably linked (Hackman 2002). Hackman (2002) discusses the importance of pastoral care and academic mentoring functioning in a complementary way (Hackman 2002). The consideration of academic and pastoral care as interdependent is necessary in order to best meet the needs of the whole child and address the primary goal of pastoral care which is to support the learning process (Huber, 2004).

The role of the female head teacher within the pastoral care structure attempts to address those aspects of care that can create a sense of belonging and therefore well-being for their students (Hackman, 2002). The importance of teacher-student relationships, student-student relationships, mentor or leadership programmes, and extra-curricular activities in schools indicates the value of strong personal relationships within the school community (Funk, 2004). Academic mentoring has been found to have positive impacts on student outcomes, such as, attitude and motivation (Harris 2003; Huber 2004). One of the issues with much of the research that has been conducted in this area is that it is correlational in nature, and hence does not allow causality to be established (Leithwood, 2012). It is difficult to determine if it is the characteristics of the school that promote a sense of well-being or that students holding a stronger sense of belonging and well-being ultimately influence other characteristics

of the school, such as participation in extra-curricular activities or interpersonal relationships.

It has been suggested that trusting relationships established through honest and open communication and positive involvement between young people and adults can assist adolescents in developing relationships with teachers that cognitively represent caregiver-child attachment (Harris, 2003). This is representative, often, of the relationship between the student and the female head teacher and links to the concept that the sense of belonging that begins at a personal level can promote a positive, protective sense of belonging between the student and the school (Huber, 2004).

#### **2.7.7 Communication and Public Relations**

It is equally imperative for schools to maintain a healthy relationship with the community. The school is required to benefit that community directly. The head teacher should therefore create a co-existence relationship between the school and the large community. Harris (2003) warned that unless the head teacher establishes effective communication with the community, he will not be successful in promoting new innovations in the school. This is particularly true in Kenya where most of the new projects such as the construction of laboratories and libraries undertaken by schools are carried out by the community. Most female head teachers integrated school interest with those of other community groups by involving the community in development projects for their schools. Huber, (2004) pointed out that a woman's potential for connection makes women value intimacy and develop a capacity for nurturance, and an ethic of care for the other with which they are connected, creating interdependence with and in the community. This makes it easier for female head teachers to co-exist in



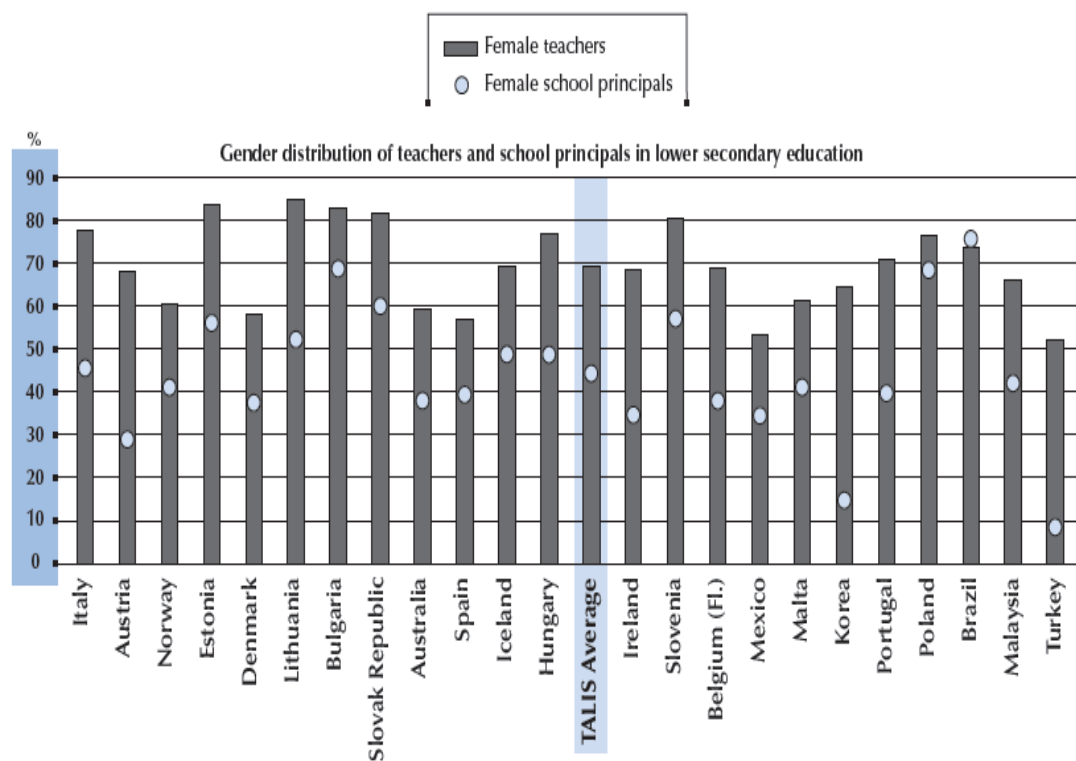
harmony and have a cordial relationship between the community and the school, hence, enabling them to perform their roles in this area effectively.

## **2.8 Representation**

Despite the compelling reasons for the equal representation of women in leadership, progress is slow. The United Nations 4<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995 established that, despite the widespread movement towards democratisation in most countries, women were largely under-represented at most levels of government and had made little progress in attaining political power (Harris 2003). A decade later, to try to speed progress, the Millennium Development Goals (Leithwood, 2012) set up as one of their first aims to promote gender equality and empower women at all levels of education and in all areas of employment.

Gender disparity in educational management has been widely analysed by scholars in industrialised economies (Koech 1999; Leithwood 2012; Huber 2004). However, relatively little is known regarding the barriers that women teachers face when aspiring to and applying for career promotion and their experiences in the role of principal in developing economies (Huber 2004). Research has shown that, globally, women tend to dominate the teaching profession across most sectors of schooling, but when it comes to positions of management they are generally still the minority (Koech, 1999; Leithwood, 2012; Huber 2004).

The TALIS international survey conducted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) across 23 countries found that, on average, almost 70 per cent of teachers in lower secondary schools were female, whereas on average only 45 per cent of school principals were female in the participating countries, as in Figure 2.1:



**Figure 2.1 Gender gap in the distribution of teachers, Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)**

(Source: OECD, 2009: 27 cited in Leithwood 2012]

Representation is likely to be lower still in many non-OECD countries (Leithwood, 2012). It seems that males move far more readily up the career ladder to become school head teachers.

## 2.9 The experience of becoming and being a leader

The route to school management or administration varies across the world. In some countries, it is a specialised pathway involving a full pre-service university programme, whereas in others promotion from teaching into an administrative role is common with, in some cases, in-service education (Huber, 2004). Many female principals assume leadership roles via the latter route. Administrative education and specialisation is increasingly being required through pre-service and in-service

education. Acquiring such education is often more problematic for women who juggle domestic responsibilities with their job and any additional study or training.

Once appointed, it has been widely reported that men and women experience leadership in different ways. Studies have shown that, whilst gender is not an issue for men, women leaders are still perceived and perceive themselves as challenging the norm (Huber, 2004). Hoy and Miskel (2001), whose research is based in the US, claim that women do not lack confidence in their abilities and they aspire to most administrative positions, but institutional racism and sexism persist and discourage women's move into leadership. Evidence shows that women in general have more constraints than men in being appointed to and performing leader positions in education. Gender is still a factor that causes challenges and tensions for women leaders and those with whom they work (Harber & Davey, 1997).

## **2.10 Experiencing leadership**

Leadership is a concept formulated in context. Practices related to educational administration vary across societies and cultures as individuals construct and experience leadership in different ways. However, it is possible to identify some commonalities concerning the barriers women face in becoming and being a leader in schools in different contexts. There are limitations in our knowledge in that literature on women leaders has often failed to address the impact of other important characteristics such as class, race, culture, ethnicity, age and sexual orientation. Despite this limitation, it is possible to discern some patterns in women's experience across nations and school contexts (Harris, 2003; Koech 1999; Funk, 2004). The subsections that follow focus on the experience of female teachers and leaders within educational settings, particularly in developing economies. Recurrent themes emerge from research

related to the main constraints women face when being appointed and when performing roles in educational administration, and the different approaches that have been proposed in order to address women's lack of representation in educational leadership.

### **2.10.1 Traditional stereotypes**

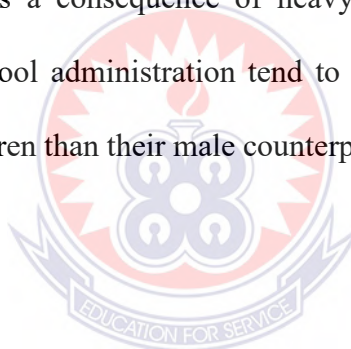
Women teachers who try to advance professionally often face cultural and social stereotyping that allocates them to specific and junior roles. A study by Walker and Dimmock (2006) of educational leadership in Israel exemplifies the limiting conditions of Arab women living in a patriarchal and hierarchical society structured by gender and age.

Koech (1999), in a study exploring the relationship between gender and teacher leadership in South Africa, found that in rural communities women have very little credibility as leaders, since effective leadership is associated with the physically strong and thus perceived as the domain of men. Discipline is associated with corporal punishment and women are viewed as not having the physical power to discipline children. Across cultures there is a prototype of leadership that men are assumed to match and women do not. This has consequences not just for those aspiring to leadership roles but for those in role. In a study based in South Africa, Owolabi (1997) found that female teachers tended to accept their assigned roles as women and that those who challenged the established order and became leaders were not well supported by their colleagues. Harris (2003) stresses that in South Africa women leaders do not always have the support of their communities and have to prove their capability as leaders under conditions of oppressive critical scrutiny.

### **2.10.2 Domestic responsibilities**

A second barrier relates to the demands of family life and expectations of the relative roles of men and women. In Uganda, Onyango (2009) suggest that women who

became school principals 'remained single because of social taboos regarding the relative education levels of marriage partners. Men could not imagine getting married to a head teacher'. In a study of women educational leaders in Godwyll et al. (2013) found that family attachment was the major reason why women teachers did not apply for school principal positions. Women consult their husbands before applying and if men do not approve then women will not apply. Storey (2004) had similar results in relation to gender equality in principals in Mexico. The aspirations of professional women were often frustrated due to family obligations that prevented women accepting promotion. Cortina found that the participation of women teachers in leadership was only possible if their wages allowed them to pay for domestic help. Several scholars have highlighted that, as a consequence of heavy domestic responsibilities, more women than men in school administration tend to be unmarried and those who are married have fewer children than their male counterparts (Hoy & Miskel 2001; Storey, 2004).



### **2.10.3 The role of mentoring**

Lack of encouragement is a third barrier. In a study based in English secondary schools, Silins and Mulford (2004) found that women teachers are more likely than men to be encouraged by people outside school and the same trend has been found across other less developed economies and ethnic minority groups living in industrialised countries. Yukl (1994), in a study of Latina educational leaders in the US, found that minority female educational leaders lack sponsorship and mentors, and contend with the double burden of ethnic and gender stereotyping. Similar findings were obtained by Hoy and Miskel (2001). Hoy and Miskel found that the participants in her study succeeded without the benefit of traditional mentoring through the use of alternative

sources of support available to them. She concludes that provision of mentorship need not come from above, but may be horizontally accessed and preferentially selected.

Harber and Daveys (1997) suggest that women leaders may be a symbol and role model for other women, and act as social agents promoting gender equality and changing the structure of the gender power relations in school. However, she also recognises that this is not the case for all women, as female school leaders display more diversified behaviour to other women than male school leaders display to men.

#### **2.10.4 Discrimination at work**

The fourth barrier identified has to do with the politics of teaching (Hackman (2002) or the way organisational structures are configured. Harris (2003) found that women teachers in Zimbabwe felt that discrimination was implicit in the organisational structure and in the attitudes of those in authority. Harris (2003), in his study of the subordination of women in the teaching profession in Mexico, found that, in addition to family constraints, most teachers were trapped between the elites of the ministry of education and the national teachers' union and had little say about their working conditions. In this respect, the terms 'glass ceiling' and 'glass walls' represent the unequal structures existing within educational organisations though, as Funk (2004) suggests, the horizontal and vertical barriers are neither consistent across cultures, nor homogenous within each culture.

For instance, Jaques and Clement (1997) findings show that in the Jewish state sector the glass ceiling effect was located at the top administrative position, whereas in the religious state sector and in the Arab sector it was located at the middle and in the lowest rank, respectively, of the schools' administrative positions. Koech (1999) provide a further example of the 'glass ceiling', as the mobility chances of men increase

as the percentage of women in the occupation rises. Similarly, in a study exploring school-based gender inequalities in central south-eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, Magno and Silova (2007) found that the percentage of female teachers has increased during the transition period across the region due to the declining status of teaching as a profession and the decrease in teacher salaries. Despite this, men are more likely than women to be promoted to school leadership posts with higher salaries. Women in female-dominated occupations such as teaching have not converted their numerical dominance into power. A further barrier within organisational structures occurs when women leaders are recognised and placed as token, rather than real and influential, leaders within their schools. The practice of tokenism is found in many different contexts (Cole & Southworth, 2005).

On the other hand, according to Rost (1993) the term 'glass wall' refers to occupational segregation, that is, barriers that restrict women's access to certain types of jobs or roles. Glass walls are likely to persist when the skills necessary to perform jobs in a given agency are not highly valued outside the agency. Women's frequent confinement to pastoral, 'caring' roles is a common example of a glass wall in education.

### **2.11 Approaches to leadership**

Research has found that men and women do not lead and manage in completely distinctive ways. On the contrary, there is an overlap in their management styles (Cole & Southworth, 2005). Huber (2004) sees it as a continuum of feminine and masculine styles in which women in senior management positions make adaptations and adjustments, and develop practices associated with masculinity in order to be seen as authentic leaders. Consequently, women leaders in education adopt characteristics in common with those of male peers as well as female subordinates. However, some

studies have noted that women may, nevertheless, tend to different ways of leading, more commonly favouring supportive and inclusive approaches than men.

### **2.11.1 Strategies to advance professionally**

Despite all the obstacles, women manage to achieve leadership roles within schools. Some argue that the chief barrier is not structural or societal attitudes, but women's low self-esteem and lack of confidence. Rost (1993) in their study in Zimbabwe, for instance, found that all women described being pushed into principalship by others. However, Huber (2004) calls these arguments 'favourite explanations' and other studies report alternative findings, suggesting that the difficulties encountered by women in achieving promotion are caused by other factors and not women's self-belief. When women do lack self-esteem, it may be a consequence of the imposition of traditional male dominance at the macro-level, and the patriarchal culture at the meso-level. Evidence has also demonstrated that the fear of failure tends to be reduced once women are aware of the rules of the game. Fear of the unknown is hardly surprising, given women's virtual exclusion for so long from the male-dominated world of educational administration (Cole & Southworth, 2005).

### **2.11.2 Education and training**

Even in highly patriarchal societies women can attain independence and leadership through higher levels of education. Huber (2004) argues that, to achieve more equitable representation in educational administration, women teachers particularly need education and training programmes. Similar conclusions were reached by other scholars researching in various parts of the world (Cole & Southworth, 2005).



### **2.11.3 Supporting alternative approaches to leadership**

Different approaches to leadership (collaborative leadership, school-based management, distributed leadership) have also been promoted as a strategy to distribute responsibilities to teachers within schools and embrace originally excluded sectors into leadership on the basis that ‘all people have leadership potential’ (Huber 2004). These collective approaches to leadership emphasise that school improvement and effectiveness can be achieved if a variety of people work together (Harris, 2003). More inclusive forms of leadership are argued to be more attractive to women, supporting both their entry into and their tenure as school leaders. However, other scholars see such approaches as problematic (Cole & Southworth, 2005), both because in many parts of the world current market conditions in the educational sector hinder the development of innovative power-sharing forms of management, and because women adopting democratic forms of management are at risk of being associated with inefficiency if their practice seems to work in opposition to the market imperative. Harris (2003) believes that within the contemporary educational marketplace an increasing number of women are achieving senior management positions and moving into contexts where traditional nurturing femininity is at odds with the perceived demands of their post. The growing emphasis on measured outputs, competition and entrepreneurship both demands and rewards primarily the assertiveness and authority of masculinity rather than the aesthetics of femininity (Koech, 1999).

### **2.12 Career Stages of School Heads**

Before exploring the topic, it is worthwhile to look at the different stages that heads will go through in their career journey so that we can have a thorough understanding of their needs. There have been a number of attempts to describe the

various stages or phases in a head's professional life. Harris (2003) identified four broad phases through which leaders commonly pass during the course of their career; namely Formation, Accession, Incumbency and Divestiture.

Each individual leader will have his/her own journey through these phases. Cole and Southworth (2005) in a study on 'headteacher development in post' identify an alternative framework which also consists of four phases: Initiation, Development, Autonomy and Disenchantment. But this framework is focused on a head's career pattern once they are in post. That is the phase of Incumbency. Hughes et al. (1999) modified Harber and Daveys (1997) four-phase framework of Initiation, Development, and Autonomy and replace the final phase of Disenchantment with Advancement. In the study of the professional development of school heads, it is useful to explore the characteristics of each sub-phase under Incumbency in order to understand heads' professional development needs at different stages.

Initiation is the first sub-phase of Incumbency. Following an appointment to headship there is an immediate process of induction or 'initiation (Cole & Southworth, 2005). During this early period of headship the beginning heads are familiarized with the organizational and workplace norms, and the new roles they are expected to fulfill. They also take induction courses to supplement their specific needs. According to Bush and Jackson's study (2002), school heads involved themselves in wider perspectives in whatever field they think it is important. They have to establish relationships with colleagues, learn to cope with the stresses and strains of the job, and begin to formulate a vision for the school. Hence, this is a time of steep learning and competency building. Evidence indicates that this evolutionary period takes up to three years before a head is fully initiated into the post (Cole & Southworth 2005).

Development is the second sub-phase which takes about four to eight years (Cole & Southworth, 2005). This phase is generally characterized by enthusiasm and growth. The heads are in control, have the measure of the job and are developing wide range of competencies required to carry out their roles and responsibilities effectively. Though they have developed a strong sense of confidence in their ability to manage the school, ongoing personal professional development is viewed as important and is achieved by moving to another headship, developing new roles within the same school, getting secondment or taking further training (Bush & Jackson 2002).

Autonomy comes after eight or more years into the job of headship. The head teachers at this period are generally very confident and competent. They have learnt strategies to cope with the personal stresses and strains of the job and are able to tackle the problems they face. Their increasing sense of competence and confidence may provide them with the strength to start tackling broader educational issues faced both within the school, and beyond it. They also may find time for involvement in other professional organizations. Advancement is the final period of Incumbency. This last phase may take two alternative patterns, one characterized by Enchantment and the other by Disenchantment. Cole and Southworth (2005) suggested that heads might have two main alternative career routes through their professional lives. Whilst they seem to have similar beginnings to their career, the second half may follow a different pattern. Their study indicated that some heads were even more confident, enthusiastic and visionary about what they could do. Whilst certain heads exhibited declining confidence, a lack of enthusiasm and a feeling of increasing fatigue with the pressure of the job.

### **2.12.1 Stages of Professional Development for School Heads**

Preparation, induction and in-service development are the three stages that school leaders need to go through in their professional careers. Special programs of development are designed to cater for the needs of aspiring, new and experienced heads. Bush and Jackson (2002) suggested three distinct phases in an administrator's career which includes pre-service preparation, induction and ongoing in-service education. These three phases are interrelated and interactive in nature. Pre- Pre-service preparation consists of those learning activities and other processes that take place prior to initial job placement. Recruitment, selection, training, licensure, and placement into a first job are all components of the pre-service preparation phase.

Induction is the period in a personal career when he or she is in a new position in an organization. The process of induction is not necessarily concluded after one year in a new job. Induction may take several years to complete, depending on conditions in the organization, the nature of the role, and the characteristics of the individual. In-service education consists of learning opportunities that are provided to school heads while they are actually doing the job. These opportunities may help heads to perform the duties more efficiently, or enhance personal growth and development.

### **2.12.2 Needs in Professional Development**

Needs identification of school heads is the foundation stone of an effective school. To be effective, school leaders need professional development to improve their skills. It is firmly believed that effective leadership creates effective schools. For professional development, all staff share responsibilities in identifying needs in the school. Cole and Southworth (2005) suggested that the responsibilities of individuals are twofold: to participate in any need identification activities and to recognize the

extent and the nature of the needs that are identified. In other words, the principal has the responsibility to identify and acknowledge his or her own needs at each career stage.

The process of identifying needs can be divided into three stages: needs identification (data gathering), needs analysis (data interpretation) and priority setting (choices for action). Needs arise from the desire of the heads to build on their strengths and to improve their performance in their schools and in all other aspects of their work. However, heads have different needs and come to the job with different prior learning experiences, development of the needs assessment instrument is necessary. Needs identification can be achieved through diagnostic documents, questionnaires, informal discussion and appraisal interview. At present, there is not a mechanism for the head teachers in Hong Kong to identify their own needs. However, it has already been confirmed that the head teacher appraisal system will be established in every school in the near future and it can be used as a method of need identification. Needs analysis is the second stage of identifying needs. It about “knows oneself. The main function of knowing oneself is to clarify one's limitations and weaknesses. The assumption is that once these are known, then improvements can be sought. This is the way that principals learn and change. It is noted that needs change with time and there should be a basis for ongoing and continuing review.

In a study, Cole and Southworth (2005) interviewed a group of head teachers and found that the head teachers' needs are constantly changing, as they have to respond to new challenges within their schools. Moreover, there are different types of professional development needs.

According to Harris (2003), there is the need to learn new skills in response to new situations, such as those created by current educational reforms; the need to respond to new policy requirements such as those relating to information technology

competency; the need for career development and the need for continuing improvement in a present job. It is important for the principals not to lose sight of the close link between their own development and school improvement. When priorities of needs are decided, appropriate training and development activities should be taken to seek improvement.

### **2.12.3 Professional Development Needs of Beginning Heads**

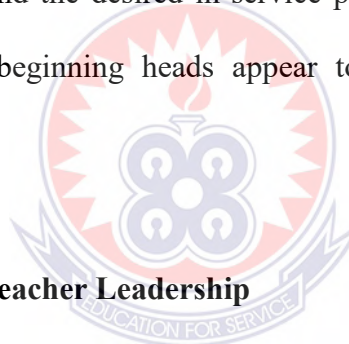
The roles of the heads within secondary schools includes responsibilities which have increased over the last eight or nine years through the process of education reform. The expanded responsibilities in the areas of management, increased community expectations on school improvement and accountability, increased staff and student expectations for high quality leadership and a supportive school environment have contributed to the pressures facing school principals. Particularly for the beginning principals, who start their initial introduction to the position, find difficulty in adjusting to the new environment.

### **2.12.4 Professional Development for Experienced Heads**

Based on the research of Cole and Southworth (2005) which has been discussed earlier, the beginning heads will move from the 'initiation' phase to the 'development' phase and 'autonomy' phase. Generally speaking, heads that have more than three years of experience can be grouped as experienced principals. The literature pertaining to professional development of heads is relatively recent. Most of the researchers in the 1990s suggest that for the heads to enhance the possibilities of bringing about significant changes in the school, they need to acquire new or additional knowledge and skills. Apparently, professional development is the most popular format.

Bush and Jackson (2002) made an analysis of fifty studies on in-service professional development for school heads over a ten-year period in the United States.

In looking at the content of the in-service programmes, they concluded that firstly in-service professional development for heads is regarded as effective when content is based on the needs of the participants. Secondly, desired course content is concerned with topics of immediate concern to the school heads. Programmes related to effective time management are most welcome by practitioners. The last finding can be supported by the responses to Consultation Paper (2009) on Leadership Training Programme for heads given by the Association of Heads of Secondary Schools in Hong Kong. The responses stated that "If we agree that serving heads are of different calibre, expertise and at varying levels of professionalism and experience, then they should be provided with different courses and programs." This revealed that there is a relationship between the head's background and the desired in-service program content. The professional development needs of beginning heads appear to be different from the serving experienced heads.



## **2.13 Benefits of Head Teacher Leadership**

### **2.13.1 Improving School Effectiveness**

Collaboration between teachers has been found to be a necessary concomitant of school improvement and change as well a contributory factor to school effectiveness (Cole & Southworth, 2005). The shared goals and values at the core of teacher leadership is also an important influential factor in generating effective schools (Bush & Jackson 2002). Harris (2003) suggests that where teachers are placed in leadership positions they are able to contribute more directly to organisational effectiveness and improvement. Some authors suggest that schools need to move from a hierarchical, top-down structure towards a more democratic model, in which teachers can directly influence development and change (Cole & Southworth 2005). A study of over 600

teachers found that teacher participation in decision making was positively related to school effectiveness (Chan & Maubourgne, 1992). Similarly, a longitudinal qualitative study of teachers who had taken on teacher leadership roles in restructuring schools found that teachers responded positively to their increased participation in decision making and that this directly contributed to school effectiveness (Bush & Jackson, 2002).

Other studies have also reported positive effects of teacher participation in decision making. Koech (1999) found that in schools with strong collaborative teacher-principal leadership there was evidence of significant gains in pupil learning and achievement. Not all studies however have found such positive effects.

An element of schooling that is attracting increasing interest is that of democratic learning. If schools are to support democratic values, and encourage pupils to function as critical and active citizens, they themselves should model democracy through collaborative and democratic leadership. Too often, pupils are expected to obtain democratic values through lessons on citizenship, while the example they are given within the school is that of strict hierarchy and autocratic leadership, in which neither they nor their teachers participate. If, what we do is likely to more powerfully affect pupils than what we say, this is a highly unsatisfactory situation. This means that for schools to foster democratic learning requires moving away from traditional top-down management and getting teachers to take responsibility (and accountability).

### **2.13.2 Improving Head Teacher Effectiveness**

Research has shown that effective schools place an emphasis upon the teaching and learning processes and invest in teacher development time. Of all the school level characteristics, it is those that relate to teaching that have the most empirical support



(Harris, 2003). It is those factors that are most immediately proximal to, and therefore most immediately experienced by students (i.e. teacher behaviors in the classroom) that will most immediately affect student achievement. Harris (2003) points out, teacher leadership can improve teacher effectiveness in a number of ways. The emphasis on continuous learning and excellence in teaching can improve the quality of teachers, while the emphasis on spreading good practice to colleagues can lead to increasing the expertise of teachers throughout the school. The increased expertise and confidence of teachers, coupled with the greater responsibilities vested in them, will make teachers more willing to take risks and introduce innovative teaching methods, which should have a direct positive effect on teacher effectiveness.

Recent research has explored the effects of school and teacher leadership on students' engagement with school (Cole & Southworth, 2005). The study considered principal and teacher leadership separately, as well as the relative effects of these two sources of leadership.

The findings suggest that teacher leadership explained more variation in student learning and had an important influence on teacher effectiveness. The research study concluded that teacher leadership far outweighs principal leadership effects before taking into account the moderating effects of family educational culture (Cole & Southworth, 2005). Evidence from this study suggests that principal leadership does not stand out as a critical part of the change process but that teacher leadership demonstrates a significant effect on student engagement. The study concluded that distributing a larger proportion of current leadership activity to teachers would have a positive influence on teacher effectiveness and student engagement (Cole & Southworth, 2005).

Research suggests that empowering teachers through teacher leadership improves their self-efficacy in relation to pupil learning. Teacher expectations directly relate to pupil achievement hence strengthening self-efficacy is an important contributory factor of teacher leadership (Harris 2003). A study by Cole and Southworth (2005) found that when teachers took on leadership roles it positively influenced their ability to innovate in the classroom and had a positive effect on student learning outcomes. Some studies have found that taking on leadership roles can improve teacher motivation. For example, in their study of teacher leadership, Avolio (2001) report that teachers felt that the experience had improved their confidence in their own abilities and had taught them to motivate, lead and encourage other adults. Similarly, in their survey of 42 teacher leaders, Allix (2000) reported improved self-confidence, increased knowledge, and an improved attitude to teaching among teachers.

### **2.13.3 Contributing to School Improvement**

There is a body of evidence that demonstrates that teachers work most effectively when they are supported by other teachers and work collegially (Hackman, 2002). Collegial relations and collective practice are at the core of building the capacity for school improvement (Hackman, 2002). It has been shown that the nature of communication between those working together on a daily basis offers the best indicator of organisational health. Hackman (2002) notes that successful schools encourage co-ordination by creating collaborative environments which encourages involvement, professional development, mutual support and assistance in problem solving.

This implies a form of professional development and learning that is premised upon collaboration, co-operation and networking. It implies a view of the school as a learning community where teachers and students learn together.

Building the capacity for school improvement necessitates paying careful attention to how collaborative processes in schools are fostered and developed. Research suggests that where teachers feel confident in their own capacity, in the capacity of their colleagues and in the capacity of the school to promote professional development (Harris, 2003) school improvement is more likely to occur. Building the capacity for school improvement means extending the potential and capabilities of teachers to lead and to work collaboratively. Two studies (Harris 2003; Harber & Daveys, 1997) that provide descriptions of how school leaders provide opportunities for teachers to participate in decision and lead in school development highlight the following structuring behaviours:

1. distributing the responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school;
2. sharing decision making power with staff;
3. allowing staff to manage their own decision making committees;
4. taking staff opinion into account;
5. ensuring effective group problem solving during meetings of staff;
6. providing autonomy for teachers;
7. altering working conditions so that staff have collaborative planning time;
8. ensuring adequate involvement in decision making related to new initiatives in the school;
9. creating opportunities for staff development.

As Oduro and MacBeath (2003) points out, the main goal of the school is to foster student learning and this can be best aided by teachers modeling this activity themselves.

It is posited that teacher leadership necessitates moving away from traditional top-down management and getting teachers to take responsibility and to accept levels of accountability. Kythreotis et al. (2010) asserts that teacher leadership needs to be made available to all; otherwise some teachers will end up as leaders, while others are merely technicians, creating a two-tier system. The clear message from the literature is that school improvement is more likely to occur when leadership is distributed and when teachers have a vested interest in the development of the school (Rost 1993; Koech, 1999).

## **2.14 Barriers to Head Teacher Leadership**

### **2.14.1 Organisational Barriers**

The research evidence would suggest that teacher leadership is advantageous to the individual teacher and the school. However, it also indicates there are a number of barriers that need to be overcome for genuine teacher leadership activity to occur in schools. One of the main barriers to teacher leadership identified in the literature is structural and concerns the 'top-down' leadership model that still dominates in many schools (Kythreotis et al., 2010). Koech (1999) found that teachers' perceived lack of status within the school and the absence of formal authority hindered their ability to lead. Rost (1993) found that the possibility of teacher leadership in any school is dependent upon whether the senior management team within the school relinquishes real power to teachers and the extent to which teachers accept the influence of colleagues who have been designated as leaders in a particular area.

Teacher leadership requires a more devolved approach to management and necessitates shared decision making processes (Kythreotis, Pashiardis & Kyriakides, 2010). Rost's (1993) study found that for teacher leadership to be successful required some structural change within the school and did not necessarily mean relinquishing full control. Indeed, heads in the study claimed that by introducing shared leadership their influence on teaching in the school had increased. Koech (1999) identified support from SMT as a crucial component in the success of teacher leadership. The research found that where such support is not forthcoming the possibilities of teacher leadership are dramatically reduced.

Owolabi (1997) argues that heads will need to become leaders of leaders, striving to develop a relationship of trust with staff, and encouraging leadership and autonomy throughout the school. For teacher leadership to develop, heads must also be willing to allow leadership from those who are not part of their 'inner circle', and might not necessarily agree with them (Rost, 1993). Kythreotis et al. (2010) found that in a number of schools heads started to impose more autocratic forms of leadership after about 2 years, following strong resistance from teachers to the reforms they were trying to implement. Stone et al (1990) found that teachers are also more likely to take on leadership roles if there is already a culture of shared decision making in the school. Owolabi (1997) found that teachers need to be involved in the process of deciding on what roles, if any they wish to take on, and must then feel supported by the school's administration in doing so.

### **2.14.2 Professional Barriers**

A number of studies have identified this as a significant barrier to teacher leadership. In their study of 17 teacher leaders, Owolabi (1997) found that one of the

main barriers to teacher leadership was often a feeling of being isolated from colleagues. Koech (1999) found that sometimes teachers felt less connected to peers when engaging in teacher leadership activities. Owolabi (1997) found that while teachers were happy to acknowledge a hypothetical 'master teacher' or highly effective teacher they were less inclined to accept their colleagues in leadership positions. However, in the school in which collaborative practices were well established, responses to teacher leaders proved to be more positive. The evidence shows that strong peer networks are a key source of support for teacher leadership (Koech, 1999).

Owolabi (1997) suggest that teacher leadership will not occur unless it is underpinned by shared values. He argues that these shared values are developed first and foremost through shared (pedagogical) discussion, observation and team teaching. Hence, it is crucial that teacher leaders work in collaborative teams in order for them to make a difference to the school. Rost (1993) points out that teacher leadership programmes too often end up as individual grant-chasing by teachers, resulting in individual curriculum writing, for example. Research confirms that teacher leadership not only flourishes most in collaborative settings, but one of the tasks of the teacher leader should be to encourage the creation of collaborative cultures in school, and to develop common learning in schools (Rost, 1993; Koech, 1999).

### **2.14.3 Generating and Supporting Head Teacher Leadership**

Principals or headteachers have been found to play a key role in developing teacher leadership. Rost (1993) found that to identify develop and support teacher leaders in their schools, principals needed to encourage teachers to become leaders, help teachers develop leadership skills and provide positive and limited constructive feedback. Similarly, research by Kythreotis et al. (2010) indicated that headteachers

needed to create the infrastructure to support teacher leadership. This work highlights the importance of headteachers creating opportunities for teachers to lead, to build professional learning communities and to celebrate innovation and teacher expertise.

Supporting teacher leadership in schools therefore has a number of important dimensions. Firstly, time needs to be set aside for professional development and collaborative work. Making time for planning together, building teacher networks, and visiting classrooms is important. Teachers reported decreased time for lesson planning and preparation once they had undertaken leadership roles and that this was considered to be detrimental. Docheff (2011) and Leithwood (2012) similarly found that having time 'freed up' for teacher leadership tasks is a crucial element of success. Koech (1999) found that the factors for successful teacher leadership included principal support, strong communicative and administrative skills, an understanding of organisational culture and a reexamination of traditional patterns of power and authority in school systems.

Secondly, teacher leaders need opportunities for continuous professional development in order to develop their role. The research shows that in order to be most effective, teacher leaders need to continuously improve their teaching skills, be involved in school decision making and be involved in the professional development (Kythreotis et al. 2010)

The factors for successful teacher leadership included principal support, strong communicative and administrative skills, an understanding of organisational culture and a reexamination of traditional patterns of power and authority in school systems. Professional development for teacher leadership needs to focus not just on development of teachers' skills and knowledge but also on aspects specific to their leadership role.

Skills such as leading groups and workshops, collaborative work, mentoring, teaching adults and action research need to be incorporated into professional development programmes to help teachers adapt to their new leadership roles (Kythreotis et al., 2010). Furthermore, preparation for teacher leadership tasks can be impeded through lack of follow-up. For teacher leadership to be most effective requires appropriate forms of professional development (Kruger, Witziers & Slegers, 2007).

In the USA, formal training programmes for teacher leaders are widely available. These programmes include leadership skills such as rapport building, organisational diagnosis, dealing with change processes, finding and using resources, managing teacher workload and building skills and confidence in other teachers. Kruger et al. (2007) advocate that heads and teachers should be educated together, breaking down the boundaries between the two forms of leadership to prepare all school staff for participation in truly democratic school structures.

The success or otherwise of teacher leadership within a school is heavily influenced by interpersonal factors and relationships with other teachers and the school management team (Barnet et al., 2005). The ability of teacher leaders to influence colleagues and to develop productive relations with school management, who may in some cases feel threatened by teachers taking on leadership is therefore important. Hostility to teacher leaders can arise through factors such as inertia, over-cautiousness and insecurity. Teacher leaders often experienced conflict between their leadership responsibilities and their need for affiliation and belonging to their peer group. Overcoming these difficulties will require a combination of strong interpersonal skills on the part of the teacher leader and changes to the school culture that encourage change and leadership from teachers.



Consequently, a third dimension of preparing teacher leaders is the need to equip them with good interpersonal skills. Oakley (2000) identified 6 main clusters of skills in their study of teacher leaders:

1. building trust and rapport with colleagues
2. being able to undertake organizational diagnosis through data collection
3. understanding and managing change processes
4. being able to utilize resources (people, equipment) in the pursuit of common goals, managing their work
5. building skills and confidence in others.

In addition, Kythreotis et al. (2010) identified helping other teachers plan instruction, helping other teachers make curriculum decisions, helping other teachers improve their teaching and peer coaching as being the key skills of teacher leaders. Hallinger and Heck (1998) found that teachers emerged as leaders if they developed high-level skills in the areas of expertise (strong pedagogical and subject knowledge), collaboration (working with other teachers, reflection on their own practice and empowerment of themselves and others).

A final dimension concerns teachers' motivation to undertake a leadership role. Teacher leadership has the potential to expand work-load and without adequate compensation, may lead to possible resentment. While the research has shown that teachers do obtain intrinsic rewards through teacher leadership (increased effectiveness, increased influence, collegiality) these also come with strongly increased responsibilities. Hence, a consideration of some form of remuneration or reward for teacher leaders within the school is essential.

In summary, the literature review identifies six activities of teacher leaders. These are:

1. continuing to teach and to improve individual teaching proficiency and skill;
2. organising and leading peer review of teaching practices;
3. providing curriculum development knowledge;
4. participating in school level decision making;
5. leading in service training and staff development activities;
6. engaging other teachers in collaborative action planning, reflection and research.

The literature review also suggests that teacher leaders not only make learning possible for others but in important ways are learning a great deal themselves. Through stepping out of the confines of the classroom, teacher leaders forge a new identity in the school and create ways of engaging others in development work. This new role embraces a belief that there are different ways to structure schools and a different way of working with teachers. Consequently, the teacher leader is essentially a professional 'guide' who:

1. models collegiality as a mode of work;
2. enhances teachers' self esteem
3. build networks of human expertise and resource;
4. create support groups for school members;
5. makes provisions for continuous learning;
6. encourages others to take on leadership roles.

### **2.15 Empirical Review**

Generally, one of the typical barriers for women moving up to senior management position was gender-based stereotypes. In the Malaysian context, Leithwood (2012) found that compared to most successful female corporate

entrepreneurs, least successful female entrepreneurs possessed more of harsh power such as the power to order and punish. However their male counterparts' success was not significantly different in terms of their assertiveness. Several Western based research could provide some insight to this phenomenon of gender role stereotypes. Fundamentally, there is the tendency to respond more favourably to men who are self-promoting and to women who are modest. In conducting a stereotype research, Li et al. (2013) found that while keeping the gender of the manager unknown in the vignette, individuals were more likely to assume a male identity for managers who displayed masculine style, and similarly, assume a female identity for managers who displayed feminine styles. Groves (2005) found female leaders naturally scored higher on social and emotional skills and therefore obtained higher rating for charismatic leadership. But then again, women who are modest will appear less competent. In a nutshell, the choice of leadership style is expected to match the gender role stereotypes, and this expectation is even more evident in the case of women managers.

A number of studies have recently been conducted on entrepreneurship of women. In one study the researchers found that gender had an impact on entrepreneurial activity (Barnett et al., 2005) and the characteristics of entrepreneurial women per se became the focus of research. In our empirical research we explored the characteristics of, and differences among, the leadership style of a sample of 225 entrepreneurial women from Zhejiang Province and Shanghai in eastern China. We found that the majority of these women adopted an achievement-oriented style of leadership, that is, a style consisting of high initiating structure and high consideration. We found differences in the consideration leadership style of the women according to the type of enterprise in which they were working; in addition there were differences in both initiating structure and consideration leadership styles of the women entrepreneurs

according to the length of time that the enterprise in which the women were working had been established

Barnett et al. (2005), in his study examined the impact of transformational leadership style of the school principal on school learning environments and selected teacher outcomes, examines the effects of different types of secondary principals' leadership behaviours on aspects of a school's learning environment, and selected teacher outcomes. Study one involved a quantitative analysis of teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership style, school learning environment and selected teacher outcomes. Study two involved a qualitative analysis of data collected from 12 respondents in three schools, examining those leadership practices that enhanced or eroded teachers' perceptions of school learning environment and teacher satisfaction. Specifically, the qualitative phase of the study was used to investigate those specific principal leadership behaviours that enhance both teacher outcomes and perceptions of school learning environment.

In his study a synergy was achieved by undertaking two studies drawing upon a multi-method approach. While some transformational leadership behaviours of vision building were demonstrated to be effective in influencing school learning environment and teacher outcome variables, it was a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles that demonstrated the most impact in relation to school learning environment and teacher outcomes. Hallinger and Heck (1998) investigated the relationship between the perceived leadership style of the principal and late career teacher job satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between the perception of idealized influence and extrinsic satisfaction.

Hallinger and Heck (1998) reviewed over 40 empirical studies conducted between 1980 and 1995 and concluded that principals exercised a measurable and

statistically significant, though small, indirect impact on school effectiveness and student achievement. Kruger, Witziers and Slegers (2007) found that school leaders indirectly influence student outcomes and school culture. In the context of Cyprus, Kythreotis and Pashiardis (2006) found direct effects of the principal's leadership style on student achievement and Kythreotis, Pashiardis, and Kyriakides (2010) reached the conclusion that "the principal human leadership frame affects student achievement" (p. 232). The strong interpersonal relations in the Cyprus education system were a main reason for the significance of the human leadership frame. Moreover, the small size of primary schools in Cyprus and the nature of primary schools compared to secondary schools permit the development of strong interpersonal relations (Kythreotis, Pashiardis & Kyriakides 2010).

An investigation was conducted to see the effect of gender of head teachers on the academic success of the school students in. A total of 60 head teachers (male = 37, female = 23) and 3776 students (boys = 2142, girls = 1634) were randomly selected from the schools in a divisional town in to serve as sample. Academic success records of the students in their Primary School Completion Examination and Secondary School Certificate Examination were collected from the results published by the 'Rajshahi Education Board'. The results indicate that the gender of the school head teachers has significant effect on the academic success of the students. The result also revealed that the students in primary schools under the leadership of female head teachers performed significantly better than those led under male head teachers, whereas the students in secondary schools obtained significantly better grades in the examinations under the leadership of male head teachers than the students led by female head teachers (Kythreotis, Pashiardis, & Kyriakides 2010).

## **2.16 Implications of the Literature Review**

This literature review suggests that teacher leadership is inextricably linked to teacher learning and offers a powerful mode of professional development. The findings illustrate that teacher leadership provides opportunities for collaboration, professional learning and positively affects school and classroom change. It also highlights the potential of this form of leadership to contribute to lasting school improvement when teachers become more involved in professional decision-making in school. Consequently, there are important implications for policy makers, practitioners and researchers emerging from this review of the literature.

### **2.16.1 Implications for Policy Makers**

It is evident from this review that teacher leadership has the potential to directly positively impact upon school improvement and school effectiveness. There is also evidence to show that where teachers work collaboratively and where leadership responsibilities are devolved, teachers' expectations, morale and confidence are significantly enhanced. In addition, where teachers work collaboratively and share responsibilities there is a higher degree of satisfaction expressed among teachers for their work.

The implications for policy makers therefore, concern issues of teacher professionalism, recruitment, retention and performance. While there are no immediate answers to the current problems facing the teaching profession in Ghana, there are certain conditions that have served to exacerbate the present situation. For example, a lack of time for collaboration and shared teaching, a focus on attainment rather than learning, an emphasis on teacher as artisan rather than artist and limited opportunities

for research and reflection. In stark contrast, the teacher leadership literature highlights collaboration, learning, artistry and reflection as being at the core of teachers' professionalism and professional learning.

Implicit within teacher leadership is the notion of *empowerment* as teachers are given the responsibility and authority to act. Also, inherent in teacher leadership is the establishment of professional *community* and an agreement about professional *accountability*. The evidence from the international community suggests that where teacher are prepared for and engaged in leadership activities, there are opportunities for professional *development* and *growth* that reinforce teachers' *self-esteem* and sense of *self-efficacy*. From a policy makers' perspective teacher leadership offers one way of engaging the profession in forms activities that are most likely to signal recognition, lead to reward and demonstrate trust in teachers to build their own professional learning communities within schools.

In short, teacher leadership offers policy makers a way of engaging teachers in a meaningful and timely debate about professionalism and issues of professional conduct. Essentially, the concept of teacher leadership endorses the principle that all teachers have the skills, abilities and aptitude to lead and should be trusted to do so. There is evidence from the literature of ways in which teacher leadership can be enhanced and developed. Furthermore, it reiterates how teacher leadership contributes to raising pupil performance, is pivotal in generating collaboration between teachers and in securing professional learning communities both within and between schools. The next steps for policy makers would appear to be threefold.

Firstly, to investigate models of effective teacher leadership within the Ghanaian context and to identify exemplars of good practice. Secondly, to share and disseminate the principles and practice of good practice with schools and teachers.

Thirdly, to evaluate the impact of introducing models of teacher leadership into different school contexts with a view to judging the effect upon teachers' professionalism and morale.

### **2.16.2 Implications for Practitioners**

The research evidence endorses teacher collaboration and mutual learning as centrally important to teacher leadership. It is clear that many schools are successful at promoting teacher collaboration and have set up ways of allowing teachers to work together. However, there are a large number of schools where this has been more difficult to achieve because of structural or professional barriers. The implication of teacher leadership for schools therefore resides around generating the possibilities and expectation of collaboration. Where this occurs teachers are more likely to engage in high level collaborative activities in order to improve their teaching capability and performance. In this sense, teaching becomes a highly reflective process that is reliant upon peer interaction, support and feedback.

The implications for schools of generating teacher leadership concern the provision of time plus support for research and enquiry. If teachers are to collaborate and reflect they must be given time and support in order to achieve this most effectively. Similarly, there needs to be the removal of structural barriers to ensure that there are opportunities for teachers to work together outside their subject areas. Finally, if teachers are to be encouraged to take risks and to innovate there has to be a real distribution of power and the agreement to uphold 'no blame' innovation.



### 2.16.3 Implications for Research

Although the literature points towards the highly beneficial effects of teacher leadership upon schools and students, there are few studies that have explored the nature and impact of teacher leadership within the Ghanaian context. Research has focused upon teacher professionalism, collegiality, reflection and continuing professional development but has taken little account of the models of leadership required to generate and sustain teacher learning and growth. Consequently, research is required that collects empirical evidence about teacher leadership in action, generates different models of teacher leadership, provides evidence of impact and effectiveness, illuminates good practice and offers schools and teachers a clear insight into the possibilities and practicalities of promoting this form of leadership in schools.

The implications for research reside in the need for the collection of empirical evidence that:

1. examines how far the concept of ‘teacher leadership’ is meaningful, useful and applicable to a wide variety of school contexts and circumstances;
2. elucidates different models, approaches and forms of teacher leadership in practice;
3. identifies how teacher leadership can best be facilitated and developed;
4. investigates the relationship between teacher leadership and school improvement;
5. provides case study exemplars of best practice and guidance for schools about creating the conditions in which teacher leadership can flourish and grow.

The implication of head teacher leadership for schools therefore resides around generating the possibilities and expectation of collaboration. Where this occurs teachers

are more likely to engage in high level collaborative activities in order to improve their teaching capability and performance. In this sense, teaching becomes a highly reflective process that is reliant upon peer interaction, support and feedback.

The implications for schools of generating teacher leadership concern the provision of time plus support for research and enquiry. If teachers are to collaborate and reflect they must be given time and support in order to achieve this most effectively. Similarly, there needs to be the removal of structural barriers to ensure that there are opportunities for teachers to work together outside their subject areas. Finally, if teachers are to be encouraged to take risks and to innovate there has to be a real distribution of power and the agreement to uphold 'no blame' innovation.

The concept of head teacher leadership is powerful because it is premised upon the creation of the collegial norms in schools that contribute directly to school effectiveness, improvement and development. It is also powerful because it recognises that all teachers can be leaders and that their ability to lead has a significant influence upon the quality of relationships and teaching within the school. At its most profound, teacher leadership offers a 'new professionalism' based upon mutual trust, recognition, empowerment and support. At its most practical it provides a way of teachers working together in order to improve the learning experiences of young people. It reclaims leadership as a human, collective endeavor in which all teachers play an essential role.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation, pre-testing of the instrument, data gathering methods and the data analysis procedures.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

Saunders et al, (2007) describes a design as the overall plan of how the researcher goes about answering the research questions. It accommodates the various strategies that the researcher used for his or her research work. This study used the descriptive research design. Descriptive research refers to a research which specifies the nature of a given phenomenon. It determines and reports the way things are done. Descriptive research thus involves data in order to test hypotheses or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study (Jefferson, 2004). Because the researcher wanted to find out what really was the situation with regard to the leadership roles and professional development needs of female head teachers in junior high schools the descriptive research design was deemed appropriate for the study.

#### **3.3 Population**

The population for the study was all female head teachers of junior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis. According to statistics from the Kumasi Metro Education Directorate, for the 2014/2015 academic year, the total population of head teachers was 119. Out of this number, 40 are females and this constitutes the population of the study.

### **3.5 Sample and sampling method**

Since the population was relatively small, all the 40 female head teachers were used for the study. Thus, a census method was used whereby the sample was equal to the population. The study participants brought to the study perspectives on leadership roles and professional development needs unique to female teachers in administrative position.

### **3.4 Research Instrument**

Questionnaire was the main research instrument that was employed in collecting the primary data. The use of questionnaire was necessary for this research since the study was primarily a survey research. The use of questionnaire allowed the researcher to collect large amount of data in a relatively short time. The questionnaire was also used because all the participants could read and understand the items very well. The questionnaire had both closed-ended and open-ended items. It consisted of three sections: section 'A' was designed to obtain the background information of respondents, section 'B' dealt with the leadership roles of female head teachers and section 'C' dealt with the professional development needs of female head teachers.

### **3.6 Instrument Reliability and Validity**

The questionnaire was pilot tested using five female head mistresses from private junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis which were not involved in the main study. The pilot test enabled the researcher to correct some errors relating to repetition of questions, double barrelled questions and typographical mistakes.

In order to ensure reliability of the research instrument, the researcher used a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient to measure the internal consistency. Ary et al.

(2010) posit that for research purposes, a useful rule is that reliability should be at 0.70 and preferably higher. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is a statistical instrument used to test internal consistency of questionnaires. The reliability of the questionnaire was 0.81.

To improve the validity of the instrument, the researcher gave copies of the questionnaire to her supervisor, other lecturers and colleagues to review and to check for the appropriateness of the items and their relevance to the issues raised. These were done to improve the content, face and quality of the questionnaire. After all these exercises, the instrument was refined and administered for the main study.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher requested for a list of public junior high schools in Kumasi headed by females from the Metropolitan Education Directorate for a list of. Prior to the request, an introductory letter from the Department of Educational Leadership of the University of Education, Winneba (Kumasi Campus) had been submitted for approval. The list enabled the researcher to contact the female head teachers in their respective schools. The researcher briefed female headteachers on the rationale behind the study and hand-delivered the questionnaire to be filled. The researcher returned after two weeks to collect the filled questionnaires.

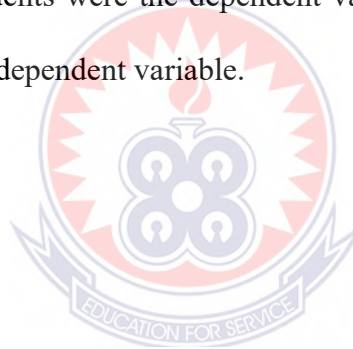
### **3.8 Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations in the study such as confidentiality, anonymity, access, betrayal, informed consent were critically addressed. During the study, high ethical standards were maintained to ensure that no harm was caused to any of the participants. Steps were taken to keep information provided confidential and anonymous.

Participants informed consent was addressed by giving them a letter to indicate their willingness and free will to participate in the study.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used in the analysis of the data in this study. Summarized data from the descriptive responses were analyzed and the researcher generated descriptive statistics to report aggregate responses to all items completed in the survey. The data were presented in the form of tables and graphs for easy interpretation. The main statistical technique employed were frequencies, percentages and means. Although rigorous statistical analyses were not carried out, responses of the respondents were the dependent variables while each research item /area assessed was the independent variable.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses of the results of the study. The findings are then discussed with reference to the literature reviewed. In all a total of 40 participants were sampled and given the questionnaire with 30 responding to the questionnaire which was used for the analysis. The analysis began with the demographic characteristics of the female head teachers followed by analysis of the main data related to the research questions.

#### 4.2 Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of female head teachers sampled for the study were sought and the responses have been provided in the Table 4.1

**Table 4.1:** Demographic Characteristics of Female Head Teachers

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
26-30	3	10.0
31-35	5	16.7
36-40	10	33.3
41-45	12	40.0
Total	30	100
Marital Status		
Single	5	16.7
Married	16	53.3
Divorced	4	13.3
Widowed	5	16.7

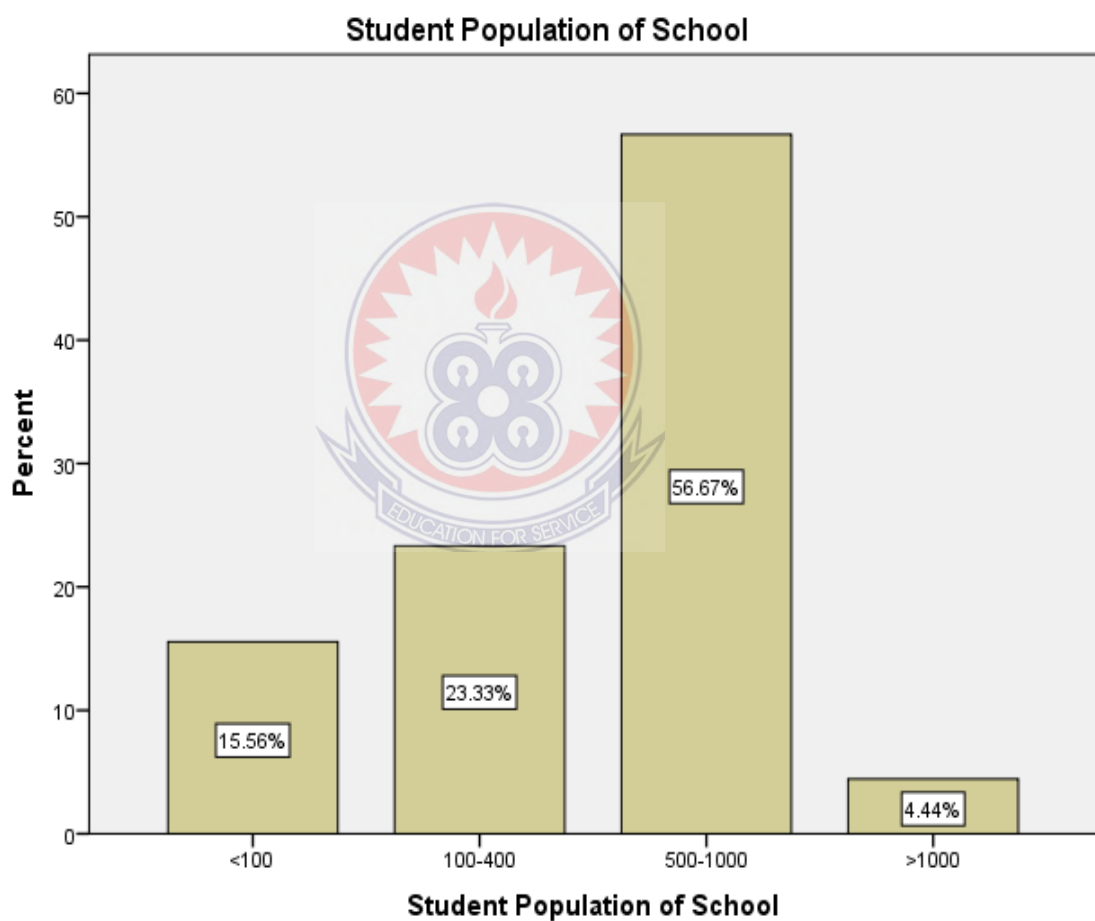
Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Total	30	100
<b>Educational Background</b>		
Teachers ‘Cert A’	6	20.0
Diploma/HND	7	23.3
Bachelor’s Degree	12	40.0
Postgraduate Degree	5	16.7
Total	30	100
<b>Years as Head of School</b>		
Less than 3 years	5	16.7
4-10 years	18	60.0
More than 10 years	7	23.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 4.1, it can be observed that majority 12 (40.0%) of the female head teachers were within the age range of 41 to 45 years with the least (10.0%) ages being 26 and 30 years. In terms of marital status, majority 16 (53.3%) of the female head teachers were married, 5 (16.7%) were single, 4 (13.3%) were divorced and 5 (16.7%) were widowed.

The educational background of the female head teachers also shows that 12 (40.0%) possess bachelor’s degrees, 7 (23.3%) also hold diploma or higher national diploma, 6 (20%) percent are “Teacher’s Cert A ‘holders and 5 (16.7%) are postgraduate holders. The findings show that majority of the female head teachers are bachelor’s degree holders.



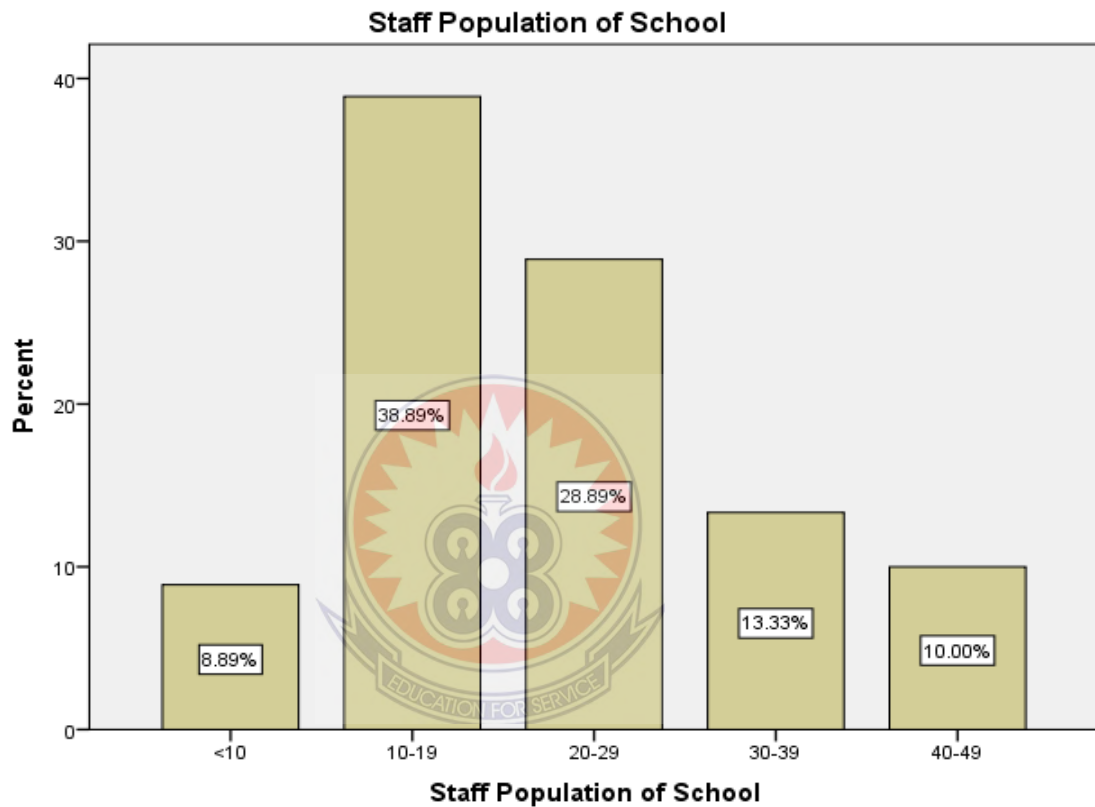
Finally, Table 4.1 shows that majority, 18 (60%) of the female head teachers had been in this position 4-10 years, 7 (23.3%) had been head teachers for more than 10 years with only 5 (16.7%) who had been in headship role for less than 3 years. In general, then, the profile of the female head teachers shows group of educators with significant leadership experience. The demographic characteristics also covered the student and staff population of the schools headed by the participants in this study. The results are presented in Fig 4.1 and 4.2



**Fig 4.1:** Student Population of Female-headed Junior High Schools

It can be seen in Fig 4.1 that 56.67% of the junior high schools headed by female head teachers had a student population of 500-1000, followed by 23.33% which had student population of 100-400. Also, 15.56% of the schools had student population

under 100 and only 4.44% of the schools recorded above 1000 student population. None of the schools was found within 401-499 population range. In general, most of the junior high schools headed by female head teachers had a student population between 500-1000.



**Fig. 4.2:** Staff Population of Female-headed Junior High Schools

From Fig 4.2, it can be seen that 38.89% of the female headed schools had staff strength of 10-19, followed by 28.89% that had staff strength of 20-29 and 13.33% with 30-39 teachers. Also 10% of the schools had staff of 40-49 and only 8.89 % of the schools had staff strength of less than 10. From these results, it can be generalized that the average female-headed junior high schools had staff strength of 20 to 29.

### 4.3 Leadership Roles of Female Head Teachers

As part of the study objectives, female head teachers were to indicate the responsibilities or roles they perform as head of junior high schools. The results are presented in Table 4.2

**Table 4.2:** Leadership Roles of Female Head Teachers

Responsibilities	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Staff Monitoring	29	96.7
Administration	27	90.0
Resource Management	26	86.7
Professional Leadership	26	86.7
Teaching/Academics	25	83.3
Communication/Public Relations	23	76.7
Pastoral Duties (nurturing)	20	66.7
Average Total	26	86.7

In Table 4.2, the findings reveal that the responses of female head teachers with regard to the roles related to their leadership positions are almost the same (an average of 86.7). There is general consensus that the seven tasks listed in the table (staff monitoring; administration; resource management; professional leadership; teaching/academics; communication/public relations and pastoral duties) do relate to the leadership roles of female head teachers.

**Table 4.3: Ranked order of Female Head Teachers' Roles**

Responsibilities	Priority*
Staff Monitoring	1
Administration	2
Resource Management	3
Professional Leadership	4
Teaching/Academics	5
Communication/Public Relations	6
Pastoral Duties (Nurturing)	7

\*1=high priority, 7=least priority

Table 4.3 indicates that female head teachers ranked staff monitoring as their number one leadership priority, followed by administration, resource management, professional leadership, teaching/academics, communication/public relations and pastoral duties (nurturing). It is clear from the findings that female head teachers view staff monitoring as the number one priority, whereas pastoral duties (nurturing) is viewed with the least amount of priority.

#### **4.4 Knowledge and Skills needed to perform roles.**

The questions in this section focused on the professional development of female head teachers. There were four questions in this part of the questionnaire that focused on the specific professional development needs that enhance female head teachers' performance in relation to the leadership roles. Female head teachers were asked about

the 6 aspects of professional development they deemed essential for the effective performance as a female head teacher. Table 4.4 represents the aspects of professional development that female head teachers of junior high schools consider important.



**Table 4.4:** Knowledge and Skills Required by Female Headteachers

Item		Very important	Important	Neutral	Not important	Not very important	Total
Verbal communication	Percentage (%)	56.67	36.67	3.33	0	3.33	100
	Frequency (f)	17	11	1	0	1	30
Written communication	Percentage (%)	36.67	46.66	6.67	6.67	3.33	100
	Frequency (f)	11	14	2	2	1	30
Listening	Percentage (%)	70	20	3.34	3.33	3.33	100
	Frequency (f)	21	6	1	1	1	30
Collaboration	Percentage (%)	63.33	26.67	6.67	0	3.33	100
	Frequency (f)	19	8	2	0	1	30
Problem solving	Percentage (%)	60	40	0	0	0	100
	Frequency (f)	18	12	0	0	0	30
Conflict resolution	Percentage (%)	60	30	3.33	3.33	3.33	100
	Frequency(f)	18	9	1	1	1	30
Organizational ability	Percentage (%)	50	40	3.33	3.33	3.33	100
	Frequency(f)	15	12	1	1	1	30
Team building	Percentage (%)	60	30	6.67	0	3.33	100
	Frequency(f)	18	9	2	0	1	30
Decisiveness	Percentage (%)	66.67	20	6.67	3.33	3.33	100
	Frequency(f)	20	6	2	1	1	30
Working with support staff	Percentage (%)	66.67	26.67	6.67	0	0	100
	Frequency(f)	20	8	2	0	0	30
Managing resources	Percentage (%)	50	40	10	0	0	100
	Frequency(f)	15	12	3	0	0	30
Teaching	Percentage (%)	36.67	33.33	13.33	6.67	10	100
	Frequency(f)	11	10	4	2	3	30
Understanding the headship role	Percentage (%)	56.67	26.67	3.33	3.33	10	100
	Frequency(f)	17	8	1	1	3	30

Source: Field Survey, 2017

#### 4.5 Strategies Used by Female Heads to Acquire Leadership Skills

Female head teachers were further probed to find out the various strategies they use in acquiring knowledge and skills needed to perform their leadership duties. Their responses are presented in Table 4.5

**Table 4.5 Strategies Used by Female Heads to Acquire Leadership Skills**

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
In-Service Training	29	17.16
Further Studies	28	16.57
Self-Help Books	25	14.79
Conferences and Workshops	24	14.20
Short courses	22	13.02
Consultation/Mentors	21	12.43
News media and journals	20	11.83
<b>Total</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Average</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>14.29</b>

From Table 4.5, it can be observed that the female head teachers used various strategies in acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to perform their roles. In service training was rated the highest (mean frequency of 29) approach they use to equip themselves with the school leadership skills followed by further studies (mean frequency of 28). Other strategies included self-help books, conferences and workshops, short courses, consultations/mentors, and news media and journals.

#### 4.6 Challenges Faced by Female Head Teachers in Performance of Their Roles

The female head teachers were also asked to outline the main barriers that affected them in the performance of their leadership roles. There was a unanimous indication that time was a huge issue for female head teachers. Their responses are represented in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6: Challenges Faced by Female Head Teachers in Performance of Their Roles**

Challenges	Frequency	Percentages (%)
1. Time Frame	28	27.72
2. Too many expectations/unrealistic demands/initiatives	22	21.78
3. Lack of support/remuneration	21	20.79
4. Lack of clear communication/feedback	20	19.80
5. Barrage of paper work	10	9.90
Total	101	100
Average total	20.20	20.00

The following aspects are also tied in with the time issue: workload and unrealistic expectations. The following are some of the comments that they made in this regard:

1. Need more time to train staff and develop resources to meet student needs.
2. Too many tasks to do in short time frames.



3. Barrage of paperwork/constant paperwork trail for trivial factors.
4. Cannot spend enough quality time with people to really serve their needs.
5. Too many expectations to fulfil.
6. Unrealistic demands made.
7. There are far too many initiatives.

Other female headteachers commented that a huge barrier to them performing their role effectively was a lack of clear communication and appropriate feedback from their schools and the metropolitan education directorate. When issues were brought to the metropolitan directorate, female head teachers felt that there was often little, if not, no ‘feedback’ and this was hindering them from performing their role effectively. Further comments indicated that female head teachers did not feel supported and valued and there was no recognition of the role they played in terms of salary and remuneration.

#### **4.7 Discussion of Findings**

It is evident from these findings that female head teachers of junior high schools take great interest in their professional development, hence their use of various strategies to equip them for the job. This confirms the observation of Godwyll et al, (2013) that “though school heads have developed a strong sense of confidence in their ability to manage the school, on-going personal professional development is viewed as important and is achieved by moving to another headship, developing new roles within the same school, getting secondment or taking further training.

In this study, female head teachers raised several issues regarding their role and professional development needs. The following issues have impacted hugely on female

head teachers of junior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis; time constraints and workload issues; diverse and changing nature of head teacher's role (increasing demands; no recognition; lack of clear role definition); and insufficient support for head teacher (no 'proper' induction into the role; no specific professional development for the role and poor appraisal). As a result of these issues, female head teachers have indicated that they do not feel supported and are not prepared for the role.

The female head teachers indicated they do not have the time to communicate with educational authorities, the community, parents and guardians, and the media. Some of the heads are faced with increasing demands upon limited non-teaching time. Hence their focus has shifted from longer term planning to focus on day-to-day concerns. This leaves them with very limited time to engage in own professional development and development within their school. Female headteachers are already overburdened in that expectations far exceed the time available to them. In this study, they indicated that there were 'too many tasks to do in short time frame' and they 'need more time to complete the tasks expected of them.'

Furthermore, they felt that there were 'too many expectations to fulfil', 'unrealistic demands were made' on them and there were 'far too many initiatives'. This has resulted in them not having sufficient time to 'spend enough quality time with people to really serve their needs', 'train staff' and 'develop resources to meet student needs.'

Female headteachers acknowledged that time as well as workload issues are a huge barrier to performing their role effectively and that female head teachers did not have 'enough quality uninterrupted time to do a good job'. A lot of time is swallowed up in 'student discipline issues and compliance and administrative tasks'. It is evident from these

results that while female head teachers may require professional development on time management, “only if the rhetoric becomes reality and there is a decrease in the amount of time spent on administration and teaching will there be any possibility of being able to fulfil expectations of their managerial let alone their leadership responsibilities” (Adey, 2000). Glover et al (1999) comment that perhaps a solution to the issue with ‘time’ could be resolved if there is a “flatter, more participative profession, with its development linked to pedagogic rather than to managerial and administrative needs”

Female head teacher in this study emphasised the increasing demands placed on them. They felt that the role is ‘widely diverse and the job is currently growing and growing’. Furthermore, they indicated that there was a lack of clear role definition as well as little recognition of their roles. This confirms the findings of other researchers like Adey (2000), Wise (2003), Fitzgerald (2000) and Piggot-Irvine (1999) who state that as a consequence of self-management reforms, the workload of headteachers increased, which further complicated the issue that their role was not clearly defined and described. Hence headteachers are unsure of what exactly their roles are. Another change was that the head, teacher’s role expanded (Cardno & Collett, 2004). This resulted in head teachers exerting their leadership “indirectly” by “sharing the role and responsibility for it with appropriate others (deputy, assistant headmasters or middle managers) through delegation and distribution” (Cardno & Collett, 2004). Also female head teacher emphasised the increasing demands placed on them, yet felt there was a lack of recognition of their role. They also did not feel supported by educational authorities as there was often no ‘follow-through’ when issues were brought up.

Communication with stakeholder was also lacking and this was impacting on their effectiveness in the head teacher's role. In this research study, the female head teachers stated that there were 'too many expectations to fulfil' and a huge barrier to performing their role effectively was a lack of clear communication and appropriate feedback from educational authorities.

A common theme that runs between the two sets of responses is that time and workload issues impact on the female head teacher's role. They have expressed the concern that there is not enough time to complete the tasks required of them. Administration tasks and student discipline issues consume most of the time and leave middle managers with very little time to spend on development within their departments. New initiatives also impinge on their time. Blandford (2001) outlines that it is essential that headteachers identify their roles in terms of: tasks, responsibilities, relationships, working conditions and external influences, in order to avoid management dilemmas.

This study confirms that there is insufficient support for female head teachers and that if appropriate support was provided, they could play a more effective leadership role. If female heads are doing such a wonderful job despite the lack of support, then one can only imagine what contribution these school leaders can make to schools when they are given the appropriate support. The research study provides the evidence (lack of support for female heads) and therefore calls for action. Hence, this lack of support for middle managers needs to be addressed at both the local level as well as at national level.

The findings in this study revealed that there was a lack of agreement between the perceptions of all respondents with regard to professional development needs. Female head

teacher's perceptions are that female head teachers are receiving professional development in management development. The study showed that while some schools have been proactive in providing in-school management development training, other schools have adopted a complacent attitude to management development. Yet according to Margerison (1991), management development can be seen as a "personal responsibility" as well as an "institutional obligation" (Cardno, 2005). Head teachers play a "complex and often difficult educational leadership role" and in Ghana in particular, their visibility needs to be increased (Gyimah, 2005).

This study also revealed that a closer analysis of the professional leadership role of female heads is needed, a need that Fitzgerald (2000) also identified in her study of management development of school heads. Head teachers play a crucial role in managing the teaching-learning process and are seen as the driving force behind any school and the key to improving the quality of the learning process (Fitzgerald, 2000). Hence, it stands to reason as Blandford (2001) reiterates that knowing what is required of the role is the key to effectiveness. Adey's (2000) study also revealed that middle managers require clearer guidelines about their role as well. Middle managers in turn will then be better able to manage and develop staff in their departments.

Research carried out by Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1999) into school management highlighted the inadequate preparation for the role. Recent research indicates that while there has been some improvement, there continues to be a lack of adequate and effective training for school managers prior to them taking up their roles, including those aspiring to these positions (Adey, 2000; Brown, Boyle & Boyle, 2002). Adey's (2000)

study revealed that school managers require clearer guidelines about their role as well as training: in conducting staff appraisals and professional development for staff.

Furthermore, it identified the fact that positions in school leadership are increasing in number as well as complexity, yet head teachers are being appointed to the positions without the relevant support or training. In this study, the female head teacher stated that they lacked support to carry out their role effectively. They indicated that because the role is growing and increasing in complexity, it is impossible to do the job without the necessary skills and training. The research study matches some of the findings of noted researchers (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1999; Adey 2000; & Brown, Boyle & Boyle, 2002).

There was a lack of congruence the female heads regarding professional development support. Some in this study indicated that they receive the appropriate induction, appraisal and mentoring. Others however, refuted this by stating that they were not receiving the appropriate induction, appraisal and mentoring and hence needed support and training in these areas.

Furthermore, they are not properly inducted into the role and are 'expected to learn on the job'. In this study, some female heads have clearly indicated that because the role is growing and increasing in complexity, it is impossible to do the job without the necessary skills and training. Adey (1990) points out that it is erroneous to assume that school heads are appointed because they already possess the skills to undertake the role effectively. Portner (2005) states that well-designed and skilfully implemented induction programmes, which include, mentoring as an essential core element are critically important in creating schools in which students experience quality teaching in every classroom.

Mentoring female school heads in this study indicated that mentoring from another heads is required for them to fulfil their role effectively. Mentoring is a process of professional development and it “promotes retention and rejuvenation” (Portner, 2005, p. 193). Furthermore, it provides an opportunity for teacher leadership as well as providing experienced teachers the chance to see their profession from a new perspective (Villani, 2002).

Also, female heads indicated that support in the area of appraisal was lacking and that they required professional development in this area. The findings indicate that while in some schools appraisal focuses on the head teacher’s role, in other schools, this was not the case. This is a cause for concern as appraisal is an integral part of performance management and “links to all other elements involved in managing the performance of an organisation and the individual within it” Godwyll et al, (2013). Appraisal is intended to benefit both the individual and the organisation and it leads to affirmation that the performance expectations are being met and areas of improvement identified Godwyll et al, (2013). Hence, training is needed to develop the skills of appraisal and given the number of demands placed on school heads; they are unlikely to attach a high priority to this if positive outcomes of the appraisal process cannot be seen Adey and Jones, (1997).

If appraisal is conducted properly it will alleviate the issues that female school heads are currently facing, for example the issue of role definition. Research done by Cardno, 1996 and Timperley, 1998 indicate that accountability, appraisal and professional development are strongly linked. Accountability is maintained by a clear job description. Woodall and Winstanley (1998) define the job description as “a broad statement of the purpose, scope, duties and responsibilities of a particular job or position” The job

description is a mechanism for on-going dialogue about accountability and it “acts as a keystone for all aspects of performance management” (Anamuah-Mensah, 2006).

Just over half the female heads in this study indicated that they had a clear job description. This result indicates that this is an aspect that requires attention if female teachers are to carry out their roles effectively. Furthermore, appraisal is a mechanism for linking the school and individual staff development (Blandford, 2001).

Staff development is crucial to school improvement and it is the responsibility of the school to identify the professional development needs of staff and make provision to meet them (Cardno, 1996). A Model of Holistic Professional Development is suggested by Cardno (1996) where performance appraisal is the core and it caters in an integrated way to both accountability and developmental purposes. The model is under-pinned by educational leadership at all levels as this leadership supports change through professional development. A core function of educational leadership is the “management of staff performance through an appraisal system capable of identifying individual developmental needs” (Cardno, 1996, p. 31). Furthermore, research shows that effective educational leaders (also called instructional leaders) create a culture of learning that supports professional growth Blasé & Blasé (2000). “There are few greater gifts that one generation of educators can give to the next and that schools can give to their communities - teachers who continuously improve their teaching for the benefit of all their students” (Portner, 2005, p. 244). The teachers of today will become the head teachers of tomorrow. If they are not mentored, supported and inducted into their respective roles and receive ongoing professional development, they will not become effective school leaders. This will ultimately impact on teaching and learning effectiveness.



Cardno (1996) points out that while curriculum development and school development feature significantly as professional development foci, management development and personal development are least acknowledged. The area of management development pertains particularly to school heads who are “significant players in leading teams and creating and maintaining effective schools” (Cardno, 1996).

The findings in this study revealed that in some schools, there was a significant lack of management development for school heads. Some female head teachers Middle managers revealed that professional development in management development was lacking and that ‘there is no specific management development programme’ and ‘no guidance on appropriate courses’. They also required ‘assistance with career planning and progression’ and needed opportunities for career progression.

The findings also indicate that there were differences in the views of female heads on some of their perceived roles. The perception of some respondents was that headteachers in the Kumasi metropolis are receiving support in professional development. Others, on the other hand stated that they were not receiving further training. It is evident that management education is an area of concern.

Furthermore, there is no consistency with regards to professional development as each school head follows her own programme. The findings also showed that there were slight differences in the responses between female head teachers with regards to management training, but not significant enough to warrant huge concerns.

Some listed the aspects of management development in a similar order of priority differently but all indicated that the following were important aspects: mentoring/coaching;

appraisal that focuses on the management role; induction into management role; and a clear job description. The aspects that differed were along these lines: some indicated that professional development was an important aspect of management development, while others indicated external study programme as important. It is evident from these findings that all female head teachers are ‘on the same page’ with regards to what they consider important aspects of professional development.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

The chapter presents a summary of research process and its findings, conclusion and recommendations for policy and for further research on the topic.

#### 5.2 Summary of the Research Process

The motivation for this study was prompted mainly from the general perception that female headteachers are not well prepared to deal with challenges and issues arising from their roles. This study examined the leadership role and professional development needs of female headteachers in junior high schools within the Kumasi metropolis. The review of the literature focused on the diverse role undertaken by school heads, their professional development needs and the issues they face in this regard.

Four research questions formed the basis of assessing the professional development of head teachers in relation to their roles and the extent to which current provision of professional development meets their needs; as well as the expectations in relation to their leadership role:

- (1) What do female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis consider to be their roles as educational leaders?
- (2) What knowledge and skills do female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis need to perform their roles effectively?

(3) What strategies do female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis use to acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their roles?

(4) What challenges do female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis face in performance of their roles?

The most appropriate approach for answering these questions was the adoption of a quantitative methodology with a descriptive research focus. In order to gather and analyse data about the reality experienced by female head teachers, descriptive research methods were used involving questionnaires. This process involved a survey of 40 female headteachers of selected Junior High Schools within the Kumasi Metropolis.

### **5.3 Summary of Findings**

The research findings in this study raised these key issues, namely, time constraints and work load issues; the diverse and changing nature of the head teacher's role; and the lack of support for their professional development. In answering the first specific objective of the study, "What do female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis consider to be their roles as educational leaders? The study revealed that the seven roles; staff monitoring, administration, resource management, professional leadership, teaching/academics, communication/public relations and pastoral responsibilities. The findings further revealed that head teachers view staff monitoring as the number one priority, whereas pastoral responsibilities is viewed with the least amount of priority.

Also the second research question sought to find out what knowledge and skills female head teachers in junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis need to perform their

roles effectively. It emerged from the findings that the female head teachers needed skills in the following areas, better management training, direction and leadership from the educational authorities, mentoring and assistance with appraisal and ICT programmes.

The third research question was to identify the strategies used by female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis to acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their roles. The findings showed that the female head teachers used various strategies in acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to perform their roles. In- service training was rated the highest approach they use to equip themselves with the school leadership skills followed by further academic studies. Other strategies included short courses, conferences and workshops, self-help books, news media and journals as well as mentors or consultation approach.

The last research question was intended to find out what challenges do female head teachers in junior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis faced in the performance of their roles. There was a unanimous indication that time was a huge issue for female head teachers; specifically, workload and unrealistic expectations. Other challenges identified were a lack of clear communication and appropriate feedback from the metropolitan education directorate. Further comments indicated that female headteachers did not feel supported and valued. They feel there is no recognition of the role they play in terms of salary and remuneration.

## **5.4 Conclusion**

Current research and literature acknowledge the vital roles played by female headteachers in managing teachers and managing learners as well as overall school

effectiveness. In order for female head teachers to perform these duties, it is imperative for them to understand and be cognizant of what is expected of them. The study findings show that female head teachers of junior high schools are cognizant of their roles and consider staff monitoring, administrative skills, prudent resource management and professional leadership as key roles needed to perform effectively..

Moreover, the study participants are aware of the skills required as head teachers and adopted various strategies in acquiring these skills. Good listening skills, decisiveness and support of staff were identified top priority skills. Alongside awareness of their leadership roles and the required skills, the findings further show that the female headteachers are beset with multiple challenges that impede their effectiveness. Notable among the challenges are workload and unrealistic expectations from Education Directorates. Whilst increase in workload is adequately remunerated in many leadership positions, this is not the case among school heads. Based on the findings of the study, the study concludes that female headteachers of junior high schools in Kumasi metropolis are cognizant of their roles and professional development needs and are active in the acquisition of skills needed to perform their roles.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

The time has come for the profile of female heads of basic schools in Ghana to be raised and these needs to be addressed at national level and should not be the responsibility of individual schools. Educational authorities seriously need to respond to a professional development programme for female school heads and school leaders in general. Structures need to be put in place to support school heads in clarifying their role; receiving training

in appraisal; proper induction, mentoring and ongoing professional development in their role. There is a lack of policy and planning for school heads hence there is a need for a national induction programme specifically for basic school heads.

The study makes the following recommendations:

1. Staff management, administration, resource management and professional leadership qualities were among the key roles identified by respondents. Therefore, training of headteachers in these areas should be given priority to enable them fulfil their leadership roles.
2. It is also recommended that a framework for professional leadership for female heads of schools that focuses on team development and leadership be put in place. Teams are a popular form of distributed leadership and a huge benefit of teams is that it allows for a division of labour. Hence, a framework for professional leadership which includes team development and leadership will address the role head teachers play in this regard so they are able to gain more clarity about their leadership role and how to develop teams.
3. It is further recommended that in-service training be organised for heads at both school and national levels. The findings indicate that in-service training is major strategy employed by heads to work efficiently. Given the cost involved in further training, in-service training can be seen as an avenue for training in the interim.
4. Time allotted for assigned tasks should be realistic so that tasks could be completed on schedule and effectively.
5. Research Level: Further research into the role and professional development of female heads in junior high schools will either endorse or challenge the findings of

this study. Additional research methods could also be explored to validate the findings of this study.





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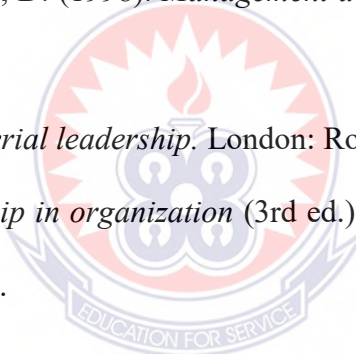
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**APPENDIX**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI**

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCES**

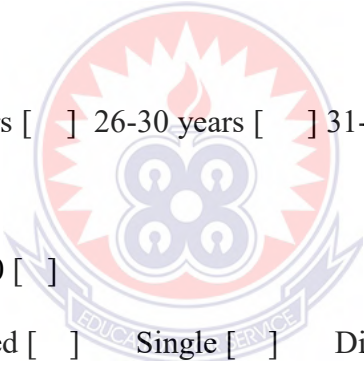
**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**FEMALE HEADTEACHERS IN SELECTED JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN**

**KUMASI METROPOLIS**

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS**

- 
1. Age: Less than 25 years [  ] 26-30 years [  ] 31-35 years [  ] 36-40 years [  ] 41-45 years [  ]  
46-50 [  ] 51-60 [  ]
  2. Marital Status Married [  ] Single [  ] Divorced [  ] Widowed [  ]
  3. Years as Head of School  
<3 years [  ] 4-10 years [  ] > 10 years [  ]
  - Student Population of School  
<100 [  ] 100-400 [  ] 500-1000 [  ] >1000 [  ]
  4. Staff Size of School.....
  5. Identify from the following list (by ticking in Column 1) the responsibilities/tasks that YOU think should apply to the head teachers' role; and (ticking in Columns 2-5) the amount of time head teachers ought to spend on these responsibilities/tasks.

ROLES/DUTIES/RESPONSIBILITIES	Tick if applicable (1)	> 3 hours (2)	2-3 hours (3)	< 1 hour (4)	No time (5)
• Teaching and academics					
• Resource management					
• Staff Monitoring					
• Professional leadership					
• Pastoral responsibilities					
• Administration					
• Communication/Public Relations					

6. Prioritize the 7 tasks YOU believe head teachers are currently expected to do?

a. ....

b. ....

c. ....

d. ....

e. ....

f. ....

h. ....

7. What do you believe are the MAIN BARRIERS to female head teachers performing their role effectively?

.....

.....

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.....

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.....

Below are listed several skills which are desired in today’s academic management era.

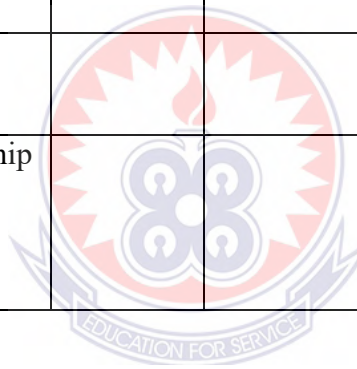
How important are these skills to your present position as headmistress?

Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

8. Very important, 2. Important, 3. Neutral, 4. Not very important, 5. Not important

	Very important	Important	Neutral	Not very important	Not important
Verbal communication	1	2	3	4	5
Written communication					
Listening					
Collaborating					

Problem solving					
Conflict resolution					
Organizational ability					
Team building					
Decisiveness					
Working with support staff					
Managing resources					
Teaching					
Understanding the headship role					



9. How are you able to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to perform your role as a headmistress? (Choose all that apply)

- Further Studies [    ]
- Short Courses [    ]
- In-Service Training [    ]
- News and Journals [    ]
- Conferences and Workshops [    ]
- Consultation/ Mentors [    ]

- Other(s) specify .....

10. Who normally bears the cost for acquiring these knowledge and skills?

Self-funded [ ]

Training Allowance [ ]

Grant [ ]

Study Leave [ ]

Scholarship [ ]

