AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND

ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT

EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HEADTEACHERS ON ACADEMIC

PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE

ASANTE MAMPONG MUNICIPALITY OF ASHANTI REGION.

GLORIA OTI-AGYEMAN

(7181770034)

A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education and Communication Sciences submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of the Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree

DECEMBER, 2021

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, GLORIA OTI-AGYEMAN, 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 it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

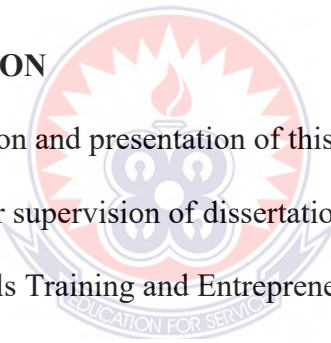SIGNATURE:…………………………...

DATE: ………………………………….

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation as laid down by the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development

NAME: DR. PHILIP OTI-AGYEN

SIGNATURE:…………………………...

DATE: …………………………………..

DEDICATION

To my dear husband, Prof. Emmanuel Dartey for his unwavering support at all stages of my academic life, and children: Edwin, Gerald, Jessica and Phoebe.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Appropriate leadership style is a panacea for the transformation of an organisation and enhancement of employee job satisfaction. Premised on the autocratic, democratic and laissez faire leadership styles, this study sought to establish the effects of headteachers' leadership styles on academic performance of Junior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The study employed the descriptive survey design. Quantitative research approach was used. The study population comprised all J.H.S teachers in the Asante Mampong Municipality. Purposive and convenient sampling procedures were used to select 120 teachers from six (6) out of the ten (10) circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality. Pearson correlation was used to establish the relationship between leadership styles and student's academic performance. Multiple regression analysis was further applied to analyse factors that hinder effective leadership styles. Questionnaire was the research instrument used to undertake the study. The findings of the study revealed that, heads of Junior High Schools at the study area frequently exhibited autocratic leadership style. However, there was a positive significance level of headteachers leadership style on students' academic performance, except that democratic leadership style far outweighed the others. Again, lack of managerial skills, lack of respect to teachers and lack of self-confidence are major predictors that hindered effective leadership style which also affect negatively students' academic performance in Asante Mampong Municipality. In finality, the study concluded a positive correlation between headteachers leadership styles and students' academic performance. Also, it was concluded that if students' performance is to be enhanced, then school heads are to exhibit good leadership style. It is recommended that the Municipal directorate of the Ghana Education Service, Guidance and Counselling units, Heads of Educational Institutions and educationists in academia should be encouraged to organize workshops and seminars for head teachers to educate them on the need to avoid employing autocratic leadership style frequently as this could affect students' academic performance.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background of the study

Leadership in any organization implies the action and interaction with persons and things with a view to attain a specific objective. In the school, it is the ability to plan, control, direct and co-ordinate the activities of the school involving both human and material resources for the achievement of school goals (Okumbe, 2001). It is a process through which persons or groups intentionally influence others in the attainment of group goals. Leadership is generally defined as the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly toward the achievement of objectives (Okumbe, 2001). This concept can be enlarged to involve not only the willingness to work but also the willingness to work with zeal and confidence. It is the functional behaviour of a leader in relation with subordinates that facilitate the accomplishment of group goals. In this regard, leadership is the ability to get things done with the assistance and co-operation of other people within the institution. Bottery (2006) supports those views and remarked that leadership involves a guide that directs activities of individuals in a given direction in order to achieve the goals of the organization.

Charlton (2003) also defines leadership as a projected feeling from one individual (the leader) towards others (followers) for the purpose of realizing group objectives. In this regard, leadership could be seen as the process of influencing the activities of an organization toward goal setting and goal achievement. As such, it must be stressed that any meaningful and useful definition of leadership must contain some elements such as a group to be led which must have a set of laid down objectives, there must be conscious attempts to influence the behavior of others within the group and there must be willingness of subordinates to carry out the action (Cheng, 2004).

1

Charlton (2003) identify three types of leadership styles used by head teachers. These are the autocratic, democratic and laissez faire leadership styles. He argued that the autocratic leader is an authoritarian. He directs group members on the way things should be done. He also gives orders which are to be obeyed whether or not the members of staff have initiatives. All powers are concentrated in his hand such that when he is away, it would be difficult for the staff to know what to do. Power and decision-making reside in the autocratic leader. On the other hand, the democratic style of leadership emphasizes group and leader participation in the making of policies. Decisions about organizational matters are arrived at after consultation and communication with various people in the organization. The leader attempts as much as possible to make each individual feel that he is an important member of the organization. Communication is multidirectional while ideas are exchanged between employees and the leader (Charlton, 2003). Contrary to these leadership styles, the laissez-faire leadership style is the kind of leadership that makes provisions for the individual to have dominant roles in decision-making and in the exercise of power. The style allows complete freedom to group decision without the leader's participation. (Charlton, 2003). Thus, subordinates are free to do what they like. The role of the leader is just to supply materials. The leader does not interfere with or participate in the course of events determined by the group. It is thus, a weak style of leadership as it leads to no meaningful progress within an organization (Smith, 2005).

The term 'academic performance' has been described as the scholastic standing of a student at a given moment. It refers to how an individual is able to demonstrate his or her intellectual abilities. This scholastic standing could be explained as the grades obtained in a course or groups of courses taken (Perry, 2008). Moos (2009) comments on the scholastic standing of students and argued that performance is a measure of output and that the main outputs in education are expressed in terms of learning, that is, changes in knowledge, skills and

2

attitudes of individuals as a result of their experiences within the school's system. Thus, in determining academic performance, Hoy (2000) emphasizes the use of grades in examinations and reported that grades could serve as prediction measures and as criterion measures.

Academic performance therefore is largely identified by a range of statistical indicators. Bell (2002) supported this argument and reported that performance is the level of attainment of a person in an examination, that is, how an individual is able to demonstrate his or her abilities in an examination. Performance has been regarded as a measure of educational output (Okumbe, 2001). This fact buttresses Moos (2009) argument that the performance of students in examinations has been poor as a result of head teachers' ineffective leadership styles. Hoy (2000) attributes the causes of dwindling performance of students to the undesired leadership styles of head teachers. The leadership style adopted by head teachers is seen as crucial to the success of pupils in school. Several theories of leadership exist, one such important theory is the path-goal theory of leadership. The theory originated from the original claim that leadership impact is influenced by the ways in which the leader behaves towards the paths and the goals of the employees (Burns, 2008).

The head teacher is a symbol of authority to the school. The head teacher has the authority to determine the direction of the school. Having the requisite leadership skills is therefore crucial to the overall success of the school. Hanson (2006) notes that effective educational leadership makes a difference in improving learning. There's nothing new or especially controversial about that idea. What's far less clear, even after several decades of school renewal efforts, is just how leadership matters, how important those effects are in promoting the learning of all children, and what the essential ingredients of successful leadership are.

The role of the school heads in any school cannot be undermined. Bell (2002) agrees with this assertion by emphasizing that head teachers play vital role in setting the direction for

schools in terms of positive and productive workplaces for teachers and vibrant learning environments for children. Bell (2002) however claims that existing knowledge on the best ways to develop these effective leaders is insufficient. Growing consensus on the attributes of effective school principals shows that successful school leaders influence student achievement. Approaches to leadership development vary, with some reformers emphasizing leadership and management skills over academic proficiency while others support the cultivation of teachers who understand instruction deeply and demonstrate leadership potential.

The role of the head teacher in every institution is very central to the success of the school. Headteachers are responsible for promoting good teaching and learning practices among teachers and students. The role of principals has become so crucial that they are responsible for resolving any conflicts that may arise among their teaching staff, students, and differences in stakeholder preference as to which direction the school should be managed despite having limited resources at their disposal. Headteachers are often ill-prepared and inadequately supported to organize schools to improve learning while managing all of the other demands of the job (Cole, 2004). Many aspiring school administrators are too easily admitted into and passed through the system on the basis of their performance on academic course work rather than on a comprehensive assessment of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to successfully lead schools (Leitner, 2004). Successful school leaders influence student achievement in several important ways, both through their influence on other people or features of their organizations, and through their influence on school processes (Comer, 2000). The role of school leaders has changed radically as countries transform their education systems to prepare young people to function in today's world of rapid technological change, economic globalization and increased migration and mobility (Miner, 2005). Therefore, from

the above one can understand that without an effective head teachers' leadership style schools can't attain their educational outcomes.

1.2.   Statement of the Problem

Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) results of Junior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality for the past six (6) years has seen a steady decline in the performance of students in the Municipality. One wonders what could account for this poor student's academic performance. Basic education is the first stage of the skill acquisition process on the educational ladder. In Ghana, basic education provides the essential building blocks to continue to higher levels of education. For those who are unable to pursue higher education, it provides the foundation upon which work- related skills are developed (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003). Etsey et al. (2009) assert that enrolment in basic education has experienced significant progress in Ghana but learning achievements appear to have stagnated. Universal basic education in Ghana spans a period of 11 years, made up of 2 years of kindergarten, 6 years of Primary School, and 3 years of Junior High School (JHS). At the end of the three years high school education, students are required to undertake the Basic Education Certificate Exams (BECE). Unfortunately, the performance of students in the BECE exams in the Asante Mampong Municipality has been very abysmal over the past 6 years. According to Oduro and MacBeath (2003), high academic performance, as measured by the examination results, is one of the major goals of a school. Behind all this is the idea of enhancing good academic performance (Mankoe, 2002).

The poor students' performance in BECE has continued to be a major concern for the Government of Ghana and other education stakeholders particularly at circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality (Gyasi et al., 2020). The poor performance has led to low mean grades for most candidates and thus jeopardized their chances for senior high school coupled

high students' rate. Over the past few years, concerns have been raised about the poor BECE performance of junior high students at circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality (Gyasi et al., 2020). Leadership is a key commodity in twenty-first century organizations especially for school organizations (Deborah, 2002). Head teachers have a key role to play in improving the quality of education for the most disadvantaged learners within increasingly decentralized systems (Luthans, 2002). In some cases, schools that boast of the best facilities still struggle in their effort to achieve academic success for their students. Having resources as well as good teachers alone is not sufficient for academic success. Teachers needs to be motivated in order to give out their best and students need to be in the right frame of mind to be able to absorb what is being taught them. The mantle then falls on head teachers who are leaders of schools to ensure academic success.

Unfortunately, it appeared not much had been undertaken in terms of scientific research in the circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality to ascertain the effect of leadership styles of headteachers on academic performance. It is to fill the gap in research in the area that this study sought to assess headteachers' leadership style on academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality. The value of leadership in attaining success in every institution cannot be underestimated. This study therefore sets out to identify the various leadership styles being used by head teachers and the extent to which their choice of leadership style impacts on the performance of their students. The study therefore hoped to find out if leadership styles of Junior high school heads at Mampong circuit in Asante Mampong Municipality had impact on students' performance in the BECE.

1.3   Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the effects of headteachers' leadership styles on academic performance of Junior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

1.4   Objectives of the Study

The study sought to ascertain the effects of headteachers' leadership styles on academic performance of Junior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipality of Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to:

i.   identify the leadership style that is predominantly used by headteachers of junior high schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality.

ii.   identify the effects of a headteacher's leadership style on academic performance of students at junior high schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality.

iii.   examine the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and students' academic performance at Junior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality.

iv.   identify the factors that hinder effective leadership style of headteachers of Junior High Schools which affects students' academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality.

1.5   Research Questions

The research sought to provide answers to the following questions:

i.   What leadership style is predominantly used by headteachers of Junior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

ii.   What is the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and students' academic performance?

iii.   What factors hinder effective leadership style among headteachers of Junior High Schools which affects students' academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

1.6   Significance of the Study

Lots of research have been done on leadership styles and academic performance at the second and third cycle institutions, however information on leadership style and academic performance of students at Junior High Schools in Ghana is limited. The study will enhance our understanding of how the various leadership styles affect students' academic performance. The study also provides information that may help the Asante Mampong Municipal Education Directorate to improve the scope of in-service programmes for head teachers to enhance efficient and effective leadership. The findings may again be useful to head teachers in the Municipality by helping them to re-examine and appraise their own leadership styles and make adjustments where necessary. In addition, the findings will be useful to educational policy makers in formulating policies on leadership and management of schools which will enhance efficient and effective leadership. Lastly, the findings may stimulate interest and further research in the area of study. This study may add to the existing body of knowledge on educational administration.

1.7   Delimitation of the Study

The study should have covered the entire Asante Mampong Municipality, but due to time, the researcher delimited the study to circuits in Mampong where the BECE result is poor. Also, Dubrin (2002) noted that there are various leadership styles, but the scope of this study covered just the autocratic, democratic and laissez faire leadership styles.

1.8   Limitations of the study

Limitations of the study cannot be overlooked since participation in this study is not compulsory. Some respondents were not forthcoming with answers to most of the questions while others provided scanty information. Time factor was also another constraint that faced this study. In fact, because this study was purely for academic purpose and therefore was time bound, it did not afford the researcher the opportunity to delve much into the leadership style that influence students' academic performance.

1.9   Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one dealt with the background to the study, statement of problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study, and organization of the study. Chapter two covered review of related literature while chapter three focused on the research design, population, sample size and sampling technique, instrument for data collection, data collection procedure and data analysis. Chapter four dealt with the presentation, analyses and discussion of the results and chapter five dealt with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Keywords: Autocratic leadership style, Democratic leadership style, Laissez faire leadership style, Headteacher, Junior High School, Basic Education Certificate Examination

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1   Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher reviewed literature relevant to the study. The review was organized under the following sub-headings: The concept of leadership; Leadership Styles; School Heads; Academic Performance; Leadership Styles and Academic Performance; The Role of the Head Teachers in Academic Performance; and Characteristics of a good Head Teacher.

2.2   The Concept of Leadership

Scholars and several authors have propounded several definitions of the term leadership. According to Charlton (2003) leadership is a process of persuasion and acting by example, by which others are motivated to take action. Thornton (2004) defines leadership as the process of helping individuals, teams and organizations become more valued and achieve more than they ever thought possible. He contends that leaders help people become more: principled, knowledgeable, skilled, passionate, determined, integrated, and balanced. Thornton (2004) explains that by so doing leaders subsequently help people achieve more productivity, quality and success. Daresh (2002) also claims leadership is defined as having impact on group processes, organizational change, ability to achieve goals, and having relationship attributes. A leader helps to inspire others has a strong vision for the future and can greatly influence organizations. Kelly (2011) is of the view that influence is an instrumental part of leadership and means that leaders affect others, often by inspiring, enlivening, and engaging others to participate.   Thus, the process of leadership involves the leader and the follower in interaction.

10

Maxwell (2005) asserts that when leadership is viewed from a non-moral perspective, it can be defined as the ability to obtain followers. The researcher agrees with Maxwell (2005) since a leader or school teacher who fails to rally the support of his followers around him is certainly doomed to fail. Although such a large number of definitions may seem confusing, it is important to understand that there is no single correct definition and their diversity can help us to appreciate the multitude factors that affect leadership, as well as the different perspectives from which it is viewed (Smith, 2005). Shaw (2005) admonishes leaders by claiming that although leaders do persuade others, others also persuade them. It is imperative therefore that every leader then must understand the mission, values and vision of the institutions and groups with whom they work. Since leadership is a give and take affair.

Leadership is vital in any organization. It involves defining the direction of a team and communicating it to people, motivating, inspiring and empowering them to contribute to achieving organizational success. Leadership requires being strategically focused and applying behavioural techniques to build commitment and attain the best work from your people. The ingredients of effective leadership are complex and are widely agreed to depend on the specific leadership situation, considering the difficulty of tasks, the degree of a leader's authority and the maturity and capabilities of subordinates. Leadership skills often take time to learn, because they are multi-faceted, behavioural and context dependent (Smith, 2005; Shaw, 2005).

Becoming an effective leader is so challenging to many new managers, but offers the rewards of successfully orientating people work to be most effective and achieving excellence in team performance. An understanding of the principles of strategic thinking, direction setting, communications and motivation provides a springboard for developing skills and an effective management style to suit your personality and leadership situations. Successful leaders in business often demonstrate the following attributes: An attitude of positivity, reliability and

11

pro-activeness, clear vision of business goals, a firm commitment towards meeting defined goals, an ability to effectively communicate their vision, commitment to their team and to their organization, skillfulness in planning and developing strategies, a focus on motivation and setting clear directions, the adaptability to engage with the views and needs of team members, an ability to inspire employees to meet goals, commitment to the happiness and wellbeing of their team and honesty and openness with their team.

According to Stogdill (2004), leadership is a universal human phenomenon. The study of Leadership is not a new phenomenon, but it is an ancient art. The old civilizations of Egypt and Rome showed examples of leadership practices (Stogdill. 2004). Stogdill (2004) further notes that regardless of the culture, leadership occurs universally among all people and emphasized that from ancient to modern times, scholars, military generals, politicians, and more casual observers have been interested in leadership. Leadership styles have been studied extensively; perspectives on leadership have been written and revised. Despite all these efforts, the issue of leadership effectiveness is still far from settled (Davis, 2002). Even though the word leadership has been used since the beginning of the 19th century, there continues to be the absence of a comprehensive approach to assess cause and effect of successful leadership ((Stogdill, 2004). In fact, the concept of leadership has been defined by various scholars in almost as many ways. Stogdill (2004) notes this ambiguity when he observed that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. This proliferation of definitions for leadership is primarily due to the complexity and elusiveness of the concept.

Galabawa (2001) describes this complexity by observing that there is no clear-cut agreement on the meaning of leadership for all circumstances. In an attempt to resolve the discrepancy of definitions, Boyne (2002) develops what he believes to be an umbrella definition of Leadership that would earn the acceptance of a majority of theorists and researchers. Boyne

(2002) definition describes leadership as a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of common task. In the literature, leadership has been a subject of interest since the 18th century. However according to Boyne (2002), leadership had not been scientifically studied until the early 20th century. Bass and Riggio (2006) contends that early theorists attempted to identify leadership through a theoretical approach. They continued with this analysis to suggest that researchers failed to develop sufficient theories because they could not consider the interactions between.

In considering the differences between a manager and leader, many scholars agree to differences, but widely disagree on what the differences are. Gupta (2009) argues that leadership and management are not synonymous terms. It is possible, Gupta (2009) argues, to be a leader without being a manager and also to be a manager without being a comprehensive approach to assess cause and effect of successful leadership. According to Gupta (2009), managers are generally expected not only to manage, but also to lead. He suggested that they should be criticized if they fail to do both. Leithwood and Wahlstrom (2004) viewed leadership as a part of management. They argued that managers are concerned with planning and organizing activities while leaders are involved in influencing others to enthusiastically pursue defined objectives. Leithwood and Wahlstrom (2004) suggested that excellent managers are also expected to exhibit strong leadership qualities. In this same vein Mosha (2006) distinguished between a manager and a leader by saying that manager's push and direct while leaders pull and expect. Bass and Riggio (2006) argued that leadership is not only management nor is management only leadership. Finally, Dean (2001) asserted that the difference between a manager and a leader is very similar to the transformational/transactional leadership differences which will be discussed in detail in subsequent sections.

13

2.3   Leadership Styles

Different researchers and academicians alike have come up with different leadership styles. Every leader in every organization performs certain roles/tasks for the smooth operation of the organization and improvement of organizational performance (YukI, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2006). The manner in which the leader performs these roles and directs the affairs of the organization is referred to as his/her leadership style (Schein, 2005). Leadership style therefore is the way a leader lead. Some leaders are more interested in the work to be done than in the people they work with, whilst others pay more attention to their relationship with subordinates than the job.

2.3.1   Autocratic or Authoritarian Style

An autocratic leadership style is one in where the leader tells the team members or the followers what to do, how to do it, and when to do it without any input from their followers. Sushila (2004) claims that autocratic leaders are directive leaders, allowing for very little input from subordinates. Thus, these leaders prefer to make decisions and solve problems on their own and expect subordinates to implement solutions according to very specified and detailed instructions. The researcher contextualizes those autocratic leaders to be these leaders who prefer to make decisions and address problems with little or no input of ideas from their followers on how to get things done.

2.3.1.1 Benefits of Autocratic Leadership

Murugan (2007) asserts that autocratic leadership provides "strong motivation and reward for the leader. According to Ghuman (2010) autocratic leadership can be useful in time of crisis when faster action is required and less competent subordinate managers and employees can be employed because they have to just execute the orders of the boss. Rounds and Segner

14

(2011) contend that under autocratic leadership, "decisions are quickly made and implemented. People know what to expect and they know where they stand. People tend to know who to look to direction and for decisions" (p.34). It therefore appears that autocratic leadership is most suitable during urgent instances, where the ability of the leader to dictate what should be done instantly is crucial. During emergencies where there is the need for swift action, it is often appropriate to employ an autocratic style.

2.3.1.2 Limitations of Autocratic Leadership Style

Autocratic statements are often perceived as hostile, mean and unfriendly nonetheless, such statements might be crucial at one point in time to enable the leader and his followers attain set purpose (Mayer, 2008). Ghuman (2010) also claims that proper planning, decision-making and organization is given little attention because the autocratic leader often wants others to follow what they perceive to be right. Murugan (2007) argues that authoritarian leadership tends to centralize power and decision making within one person-the leader. Leaving the followers feeling as though they are not part of the team. Mayer (2008) attest to the claims made by Murugan asserted that in autocratic leadership "decisions are made confidently with little concern about employee opinions. Mayer (2008) explains that when followers are treated this way, they tend to become demotivated; thus, autocratic leadership often leads to "high levels of staff turnover or skiving" (p. 45.).

2.3.2 Democratic Leadership Style

Democratic leadership in an organization refers to the redistribution of power and authority between employees and managers to provide employee involvement in decision-making. The democratic style of leadership emphasizes group and leader participation in the making of policies. Decisions about organizational matters are arrived at after consultation and

communication with various people in the organization. The leader attempts as much as possible to make each individual feel that he is an important member of the organization. Communication is multidirectional while ideas are exchanged between employees and the leader. In this style of leadership most policies derive from group decision. The leader is involved in policy formation but does not dominate group action.

Democratic leadership is also known as participative leadership (Lipham, 2004). This is a type of leadership style where members of the group are allowed to share and contribute ideas. The members of a group take more participative role in decision making while the leader puts himself as a member of the team and discusses possible decision with the team (Miner, 2005). The leader also seeks consensus before coming to a decision and everyone is supposed to take ownership in the final decision. In a school set up, teachers are given opportunity to come up with their own solutions for improving classroom experiences. The head teacher's role is to listen, be non-judgmental; provide self-awareness and clarification to teachers (Leitner, 2004). Pellicer (2003) expresses that it takes the combined effort of both the head teacher and the staff to identify factors that create and inhibit the development of a positive climate in the school. The democratic leader seeks the counsel of the whole team before making a decision on what the team should do (Blase, 2000). McGregor (2006) indicates that the leader in the school uses the democratic leadership style to build trust, respect and commitment because the style allows people to have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work. Students in schools need to be involved in the school's administration and in the implementation of decisions because these affects them directly. This study determined the ways in which head teachers in primary schools practiced democratic leadership styles to improve performance of their schools.

2.3.2.2 Benefits of Democratic Leadership

Motivation, initiative and creativity are higher than in autocratic groups and team members experience a high level of personal satisfaction. Also, the democratic leaders enable their members to be well educated and as such members tend to support the goals of the organization (Hamilton, 2010). Daniels (2004) claims that democratic leadership "promotes empowerment of team members and facilitates communication." Rounds and Segner (2011) attest to the views of Daniels by contending that democratic leadership has the benefit of enabling members or followers to express their opinions and to be able to bring on board their knowledge and expertise.

2.3.2.3 Limitations of Democratic Leadership

Daniels (2004) states that a major disadvantage of democratic leadership is that it results in excess waste of time since it tends to be time-consuming. He further explains that there is the likelihood of disagreements during decision making since every member might have diverse views. As a result, democratic leadership might not be very efficient. Rounds and Segner (2011) also are of the view that under democratic leadership followers contributing to the decision-making process often do not have all of the information necessary to be able to make an informed suggestion. When this happens, the leader could face tremendous challenges in achieving his or her targets. Deborah (2002) contends that under democratic leadership, "discipline is likely to be compromised". The authors above all seem to point to the fact that time wasting might result when leaders want to allow followers to bring on board their ideas. Democratic leaders therefore need to know when and how much input they require from their members to ensure that they don't waste so much time deciding on what decision to adopt.

2.3.3 Laissez-Fair Leadership Style

Laissez-fair leadership refers to is a type of leadership style in which leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. Contrary to these leadership styles, the laissez-faire leadership style is the kind of leadership that makes provisions for the individual to have dominant roles in decision-making and in the exercise of power. The style allows complete freedom to group decision without the leader's participation. Thus, the subordinates are free to do what they like. The role of the leader is just to supply materials. The leader does not interfere with or participate in the course of events determined by the group. The group lacks direction because the leader does not help in making-decision.

Laissez-faire leadership, also known as delegative leadership, is a type of leadership style in which leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions (Slavin, 2009). This style of leadership implies that someone in the position of a leader does not fulfill leadership responsibilities and practically does not engage or involve in any meaningful transactions whatsoever. This leader does little or nothing to affect either the followers or the outcomes of their behaviors. Passive or avoidant leadership describes the leaders who avoid getting involved in the work progress and decision making (Slavin, 2009). They would not like to clarify agreements and expectations of work for the followers. Goals and standards of tasks are not clearly presented for the followers. This leadership style consists of passive management-by-exception leadership and is seen as withdrawn and uninvolved. Leaders who display passive management-by-exception will not interfere into problem solving until followers suffer from certain serious deviations or wrongs (Slavin, 2009).

2.3.3.1. Benefits of Laissez-faire

Ghuman (2010) contends that the free-rein leadership style enhances job satisfaction of the subordinates as well as ensuring that the potential of the subordinates can be optimally

utilized. Deborah (2002) asserts that laissez-faire leadership style leads to trust in employees by the leader, the leader can easily delegate task to the followers, and most of all employees feel empowered. Barman (2009) also claim that laissez-faire leadership works best when the followers are capable and motivated in making their own decisions, and where there is no need for a central coordination.

2.3.3.2. Limitations of Laissez-faire

Ghuman (2010) explains that under the free-rein leadership style, the subordinates do not get the guidance and support of their leader and this can result in mediocre performance. Deborah (2002) contends that goals may not be achieved under laissez- faire leadership and roles and responsibilities are often poorly defined. They explain that this style is often used as a cover for bad leaders. Barman (2009) argues that in laissez-faire leadership the leadership involvement in affairs is minimized. This could result in the leader being ignorant of affairs especially in cases where followers fail to report accurate information to the leader.

2.4   School Heads

A school head is a person who is in charge of a school (Cotton, 2001). Schools like other organizations have objectives to achieve. The main objective of a school is to transmit knowledge, skills and desired attitudes to students (Cotton, 2001). Schools need proper leadership to accomplish the stated objective. In this study, a school head is the one who is responsible in motivating and ensuring other subordinates execute well their roles especially provision of quality Education. A school head is also responsible and accountable to the wider community. A headmaster has to perform multifarious duties. According to Cotton (2001), head teachers' multifarious duties can be categorized conveniently into the following:

i. Teaching: Headmaster of a school is a teacher first and last. Teaching is his fundamental duty. Headmasters remain so much absorbed in other duties that they never enter classes. But they should take at least two periods a day on specialized subjects. They should deliver or guide demonstration classes. Despite some frustration of administration and demands on his time improvement of instruction is one of the most important responsibilities and duties of headmaster. The headmastership and leadership are synonymous in education. He is the key person charged with responsibilities of improving instruction. Cotton (2001) notes that by actually teaching, the headmaster comes to know the standard of pupils in different classes and the standard of teaching in the school. He directly comes in contact and understands difficulties of students and teachers. No one expects headmaster to be an expert in all instructional areas. He may master at least one or two subjects with manageable standard in other subjects. In spite of the fact, that headmasters are over-burdened with a number of other duties; they should be first rate teachers being conversant with content and the latest methods of teaching (Cotton, 2001).

ii. Planning: Unless the headmaster plans for the school, there will be confusion all round. For making proper planning, help of pupils, teachers, and parents should be taken. Most of the planning will be there in course of discussions of school problems in the staff meeting and students councils (Cotton, 2001) Cotton (2001) paints a good paints a good picture that in extreme cases there are teachers without students, classes without teachers, class-sections with enrolment twice the capacity of the room, the teachers are handicapped, because of shortage of suppliers, lack of books and equipment's, improperly classified students. This state of affairs is due to inadequate planning in schools.

iii. Organization and Administration: According to Cotton (2001), the next important task of headmaster is organization. In the organization of school plant the headmaster should procure adequate furniture and equipment for the school. He should make petty repairs, distribute the furniture, look to the buildings, organize laboratories, the workshop and the library and take care of the sanitation and entire material aspect of school plant. The headmaster looks to the instructional work of the school including construction of curriculum, preparation and distribution at syllabi, work distribution among the staff, allotment of co-curricular duties, construction of the time schedule and the school calendar (Cotton, 2001).

iv. Supervision: Cotton (2001) emphasizes that supervision and administration are the two combined functions which are mostly blended in one. Administration means performance of certain routine duties in connection with finance, discipline, correspondence etc. By supervision it is meant the overseeing the work done by the teaching staff. Supervision is improving the total teaching learning situation. This situation is no more "detection or fault finding." Cotton (2001) notes that a headmaster should follow the following principles of supervision: Its purpose is to help, encourage and guide rather than criticize; it should be done in a spirit of cooperation; it should be done regularly and effectively; partiality and prejudice should find no place in it; and the criteria of supervision should be known to teachers.

Slavin (2009) adds that supervision of instructional work is the most important function of the headmaster and concluded that classroom is the heart of teaching situation. It is the centre of instruction. It is the duty of headmaster to upgrade the quality of education through creative, cooperative and constructive supervision. It is not a matter of rushing into a classroom in session to make correction or an adjustment, as an auto mechanic adjusts a faulty motor. A motor is a thing within itself, but a classroom is a combination of human

beings. Class visits form an essential part of the duties of the headmaster. But that alone gives him no right either to snub or criticize a teacher in the presence of the class (Slavin, 2009). Slavin (2009) further expresses that if the headmaster feels a particular teacher needs correction, the should send for the teacher for post-visit conference and concluded that the head role is to play an excellent guide and the post- visit conference should see the teacher, a better person, wiser and saner. Khaki and Safda (2010) add that when headmaster finds any defect with the teacher, it is the head duty to discuss after the period is over in the headmaster's office and not in front of the class.

2.5   Academic Performance

Academic performance is defined as an estimate of an individual's actual or potential power to perform well in schools task (Reeves, 2011). Ross and Gray (2007) on the other hand, claim that academic achievement is publicly determined by standardized test scores and information assessed by teachers as they work with students in classrooms. Academic achievement is defined by Scott (2010) as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning .i.e., achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill and knowledge has been imparted to the student. Academic achievement can therefore be termed as the level of academic accomplishment attained by a pupil. The term 'academic performance' has been described as the scholastic standing of a student at a given moment. It refers to how an individual is able to demonstrate his other intellectual abilities. This scholastic standing could be explained as the grades obtained in a course or groups of courses taken (Bell & Bush, 2003). Hanson (2006) comment on the scholastic standing of students and argued that performance is a measure of output and that the main outputs in education are expressed in terms of learning, that is, changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes of individuals as a result of their experiences within the school's system. Thus, in determining

academic performance, Farrant (1997) emphasizes the use of grades in examinations and reported that grades could serve as prediction measures and as criterion measures. Academic performance therefore is largely identified by a range of statistical indicators. Rogers (2003) supports this argument and reported that performance is the level of attainment of a person in an examination, that is, how an individual is able to demonstrate his or her abilities in an examination. Performance has been regarded as a measure of educational output (Muli, 2005).

2.6 Laissez-faire leadership Style and Academic Performance

Laissez-Faire leadership is when leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. With this style, freedoms are fully determined by group goals, techniques, and working methods. Leaders rarely intervene. Laissez-faire style is described by Cuban (2008) as the most effective style, especially where followers are mature and highly motivated. Laissez-faire leadership style allows complete freedom to group decision without the leader's participation. Thus, subordinates are free to do what they like. The role of the leader is just to supply materials. The leader does not interfere with or participate in the course of events determined by the group (Chandan, 2004). The leader in this case acts as the contact person with the group's external environment, very little power is used. Bush (2007) also refers to it as a free rein. Dubrin (2002) outline laissez-faire as one where the leader tends to avoid power and authority. Members establish goals and means of achieving progress to success. Chances of anarchy and chaos are high since the leadership does not guide people's activities (Ross & Gray, 2006). The head delegates almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organization. The head leads the organization indirectly, he/she does not make decisions; rather he/she abides by popular decisions. There is no setting of goal and objectives by the manager. Tasks are done the way the manager

thinks it should be done, but he/she gets involved on request and this may lead to the digression from broad organizational policy. Thus, this style of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced employees (Dubrin, 2002), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy.

2.7   Democratic Leadership Style and Academic Performance

Decentralization of authority, participatory planning and mutual communication are some of the main features of democratic leadership. However, as Waters and Cameron (2007) point out the major point of focus is sharing; the manager shares decision-making with the subordinates. Even though he/she invites contributions from the subordinates before making a decision, he/she retains the final authority to make decisions (consultative). The manager may also seek discussion and agreement with teachers over an issue before a decision is taken (consensus). He/she may allow the subordinates to take a vote on an issue before a decision is taken. He/she coaches subordinates and negotiates their demands (Dubrin, 2002). This type of leadership is viewed as an important aspect of empowerment, teamwork and collaboration. It has been observed that a school is more effective when those who are affected by the organization's decisions are fully involved in the decision-making process. Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (2002) is that the participative style of leadership wastes time due to endless meetings and may lead to confusion and lack of direction. By implication. It is not appropriate for use in times of crisis when the situation demands on-the-spot decision (Bush, 2007). Decentralization of authority, participatory planning and mutual communication are some of the main features of democratic leadership. However, as Bush (2007) points out, the major focus is sharing - the manager shares decision-making with the subordinates. Even though slhe invites contributions from the subordinates before making a decision, slhe retains the final authority to make decisions (consultative). The manager may

also seek discussion and agreement with teachers over an issue before a decision is taken (consensus). S/he may allow the subordinates to take a vote on an issue before a decision is taken (democratic). S/he coaches subordinates and negotiates their demands (Dubrin, 2002).

This type of leadership is viewed as an important aspect of empowerment, teamwork and collaboration. It has been observed that a school is more effective when those who are affected by the organization's decisions are fully involved in the decision- making process. Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (2002) is that the participative style of leadership wastes time due to endless meetings and may lead to confusion and lack of direction. By implication, it is not appropriate for use in times of crisis when the situation demands on-the-spot decision (Bush, (2007). However, unlike the laissez-faire style, the leader adopting this style maintains the final decision- making authority.

Goker (2006) argues that effective democratic and participatory school administration and leadership affect the trust levels of stakeholders. Goker's (2006) study focused on a survey of the effectiveness of democratic and participatory school administration and management. Indicators of participatory school administration, leadership and management effectiveness, according to Goker (2006) study, correlated with the stakeholders' level of trust. The study suggested that school leaders wishing to enhance the levels of trust among the: stakeholders in their schools should consider these indicators, pertaining to the participatory or democratic leadership approach, in carrying out their leadership duties and responsibilities.

As pointed out by Kouzes and Posner (2003), school heads know that no one: does his/her best when feeling weak, incompetent or alienated; they know that those who are expected to produce the results must feel a sense of ownership. In order for a school to provide quality education, those who have been empowered to lead the transformation of the schools to address the challenges of the new millennium should carefully nurture democratic leadership.

Democratic leadership can be effectively utilized to extract the best from people and the most effective and efficient educational climate can be created in a school when democracy is employed. The democratic leadership practices in schools outline procedures to develop and use the potential of all the stakeholders of a school in order to create and foster quality education. The principles of democratic leadership are flexibly applied in order to create a climate in which all stakeholders are able to express themselves freely and hence feel that they are part of the democratic decision-making process. Stakeholders need to feel that they are able to have an influence over what should happen at the school rather than to be subjected to the decisions of those placed in positions of hierarchical power (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

2.8   Autocratic Leadership Style and Academic Performance

This part of the review examines the relationship between the autocratic leadership style and school performance in schools. Dubrin (2002) describes autocratic leadership style as a style where the manager retains most authority for him/herself and makes decisions with a view to ensuring that the staff implements it. S/he is not bothered about attitudes of the staff towards a decision. S/he is rather concerned about getting the task done. He/she tells the staff what to do and how to do it asserts him/herself and serves as an example for the staff. This style is viewed as task-oriented (Dubrin, 2002).

Autocratic leaders are generally disliked, as there is no scope for initiative, consideration, and self-development on the part of followers. Teachers and learners, for example, whose school principals employ the autocratic leadership style, remain insecure and afraid of the leadership authority. This eventually reduces their ability to explore their potential. This style is typical of a leader who tells his employees what he wants done and how he wants it done, without

requesting the input/advice of his subordinates. Some people tend to perceive this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. However, under certain conditions, the autocratic leadership style is appropriate, especially when one has all the information to solve the problem, when one has little time, and when employees are well motivated. In the case of schools where autocratic leadership is practiced, its application is most likely to be characterized by arbitrary advances, arbitrary disciplinary measures, and termination of services. The effect has always been dissatisfaction with work on the part of the employees. Mullins (2002) argues that autocratic leaders in schools are more concerned with despotic influence in order to get the job accomplished rather than with the development and growth of subordinates. As far as they are concerned the work and the accomplishment of the goals of academic success matter more than their concern for those being led.

Autocratic leaders create a situation where subordinates who do not want to realize the importance of work are forcefully led to work (Mullins 2002). According to Mullins (2002), autocratic leaders supervise subordinates very closely to ensure compliance and the completion of work in the designated time. Leadership is meant to be effective even where the situation seems harsh so as to drive organizational intentions towards goal achievement. Principals generally emphasize it, since it reaps results very quickly, as subordinates work under pressure to meet deadlines. Other studies by Mullins (2002), however note that principals, who use authority to get things done, are too strict in the formality by which things are done. This hinders teacher creativity, especially in instances where creativity and planning are imperative to anchor the academic program in schools.

2.9   The Role of the Head Teacher in Ensuring Academic Performance

Schools were run by masters who taught, administered and run all other programmes in schools (Printy & Marks, 2006). However, with increasing population came larger schools, and the demand for complex duties led to the practice of designating one of the masters as Headmaster or principal. Over the years, administrative duties mounted and teaching duties for the principal declined, subsequently the concept of full-time administrator evolved (Ross & Gray, 2006). The best, most effective, leaders also have their own unique styles of going about doing things. They have qualities that tend to drive organizations towards the attainment of results.

According to Ross and Gray (2006), the person who plans with vision and executes with responsibility is virtually the principal. They explain that the school is aptly called the lengthened shadow of the principal and that the character of the school reflects or proclaims the character of the principal. The head teacher has the responsibility for the day to day management of all aspects of the school's work. Ross and Gray (2006) remind us that the head is the leader in implementing and supporting empowerment. A principal is a catalyst rather than a commander. His openness with the staff members enables him to develop objectives, which belong to the institution rather than to him as an individual.

One of the priorities of heads of school is to monitor the teaching learning process in their schools. Monitoring involves actions envisaged by the head to ensure that things are going according to the objectives set at different levels and at different points in time and also to see to it that things are revolving according to plan and in line with the target set. The purpose of monitoring is, as such, to increase efficiency and improve effectiveness of the system in place. Since teachers and heads are input variables in a school, the head, as an instructional leader must support and facilitate any initiative conceived by teachers. The researcher believes that before any head teacher can holistically attain success in their various schools,

28

the head teacher needs to first of all find answers to the following questions raised by Bush (2007):

i. What are the roles of educational leaders in a learning community?

ii. What steps must a principal take to develop a shared vision and mission?

iii. What strategies can educational leaders use to communicate and sustain the vision?

iv. How do heads build the trust that contributes to improved student achievement?

v. What communication skills do leaders need to successfully lead learning communities?

vi. What do heads need to know about the change process?

2.10 Characteristics of a Good Head Teacher

Ribbins (2000) highlights the following as the characteristics of a good head teacher:

i. Among the head personal qualities, a head teacher should be companionable and of a jovial disposition. Never awe-inspiring, the head must like children and be seen to be tolerant in his dealings with them. Yet, another desired quality is constituency in all his dealings with the students who look for it and readily respond to it.

ii. The head should be gifted with organizing and administrative abilities which enable him to martial effectively the various school activities.

iii. A good head teacher must always bear in mind that he is responsible for the educational advancement of all the children under his care. The advancement comprises the intellectual, moral, emotional and physical. This is by no means an easy task, requiring a high sense of duty and dedication on the part of the headmaster.

iv. The qualified head teacher should be smartly dressed at all times, thereby setting a silent, but effective, example for his teachers to follow. He is without fail punctual at his place of work. This too inspires his teaching staff to do likewise.

v.   The head teacher's role is essentially one of relationships - with higher authorities, staff members, parents, school council, visitors to the school and most importantly, children for whom schools are built. Due respect should be accorded to school inspectors, lately known as education officers, and all help extended to prospective teachers and their university tutors.

vi.   A head teacher, worthy of his position, should manifestly show respect for others because between him and the members of staff exist quite a number of personal relationships. He should therefore approach his dealings with them in a constructive manner, and be ready to learn even from the most junior members of his staff. The must appear to be fair in all his encounters with them and lacking in any semblance of favoritism. Without the full cooperation of staff, the wise headmaster realizes that he cannot alone manage effectively the affairs of his school.

vii.   The head teacher should listen to subordinate grievance and complaints and does all he can to redress their legitimate complaints to their satisfaction, as long as they are genuine reasonable and politely submitted.

viii. The head should bear in mind that in several instances, a teacher's slips inadvertently perhaps, are brought to his attention through the parents.

## 2.11   Leadership Qualities of Excellent Headmaster

Heck (2000) lists the roles of a headmaster that contribute to the success, excellence and quality of schools, namely as:

i.   Have a vision of school

ii.   Setting the philosophy, mission and goals and objectives of the school

iii.   Explaining his/her vision to all staff and students including parents and the community

iv. Setting objectives and teaching strategies and curriculum

v. Supervising, monitoring and evaluating the curriculum and instructional program

vi. Coordinate instructional programs and extracurricular activities of the school

vii. Monitoring of students' learning time

viii. Encourage and support professional development for teachers

ix. Assist and support teachers in teaching and provide intensive and resource

x. Controlling the quality of teaching in schools

xi. Creating a school climate that is conducive to enhance the learning process

Elmore (2000) on the other hand, indicates that an excellence headmaster should have the quality and features as follows:

i. Have a vision for the organization.

ii. Ability to communicate a vision to obtain the commitment of staff.

iii. Converting vision into action.

iv. Open but firm management style.

v. Believe in the abilities of staff.

vi. Determination to set challenging objectives

vii. Ability to plan with flexibility.

viii. Ability to acquire all the resources, especially human resources.

ix. Ability to motivate staff.
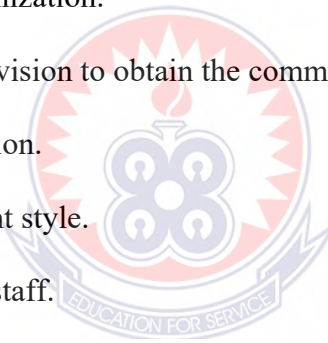
2.12 Leadership and Human Relationship

School leadership is the process of enlisting and guiding the talents and energies of teachers, pupils, and parents toward achieving common educational aims. This term is often used synonymously with educational leadership. To Dempster (2002), leadership is organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal and concluded that leadership occurs when one

person induces others to work toward some predetermined objectives. Dempster (2002) also indicates that human relationship is an interpersonal relationship associated between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. Human relationships are formed on different circumstances; it could be cultural, social, family, friendship, work and social groups. Leadership and human relation go side by side, you cannot choose between them, and you have to choose them altogether.

According to Coetzee (2004), leadership is all about relationship, there is a good leader behind every successful task, and tool of every successful leader is good human relationship. A leader inspires other with his character and earned the trust with whom he interacts. He gives respect to his staff members and treats them like a family. He knows the problems of staff members and helps them at the time of crisis. Relationships involve some level of interdependence between two parties and people in a relationship tend to influence each other by different means; share their thoughts and feelings, and engage in activities together with trust (Coetzee, 2004). Coetzee (2004) emphasizes that educational leadership depends on human relation, it all about relationship at every level, relationship with teaching staff, administrative staff and students. Without good relation with teacher, it is impossible for a leader to achieve good academic result. Without the help of administrative staff and teachers it is almost impossible to run a school in proper order, teachers are the soul of a school and without the help of them the school would be a chaos. Therefore, good relations between leader and his school teachers are very important for the improvement of school and the over-all performance of teachers (Coetzee, 2004).

Teacher student relationship is also very important. A good relation between them will lead the school to better performance and academic achievements, which will be success on the part of leader, therefore it is the responsibility of a leader to provide them better environment where teacher and students could develop better relationship. Get together from time to time

32

and tour of teachers and students outside the school. Arrange co-curricular activities in the school where teacher and student both participate (Coetzee, 2004). Concerning the relationship of the leader with his colleagues in educational institution, Kochhar (2002) states that the relation of the school head to his teachers should be the most intimate of any. Kochhar (2002) further emphasizes that head teacher is a friend in need to students, teachers and parents. Draper and McMichael (2002) emphasize that in order to establish a good relationship between head teachers and teachers, head teachers should embrace the contributions of teachers and show that their efforts and contributions are highly valued. In return teachers should be willing to be supportive towards the efforts of the head teachers. Moreover, a healthy work relationship between teachers and head teachers is one that enables and promotes the development of the teacher's career (Draper & McMichael, 2002).

2.13   Leadership and Indiscipline

A leadership style refers to a particular behavior applied by leaders to motivate his or her subordinates to achieve the objectives of an organization (Day, 2000). Mullins (2003) identified three types of leadership names authoritarian, democratic and lassies faire. According to Mullins (2003), the autocratic leadership style results in the group members reacting aggressively and apathetically in work environment. Ribbins (2000) postulates that autocratic leadership centralizes power in the person of the leaders as well as ignoring the needs of the followers. In democratic leadership style the major point of focus is sharing. Barasa (2007) notes that leadership of a school head should be democratic, combining self-confidence, friendless, firmness and tact. It should not merely consist of issuing orders. Also says that the head leads better if he consults his staff and students from time to time on what is going on in the school. The principal shares decision making with the subordinates. He/e seeks discussion and agreements with all the stakeholders before a decision are taken

(Hersely, 2002). He also observed that effective democratic school administration affects the trust level of students, teachers and parents.

Gupta (2009) states that the heads should endow each student with habits, self-respect and proper pride in his integrity that he will observe the norms of good conduct when not under compulsion or supervision and will carry them eventually into adult life. David (2007) finds out that democratic leadership style function in school administration.

Discipline in the school is the function of the administration. The general school and even decision on discipline is dependent upon the head teacher administrative supervisory and leadership styles (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Hoy and Miskel (2008) emphasize that the success of schools to a great extent depends upon head teachers discipline management techniques. They are leaders who must set the standard for hard work and good behavior. According to Mosha (2004), leadership of a head should be democratic combining self-confidence, friendliness and firmness. It should not merely consist of issuing orders. Dean (2001) emphasizes that head teachers should not be too autocratic in their leadership. They should not use tense body language being rigid or clench hands, insulting, humiliating or embarrassing teachers, students, support staff and even parents among others which will lead to indiscipline of students and teachers.

Hoy and Miskel (2008) note that head teachers should encourage open door policy where both teacher's student are free to see the head of the institution to explain their problems, should encourage students to bring new chamber as well as creative ideas, accept that he/she is capable of making mistakes, allow students to question his/her views. Show no favorites and treat all students equally. encouraging democratic form of school organization in which students elect their own leaders, provision of a suggestion box within the for students to give independent views about the school administration and even allowing students to have a say in determining the dress code of the school (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Gonos and Gallo (2013)

conducted a study on influence of head teachers' leadership styles on students' discipline and found out that leadership style of the head teacher has a considerable influence on school discipline although other factors may come into play to impact on discipline.

2.14   Leadership Theories

Individuals in leadership positions tend to be relatively consistent in the way they attempt to influence the behaviour of others, meaning that each individual has a tendency to react to people and situations in a particular way. According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), this pattern of behaviour is referred to leadership style. Hoy and Miskel (2008) assert that leadership style has a significant impact on performance. Lussier and Achua (2009) contend that leadership style is the combination of traits, skills, and behaviours leaders use as they interact with followers. Although a leadership style is based on traits and skills, the important component is the behaviour, because it is a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterizes a leader. Hoy and Miskel (2008) argue that leadership styles can be placed on a continuum that encompasses three distinct styles: Autocratic, participative or democratic, and free-rein. The researcher takes a critical overview of the three forms of leadership styles suggested by Hoy and Miskel (2008) in the succeeding headings.

2.14.1 Trait Theory of Leadership

The trait approach to leadership was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership. In the early 20th century, leadership traits were studied to determine what made certain people great leaders. The theories that were developed were called 'great man' theories because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders (Northouse, 2009; Waite, 2007). The trait theory of leadership makes the assumption that distinctive physical and psychological characteristics

35

account for leadership effectiveness. Traits such as height, attractiveness, intelligence, self-reliance, and creativity among the traits thought to have an impact on leadership effectiveness (Manning & Curtis, 2002). Some qualities of the leadership traits are elaborated below:

i. Intelligence: Using good judgments; having good reasoning and thinking capacity

ii. Decisiveness: Making difficult decisions without undue hesitation

iii. Self-Confidence: Having a positive self-image as a capable and effective person

iv. Initiative: Being a self-starter, getting jobs done

v. Supervisory Ability: Getting the job done through others

2.14.2 Contingency Theories of Leadership

Leadership contingency theory holds that the most appropriate leadership qualities and actions vary from situation to situation. Effectiveness depends on leader, follower, and situational factors (Manning & Curtis, 2002). The contingency approach to leadership proposes that effective leadership cannot be explained by anyone factor. Instead, it proposes that all factors must be considered in the context of the situation in which the leader finds himself (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2007). In this section, the fiddler and path goal contingency theories of leadership are elaborated.

2.14.3 Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership

Leitner (2007) contends that Fiedler theory assumes that leaders are either task-oriented or relationship-oriented but never both in a single case. He claims that under the Fiedler's theory, task-oriented leaders are directive, structure situations, set deadlines and make assignments. Relationship-oriented leaders focus on people, are considerate, and are not strongly directive. To divide leader into relationship-oriented, or task-oriented, Fiedler has created a three-dimension model. The most important dimension is the leader member

relation. It describes the relationship between subordinate and leader. The dimensions include trust and respect. The next dimension is the task structure which describes the definition of the work if it is standardized and predictable or ambiguous and vague. The last dimension is the position power, which is refers to the formal organization authority of the leader (Leitner, 2007).

2.14.4 Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

According to Chance and Chance (2002), the path goal theory tries to elucidate the impacts of four various kinds of leadership styles or behaviour on the attitudes of subordinates and their expectations as well. They contend that the path-goal theory is of the view that subordinate and environmental characteristics influences leadership outcome. Leitner (2007) is of the view that the path-goal theory explains how the role of the leader affects the motivation of the subordinates in order to attain desired goals as well as eliminate any form of barriers en route to goal accomplishment. The path-goal theory can be used by all kinds of leaders at various levels in the organization and for all types of tasks. If a leader wants to effectively utilize the path-goal theory, the leader must first of all examine their subordinates and the various task they are involved with. Upon carefully observing the subordinates, the leader would be ill a better position to select the most appropriate leadership style to suit those features of the subordinates in order to attain results (Northouse, 2009).

The theory was built upon two propositions. The first proposition was that the behaviour of the leader would be acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates perceived it as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as an instrumental source to future satisfaction. The second proposition was that the behaviour of the leader would be motivational to the extent that (a) it made the satisfaction of subordinate's contingent upon effective performance and (b) that it complemented the work environment of

subordinates by providing guidance, clear direction, support, and reward for effective performance. For the purpose of testing these propositions, House devised four types of leader behaviour: (a) directive, (b) supportive, (c) achievement- oriented, and (d) participative. According to House, the use of any of these types of leadership would be situation-dependent.

2.15   Conceptual Framework

This conceptual framework was developed based on literature and findings from different researchers. It was mainly based on Bass and Riggio (2006) and others' writings that leadership style influences students' academic performance. The three styles used in this study are authoritative, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles. It is assumed that each of these styles relates to students' academic performance in a certain way. The model shows that three leadership styles are related to students' academic performance.
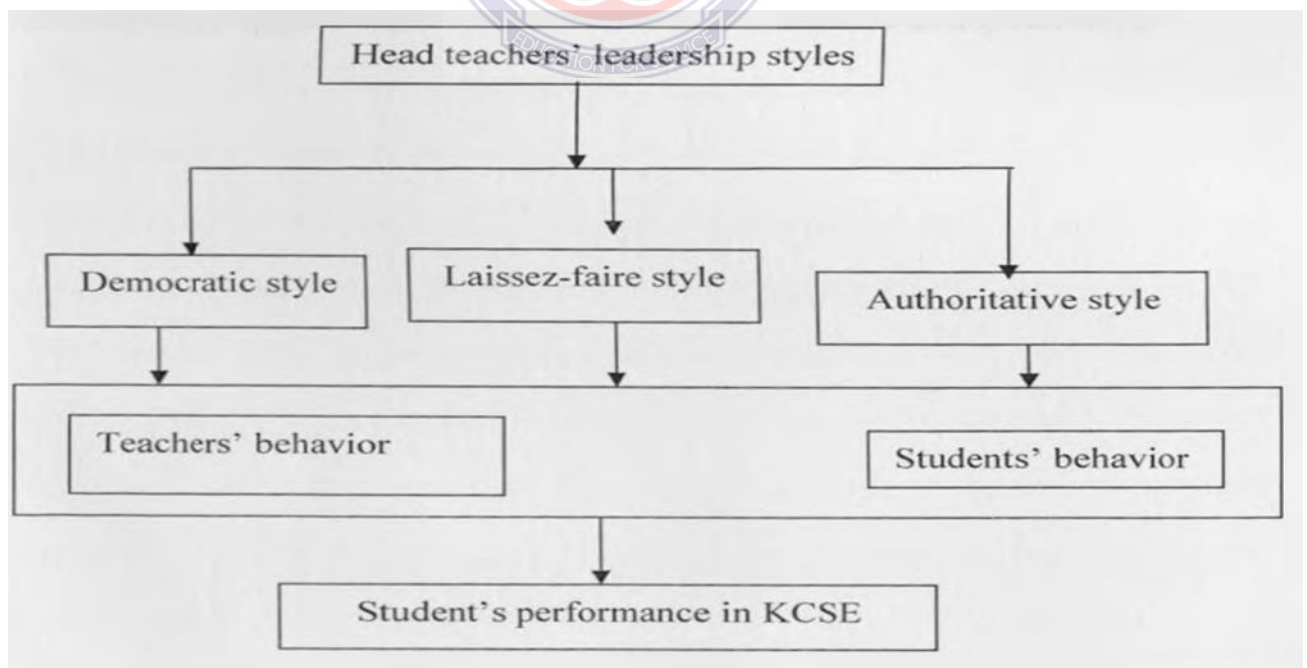
Fig 2.1: Conceptual framework of leadership styles on student's performance

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This Chapter describes the manner in which the study was conducted. The key components are the research design, population, sample size and sampling technique, research instruments, validity and reliability, data administration and collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.2   Research Design

The study employed descriptive survey design to assess the effect of leadership styles of the head teacher on the students' academic performance. Descriptive survey designs are used in preliminary and exploratory studies to allow researchers to gather information, summarize, present and interpret for the purpose of clarification (Patton, 2002). Patton further notes that descriptive survey research is intended to produce statistical information about aspects of education that interest policy makers and educators. By involving a broad category of head teachers and teachers the proposed study is within the cross-sectional sub-types of descriptive survey study designs. Through descriptive survey, the researcher intended to determine the nature and the extent of head teacher's leadership styles on students' academic performance. That was to determine the status without manipulating the variables.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) postulate that descriptive survey addresses issues such as quantity, cost, effectiveness, and adequacy. With regard to the research approach, the study followed the quantitative approach in that it was based on variables with numbers and analyzed with statistical procedures using descriptive statistics (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research is used on numerical data and measurable variables (Amin, 2005). Thus, quantitative approach is applicable to phenomena that can be expressed in terms of quantity.

Quantitatively the researcher used survey instruments to gather data and from the research participants.

3.3   Population of the Study

Population of a study refers to all the members of the real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which a researcher wishes to generalise the results of a research (Gall, Gall, & Borge, 2007). The population of this study is therefore JHS teachers in Asante Mampong Municipality. Also, a target population refers to that population or group that a researcher intends to make generalization to (Kothari, 2004). Hence, the target population for the study is Junior High Schools teachers in the Asante Mampong Municipality. Lastly, an accessible population refers to the population the researcher intends to draw his/her sample from. In this regard, the accessible population are circuits in Asante Mampong Municipality that perform poorly in BECE.
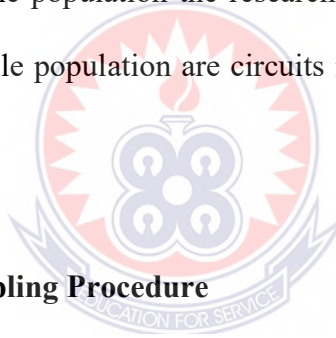
3.4   Sampling Size and Sampling Procedure

The concept sampling arises from the inability of a researcher to test all the individuals in a given population. A sample is simply a subset of a population. Sampling refers to the process of selecting a portion of a population to represent the entire population. The rationale behind sampling is to make way for a researcher to conduct the study to individuals from the population so that the results of the study can be used to derive conclusions that will apply to the entire population. The population gives the sample, and then it takes conclusions from the results obtained from the sample (Springer 2010; De Vos, 2002).

Purposive and convenient sampling procedures were used for this study. Purposive sampling technique was used to select six (6) out ten (10) circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality

for the study namely: Central A, Central B, Central C, South A, South B and Benim circuit. **(Table 3.1)**. Convenient sampling technique was used to select four (4) Junior High Schools in each of the six (6) circuits indicated. Five (5) teachers from each of the four (4) schools participated in the study. In all, one hundred and twenty (120) teachers were involved in the study.

Table 3.1 Junior High Schools and their respective Circuits in the Asante Mampong Municipality

MAMPONG CIRCUIT	SCHOOLS
1. Central A	Bosofour R/C JHS, St. Monica's JHS, St. Paul's R/C, Mamtech JHS, Mampong Unity M/A JHS, MTTC JHS, Obeng Asamoah Academy M/A JHS, Mampong M/A Experimental JHS, Mampong Apostolic JHS
2. Central B	Mensah Saahene JHS, St. Andrews JHS, Grace M/A JHS, Messiah Baptist JHS, Mampong Muslim Mission
3. Central C	Krobo M/A JHS, Brofoyedru M/A JHS, Kyiremfaso M/A JHS, Mampong T I Ahmadiya JHS, Mampong Methodist JHS, St. Andrews Practice JHS, Daarul Q'uran JHS
4. South A	Mprim M/A JHS, Nsuase Islamic JHS, Hwidiem M/A JHS, Ninting Presby JHS, Ninting M/A JHS
5. South B	Yonso M/A JHS, Yonso M/A 2 JHS, Yonso Islamic JHS, Kyekyewere M/A JHS, Apaah Methodist JHS, Apaah Presby JHS
6. Benim Circuit	Penteng/Nwase M/A JHS, Nyinampong M/A JHS, Benim Methodist JHS, Benim Saviour JHS, PSK M/A JHS
7. Asaam Circuit	Asaam M/A JHS, Asaam Methodist JHS, Nwadan M/A JHS
8. Kofiase Circuit	Kofiase SDA A, B, Otuasekan M/A JHS, Kofiase M/A, Kofiase M/A, Kofiase Methodist JHS, Kofiase Abubakar Islamic JHS, Kofiase Damascus M/A JHS, Kofiase Ebenezer Unique JHS, Aframano M/A JHS
9. Aboutem Circuit	Nkwanta M/A JHS, Brengo Presby JHS, Aboutem M/A JHS, Bunuso M/A JHS, Nana 'O' M/A JHS, Bosomkyekye M/A JHS
10. Adidwan Circuit	Dome M/A JHS, Atonsuagya M/A JHS, Woraso M/A JHS, Adidwan M/A JHS

3.5   Instruments of Data Collection

Osuola (1987) views research instrument as a device of any kind used in collecting facts and figures relating to a population. The instrument for collecting data in this study was the

questionnaire. Questionnaires were used because they are the main method of data collection (Sarantakos, 1997). Also, the researcher used questionnaires because the population is literate.

The questionnaire was designed and divided into sections delineating personal information, questions about the independent variables and the dependent variable. According to Best and Kahn (1993), questionnaire serves as the most appropriate data-gathering device in research when properly constructed and administered. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) also assert that the coverage of questionnaire is wide as researchers can reach respondents more easily and is unaffected by problems of 'non-contacts'. The popularity of questionnaires is probably based on some advantages among which are its low cost in terms of both money and time involved and also, it covers many people and its inflow is quick (Gall et al., 2007). It is, however, limited to literate populations and does not provide an opportunity to collect additional information (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

The questionnaires contained items on a Likert scale. All of the questions were closed-ended items. Questionnaire for the respondents had four sections, thus sections A, B, C, and D. Section A collected data on respondent's background information. Section B had 3 items that collected data on leadership styles used by Headteachers. Section C had 8 items to measure the relationship between Headteachers leadership style and students' academic performance. Section D had 5 items to measure the factors that hinder effective leadership style among Headteachers of Junior High Schools. All the questions were of 4-point Likert scale (Agree, Strongly Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

3.6   Pilot -Testing of Research Instrument

The questionnaire was subjected to critical scrutiny to ensure its consistency and appropriateness. It was given to some colleagues, experts in education and my supervisor for

the study for their perusal and comments with the view to establishing face validity. This enabled the researcher to remove items that were considered irrelevant to the subject under consideration. New ideas and relevant items derived from the exercise were included in the: final draft of the instrument. The questionnaire was pilot-tested at select schools in the Aboutem Circuit of the Asante Mampong Municipality. The purpose of this pilot test was to help determine the extent to which the research questionnaire would be effective in collecting data from respondents for the actual study.

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. Reliability of the instruments was also obtained by using the test- retest reliability. Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) argue that for most educational research, stability of scores over a period of two months is usually viewed as sufficient evidence of test-retest reliability. The reliability of the instruments was further established using Cronbach's Alpha measure of internal consistency. This statistic provides an idea of the average correlation among all of the items that make up the scale of the instrument. In the view of Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990), the Cronbach Alpha measure of internal consistency is useful when measures have multiple scored items such as attitudinal scale. The Cronbach Alpha therefore gave a reliability figure of 0.87, which is far above the recommended reliability of 0.70 (Kaplan & Saccuz, 1993).

3.7   Data Collection Procedure

The administration of instruments was done by the researcher in order to ensure elaboration and clarification of issues wherever and whenever needed to iron out ambiguities and/or misinterpretations. The help of a research assistant was also sought to speed up data administration and collection. Three weeks was used for the distribution and collection of the completed questionnaires. The researcher visited the selected circuits between the hours 10am - 2pm and interacted with the head teachers and other teaching staff. After permission

from the head teacher of the school had been obtained, the researcher personally administered the questionnaires to the head teachers and the teachers, and collected the questionnaire later when she was informed about the completion of the instrument.

3.8   Data Analysis Procedure

Data from questionnaires was compiled, sorted, edited, classified and coded into a coding sheet and analyzed using a computerized data analysis package known as Statistical Product for Service Solutions 20.0. This software was selected because of its reliability, accuracy, user friendliness interface and more importantly is the most employed package for analysing data (Gravetter & Wallanau, 2004). Also, its statistical capabilities alone range from simple percentages to complex analyses of variance, multiple regression, and general linear models. It provides extensive data management functions, along with a complex and powerful programming language.
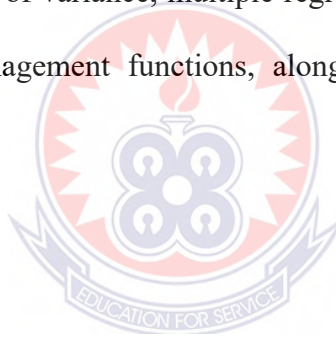
3.9   Ethical Considerations

The researcher observed and adhered to research ethics. In adhering to the ethical issues, the researcher safeguarded against doing anything that would harm the participants in the study. The researcher also sought permission from the participants to have them participate in the study. It was the responsibility of the researcher to interpret the data and present evidence so that others could decide to what extent interpretation is believable. The researcher also ensured that participants were informed, to the extent possible, about the nature of the study. Informed consent allows the respondents to choose to participate or not (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). The participants were given the freedom to choose to participate or not to in the study. Confidentiality and anonymity were achieved by not asking participants to write their names on the questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings. It contains information on the respondents' background, the independent variables, the intervening variables and the dependent variables. This chapter is divided into two major sections. The first section provides the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section presents the answers and discussions to the study research questions. Tables showing frequencies and percentages have been drawn to facilitate the analysis, interpretation and discussion. The first demographic variable of interest was the sex of the respondents. The distribution of respondents by sex is hence presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	70	58
Female	50	42
Total	**120**	**100**

Data in Table 4.1 shows that out of the total of 120 respondents, the male respondents had the higher representation of 58% while the female respondents represented 42%. The data shows males were the dominant respondents in this study. Also, age of respondents was a demographic variable of interest. The distribution of respondents by age is hence presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
30 and below	23	19
31 – 40	57	48
41 – 50	28	23
51+	12	10
Total	**120**	**100**

Data in Table 4.2 indicates age distribution of respondents. Fifty-seven respondent representing 48% were between the ages of 31-40, twenty-eight respondents representing 23% were between the ages of 41-50, twenty-three respondents representing 19% were thirty years and below and twelve respondents representing 10% were fifty-one years plus. The data undoubtedly depicts that most of the respondents were above thirty years,

The educational status of the respondents was also an essential demographic data that was collected. Table 4.3 shows the distribution of the educational status of respondents.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by their Educational Qualification

Educational status	Frequency	Percent
Diploma	22	18
Degree	88	73
Masters	10	8
Total	**120**	**100**

Data in Table 4.3 indicates that most of the respondents had attained tertiary education. In fact, 73% of the respondents had first degree, 18% had diploma and 8% had masters. This data clearly points to the fact that overwhelming majority of the respondents were first degree holders. Another significant demographic data of concern was the respondents' rank. Table 4.4 therefore shows the distribution of respondents by their ranks.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by their Ranks

Teachers' rank	Frequency	Percent
Below Principal Supt.	21	18
Principal Superintendent	52	43
Assistant Director II	37	31
Assistant Director I	10	8
Total	**120**	**100**

Data in Table 4.4 indicates the ranks of respondents. Fifty-two respondents representing 43% were at the rank of Principal Superintendent, thirty-seven representing 31% were at the rank Assistant Director II, twenty-one respondents representing 18% were below the rank of Principal Superintendent and ten respondents representing 8% were at the rank of Assistant Director I. The data therefore shows that majority of the respondents were at the rank of Principal Superintendent.

Lastly, years of teaching experience was an important demographic data of interest to the researcher. Table 4.5 hence presents the distribution of respondents by years of teaching experience.

Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents by their Years of Experience

Years of experience	Frequency	Percent
1-5	18	15
6-10	30	25
11-15	47	39
16+	25	21
Total	**120**	**100**

Data in Table 4.5 shows years of teaching experience of respondents. Forty-seven respondents representing 39% had 11-15 years of teaching experience, thirty respondents

representing 25% had taught for 6-10 years, twenty-five respondents representing 21% has 16 years plus of teaching experience while eighteen respondents representing 15% had taught for 5 years and below. The data clearly gives prima facie evidence that a number of the respondents had taught for more than five years.

Answers to the Research Questions

In this section attempts are made to seek answers to the various research questions that guided the study. In this regard, a conscious effort is made to discuss the findings and link them to relevant literature in the work.

Research Question one: What leadership style is predominantly used by headteachers of Junior High Schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

This research question has the sole aim of ascertaining the leadership style that is predominantly used by headteachers of junior high school in the Asante Mampong Municipality. To determine this, a multiple regression analysis was done for the three dominant leadership styles, democratic, autocratic and laissez-fair. The result of the multiple regression analysis is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Multiple regression analysis on the three Dominant Leadership Styles

Variables	Standard error	Standardized co-efficient	Sig.
Democratic style	160	.125	.585
Autocratic style	1.478	.582	.001
Laissez-fair style	.691	.308	.031
Constant		2.426	
R		.698	
AR^2		.373	

*$p < 0.05$.

The data in Table 4.6 illustrates the results of the regression analysis. The analysis gives the coefficients of the predictor variables, the standard error, the level of significance, the correlation (R), and the adjusted R^2. When the students' academic performance was regressed on the predictor variables, thus democratic, autocratic and laissez-fair leadership styles, only autocratic style was found to be a dominant leadership style among headteachers of junior high schools in Asante Mampong Municipality.

In fact, this finding is quite not surprising because there is ample evidence in the literature that gives credence to the importance of being an autocratic leader. For instance, Murugan (2007) asserts that autocratic leadership provides "strong motivation and reward for the leader. According to Ghuman (2010) autocratic leadership can be useful in time of crisis when faster action is required and less competent subordinate managers and employees can be employed because they have to just execute the orders of the boss. Rounds and Segner (2011) contend that under autocratic leadership, "decisions are quickly made and implemented. People know what to expect and they know where they stand. People tend to know who to look to direction and for decisions." (p.34). It therefore appears that autocratic leadership is most suitable during urgent instances, where the ability of the leader to dictate what should be done instantly is crucial. Though, Murugan (2007) argues that authoritarian leadership tends to centralize power and decision making within one person-the leader leaving the followers feeling as though they are not part of the team.

Research Question two: What is the relationship between a headteacher's leadership style and students' academic performance?

The purpose of this research question was to find out whether a headteacher's leadership style has any relationship with students' academic performance. Zero-order correlation was

therefore used to assess the relationship between the three leadership styles and academic performance. The result is presented in Tables 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4.7: The results of the Zero-order Correlation between Democratic Leadership Style   and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Democratic Style	Pearson Correlation	.695**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.8: The results of the Zero-order Correlation between Autocratic Leadership Style   and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Autocratic Style	Pearson Correlation	.389**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.9: The results of the Zero-order Correlation between Laissez-fair Leadership Style   and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Laissez-fair Style	Pearson Correlation	.147**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The information in Tables 4.7,4.8 and 4.9 reports the Zero-order correlation coefficients between the three leadership styles and students' academic performance. The Zero-order correlation coefficients obtained for democratic, autocratic and laissez-fair are r = 0.798**, 0.389** and 0.147** respectively. They are all positive with significance or p-value = 0.001 which is less than alpha = 0.05. However, it was only the democratic style of leadership that showed a very strong relationship with students' academic performance. It therefore suggests that democratic style was significantly related to the students' academic performance. This

gives a clear indication that headteachers who use practice democratic leadership style have greater number of students who perform well academically.

The results from this study turn out to share similar views in the literature reviewed. McGregor (2006) indicates that the leader in the school uses the democratic leadership style to build trust, respect and commitment because the style allows people to have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work. Students need to be involved in the school's administration and in the implementation of decisions because this affect them directly. Also, the democratic leaders enable their members to be well educated and as such members tend to support the goals of the organization (Hamilton, 2010). Daniels (2004) claims that democratic leadership promotes empowerment of team members and facilitates communication. Rounds and Segner (2011) attest to the views of Daniels by contending that democratic leadership has the benefit of enabling members or followers to express their opinions and to be able to bring on board their knowledge and expertise. However, Deborah (2002) contends that under democratic leadership, discipline among students is likely to be compromised.

Research Question three: What factors hinder effective leadership style among headteachers of junior high schools which affect students' academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

The purpose of this research question was to find out whether there are certain factors that make it uneasy for headteachers to be effective in their leadership style. To determine this, a multiple regression analysis was done for the five factors that were identified in the literature. The result of the multiple regression analysis is presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Multiple regression analysis on the Factors that Hinder Effective Leadership Styles

Variables	Standard error	Standardized co-efficient	Sig.
Poor human relation	212	.325	.001
Lack of managerial skills	205	.375	.001
Lack of foresight	235	.208	.045
Lack of respect to teachers	182	.572	.001
Lack of self-confidence	208	.468	.001
Constant		1.845	
R		.801	
AR^2		.636	

*p < 0.05.

The data in Table 4.10 illustrates the results of the regression analysis. The analysis gives the coefficients of the predictor variables, the standard error, the level of significance, the correlation (R), and the adjusted R^2. When the students' academic was regressed on the predictor variables, thus poor human relation, lack of managerial skills, lack of foresight, lack of respects for teachers and students, and lack of self-confidence, all but one of the variables, that is, lack of foresight was found not to be a significant predictor of that factors that hinder effective leadership style which also affect students' academic performance in Asante Mampong Municipality.

This finding is consistent with a number of studies (Elmore, 2000; Heck 2000; Ribbins, 2000). For instance, Ribbins (2000) highlights a number of characteristics of an effective head. One, he says a head should be gifted with organizing and administrative abilities which enable him/her to perfom effectively the various school activities. Also, he points out that a head teacher, worthy of his/her position, should manifestly show respect for others. He should therefore approach his/her dealings with them in a constructive manner, and be ready to learn even from the most junior members of his/her staff. Dempster (2002) also indicates that leadership and human relation go side by side, and you cannot chose between them but have to choose them altogether. According to Coetzee (2004) leadership is all about

relationship, there is a good leader behind every successful task, and an effective tool of every successful leader is good human relationship. A leader inspires other with his character and earned the trust with whom he interacts. He gives respect to his staff members and treats them like a family. He knows the problems of staff members and helps them at the time of crisis.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1   Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher presents a summary of the research findings, and conclusions drawn from the findings and finally the recommendations for further studies.

5.2   Summary of Key Findings

The study attempted to assess the effects of head teachers' leadership styles on academic performance of Junior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The following research questions guided the study:

   i.   What leadership style is predominantly used by headteachers of junior high schools in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

  ii.   What is the relationship between a headteacher's leadership style and students' academic performance?

 iii.   What factors hinder effective leadership style of headteachers of junior high schools which affect students' academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality?

The following are the major findings of the study:

   i.   The research question one which sought to find out the predominantly used leadership style in Junior High Schools in Asante Mampong Municipality revealed that head of junior high schools frequently exhibited autocratic leadership style.

  ii.   With respect to research question two which sought to find out the relationship between leadership styles and students' academic performance in the Asante Mampong Municipality, it was revealed that all the three leadership styles, thus democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire were positively related to students' academic

performance. However, it was only the democratic style of leadership that had a stronger magnitude.

iii. The research question three sought to find out the factors that hindered effective leadership of school heads which subsequently affect students' academic performance, it was revealed that all but one of the variables, that is, lack of foresight was found not to be a significant predictor of the factors that hinder effective leadership style which also affect students' academic performance in Asante Mampong Municipality.

5.3   Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it was possible to draw a conclusion since the school heads mostly adopted the autocratic leadership style, it is concluded that teachers' morale was not likely to be boosted which would undermine the commitment and productivity which has the high tendency to affect students' academic performance negatively. Also, since it was found that there was positive correlation between headteachers leadership styles and students' academic performance, it is concluded that if students' performance is to be enhanced, then school heads to exhibit good leadership style. Lastly, it is concluded that poor human relation, lack of managerial skills, lack of respect for teachers and students and lack of self-confidence hinders the effectiveness of school heads.

5.4   Recommendations

In light of the research findings and conclusions drawn, it is recommended that:

i. The Municipal directorate of the Ghana Education Service, Guidance and Counselling units, Heads of Educational Institutions and educationists in academia etc. should be encouraged to organize workshops and seminars for head teachers to educate them on the need to avoid employing autocratic leadership style frequently as its frequent used

undermines students' academic performance. This can be stressed during orientation and in-service training for school heads.

ii. School heads in the Asante Mampong Municipality should be encouraged to adopt democratic style of leadership in the management of schools in all circumstances as they are found to yield positive effect on students' performance.

iii. School heads in the Asante Mampong Municipality should be encouraged to establish cordial relationship with their teachers as it could go a long way to improve students' academic performance.

iv. School heads should endeavour to create an enabling environment to help students approach the school authorities with the challenges they encounter.

REFERENCES

Babbie, E., & Mouton, 1. (2004). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Barasa, J. M. N. (2007). *Educational organization and management*. Nairobi: Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.

Barman, K. (2009). *Leadership management: Achieving breakthroughs*, New Delhi: Global India Publications PVT Ltd.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership.* New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bell, 1., & Bush, T. (2003). Educational management and administration. *Journal of the British Educational Leadership Management and Administration Society, 5, 67-89.*

Bell, L. G. (2002). *Managing teams in secondary schools*. New York: Rutledge.

Blase, J. (2000). *Teachers bringing out the best in teachers: A guide to peer consultation for administrators and teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Bottery, M. (2006). School leadership and management. *University of Hull, 26*(1), 5-22

Boyne, G. A. (2002). Public and private management: What's the difference? *Journal of Management Studies, 39*(1), 97-122.

Burns, J. M. (2008). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Bush, T. (2007). Principal leadership for outstanding educational outcomes. *Journal of Educational Administration, 43*(4), 338-356.

Chance, P. L., & Chance, E. W. (2002). *Introduction to educational leadership and organizational behavior.* London: Eye on Education, Inc

Chandan, S. (2004). *Management theory and practice*. New Delhi: Vicas Publishing House PVT.

Charlton, G. D. (2003). *Leadership and the human race*. Cape Town: Juta and Co, Ltd.

Cheng, Y. C. (2004). Principal's leadership as a critical factor for school performance: Evidence from multi-levels of primary schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 5*(3),299-317.

Coetzee, B. (2004). *Education management*. Pretoria: Technikon.

Cole, G. A. (2004). *Management theory and practice* (6th ed.). London: Book Power.

Comer, J. P. (2000). *School power: Implications of an intervention project*. New York: The Free Press.

Cotton, K. (2001). *School wide and classroom discipline*. Portland: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cuban, L. (2008). *The managerial imperative and the practice of leadership in schools.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Daniels, R. (2004). *Nursing fundamentals: Caring & clinical decision making*. Wadsworth: Thomson Learning, Inc.

Daresh, J. C. (2002). *What if means (to be a principal: Your guide to leadership)*. California: University Press.

David, T. (2007). Promoting early adolescents' achievement and peer relationships: The effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 134* (2), 223-246.

Davis, M. (2002). *Human behavior at work*. New York: Mc Grew-Hill Book Company.

Day, C. (2000). Beyond transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 57(7), 56- 59.

Dean, J. C. J. (2001). *Managing the secondary schools*. London: Croonelm.

Deborah, K. (2002). The changing face of leadership. *Educational Leadership, 59*(8), 61- 63

Dempster, N. (2002). The professional development of principals: A review of policy. *The Practising Administrator, 24(*3), 38-40.

Draper, J., & McMichael, P. (2002). Managing acting headship: A safe pair of hands? *School Leadership and Management*, *22*(3), 289-303.

Dreikurs, R. (2008). *Psychology in the classroom* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.

Dubrin, A. J. (2002). *Leadership: Research, findings, practice and skills* (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Elmore, R. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership*. Washington, DC: The Albert Shanker Institute.

Farrant, J. S. (1997). *Principles and practice of education*. Singapore: Longman.

Galabawa, J. C. J. (2001). *Perspective in educational management and administration*. Dar es Salam: KAD Associates.

Ghuman, K. (2010). *Management: Concepts, practice & cases*. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Education Private Limited.

Goker, D. S. (2006). Leading for learning: Reflective management In EFL schools. *Theory into Practic*e, *45*(2), 187-196.

Goldman, P. U. (2000). *The head teachers' changing role and training requirements*: A comparative study. Unpublished Masters' Dissertation. Institute of Education, University of London.

Gonos, J., & dan Gallo, P. (2013). Model for leadership style evaluation. *Management,* 1*8* (2), 157-168.

Gupta, J. (2009). *The process of management.* Bareilly, V.K: Publishing House.

Gyasi, S. R., Li, C., Akolgo, G. I., Owusu-Ampomah, Y. (2020) "Students Performance and Leadership Styles in Ghana Education Service: The Case of Mampong Municipal

Assembly in Ashanti Region", *International Journal of Scientific Research in Science, Engineering and Technology, 7*(2), 77-86.

Hackman, J. R. Johnson, T. (2009). Group influence on individuals. In: M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1455-1525). Chicago: Rand-McNally.

Hamilton, C. (20 I 0). *Communicating for results: A guide for business and the professions* (9th ed.). Ohio: Wadsworth Cengage Learning Publishers, Inc.

Hanson, M. (2006). *Educational administration and organizational behaviour* (4th ed.). London: Allyn and Bacon.

Heck, R. (2000). Estimating the impact of school quality on school outcomes and improvement: A value-added approach. *Educational Administration Quarterly. 36*(4), 513-552.

Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. (2009). Assessing the contribution of distributed leadership to school. Improvement and growth in math achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 46*(3), 659-689.

Lipham, 1. M. (2004). Organizational character of education: Administrative behavior. *Review of Educational Research, 34*(4), 435-454.

Lunenburg, F. c., & Ornstein, A. C. (2007). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices* (13th ed.) Belmont: Thomson Brook/Cole

Ltsey, K., Smith, T. M., Gyamera, E., Koka, J., & Boer, J. D. (2009). *Emmanuel Havi review of basic education quality in Ghana basic education in Ghana: Progress and problems*. Retrieved on 17/05/2017 from http://ddp-ext. worldbank.org/EdStats/GHAdprep09. pdf GMT)

Lussier, R. N., & Achua, C. F. (2009). *Leadership: Theory, application and skill development*. Mason: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Luthans, F. (2002). *Organizational behaviour* (9th ed.). Singapore: McGraw- I-fill.

Mankoe, J. O. (2002). *Educational, and management in Ghana*. Accra: Progressive Stars Printing Press.

Manning, G., & Curtis, K. (2002). *The art of /leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Marzano, R . .T., & Marzano, J. S. (2003). The key to classroom management. *Educational Leadership, 61*(1) 613.

Maxwell, J. C. (2005). *Developing the leader within you*. Nashville: Thomas Nelson Publishers.

Mayer, T. (2008). *What makes a good leader & how might the performance of leaders be measured.* Munich: GRIN Verlag, Norderstedt, Germany

McGregor, D. (2006). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Miner. J. B. (2005). *Administrative and management theory*. Brookfield.

Moos, R. H. (2009). *Evaluating educational environments*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey- Bass.

Mosha, H. J. (2004). *New directions in teacher education for quality improvement in African Papers in education and development.* No.24:45-64.

Mosha, H. J. (2006). *Planning education systems for excellence*. Dar-es-salaam: E&D Limited.

Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda, A. G. (2003). *Research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches.* Nairobi: Acts Press.

Muli. M. M. (2005). *Effects of head teacher's management styles on performance in Physics at K. CSE Examination in Mutomo Division*, Kitui District. Unpublished Med Project, University of Nairobi.

Mullins, .I. (2002). *Management and organizational behavior* (6th ed.). Italy: Lombarda Rotolito of Leadership in Education.

Mullins, J. (2003). *Management and organisational behaviour*. London: Pitman.

Murugan, M. S. (2007). *Management principles and practices*. New Delhi: New Age International Publisher.

Northouse, P. G. (2009). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Oduro G. K. T., & MacBeath, J. (2003). Traditions and tensions in leadership: The Ghanaian experience. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *33*(3), 442-455.

Okumbe J. A. (2001). *Human resources management: An educational perspective*. Nairobi: Educational Development and Research Bureau.

Panneerselvam, R. (2004). *Research methodology*. New Delhi: PHI.

Patton, M. (2002*). Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. California: Sage Publishers

Pellicer, L., O. (2003). *Caring enough to lead: How reflective thought leads to moral Leadership* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Perry, A. 2008). *The management of a city school*. New York, NY: Macmillan.

Printy, S., & Marks, H. M. (2006). Shared leadership for teacher and student learning. *Theory into Practice, 45*(2), 125-132.

Reeves, D. B. (2011). *Finding your leadership focus: What matters most for student results*. New York: Teachers College Press Publishers

Ribbins, P. (2000). Understanding leadership: Developing headteachers. In T. Bush et al. (Eds.), *Educational management: Redefining theory, policy and practice*. London: Paul Chapman.

Robertsson, 1. (2009). *Effective classroom control: Understanding teacher-pupil relationships*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Rogers. D. (2003). *Issues in adolescent psychology*. New York: Meridian Cooperation.

Ross., I. A., & Gray. P. (2007). School leadership and student achievement: The mediating effects of teacher beliefs. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *29*(3), 798.

Ross, J., & Gray, P. (2006). School Leadership and student achievement: The mediating effects of teacher beliefs. *Canadian Journal of Education, 29(*3), 798-822.

Rounds, 1. L., & Segner, R. O. (2011). *Construction supervision*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.

Schein, E. H. (2005). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Scott, C. F. (2010). *The effect of leadership style on student achievement in title elementary schools*. London: Abor ProQuest Publishers.

Sergiovanni, T. 1. (2006). *Rethinking leadership*: *A collection of articles* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press and National Staff Development Council.

Shaw, K. A. (2005). *The intentional leader*. New York: Syracuse University Press Ltd.

Singh, K. (2009). *Organizational behaviour*: *Text and cases*. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley Pvt, Ltd

Slavin, R. E. (2009). *Educational psychology: Theory and practice* (9th ed.). USA McGraw Hill.

Smith, R. E. (2005). *Human resources administration: A school-based perspective* (3rd ed.). Larchmont, New York, NY: Eye on Education, Inc.

Stogdill. R. M. (2004). *Handbook of leadership.* New York: The Free Press.

Sushila B. (2004). *Management and evaluation of schools*. Nairobi. Oxford University Press East Africa Ltd.

Thornton, P. B. (2004). *Leadership: Seeing, describing, and pursuing what's possible*. Indiana: Unlimited Publishing Ltd.

Waite, M. R. (2007). *Fire service leadership: Theories and practices*. Burlington: Jones and Barlett Publishers, Inc.

Waters, T., & Cameron, M. A. (2007). *The balanced leadership framework: Connecting vision with action*. London: Prentice-Hall.

YukI, G. (2002). *Leadership in organisation* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.Y: Prentice Hall.

YukI. G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice- Hall.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS
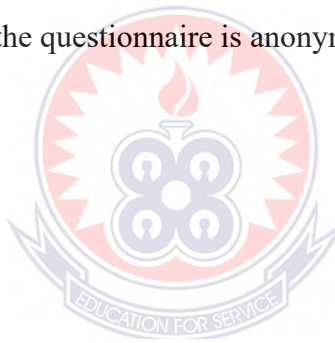
Dear Respondent,

I am carrying out a study on the topic *" Assessing the effects of headteachers' leadership styles on academic performance of Junior High School students in Asante Mampong Municipality of Ghana"*. It is against this background that you have been randomly selected to participate in the research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per instructions at the beginning of each section. You are required to provide the most appropriate answer in your opinion. Your responses will be kept confidential. In any case the questionnaire is anonymous.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

………………………………….

(Researcher)

APPENDIX B

SECTION A

RESPONDENTS BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please help us classify your response by supplying the following facts about yourself and your opinion on the raised issues by ticking an appropriate box. There is no right nor wrong answer therefore no particular response is targeted.

1. Gender. Male { } Female { }

2. Age. 30 and below { } 31-40 { } 41-50 { } 51+ { }

3. Educational Qualification. Diploma { } Degree { } Masters { }

4. Teaching Rank. Below Principal Supt { } Principal Supt { } Asst Director II { }

   Asst Director I { }

5. Teaching Experience. 1-5yrs { } 6-10yrs { } 11-15yrs { } 16yrs+ { }
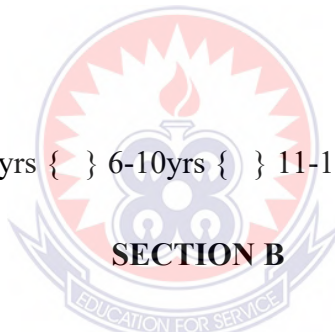
SECTION B

LEADERSHIP STYLE PREDOMINANTLY USED BY HEADTEACHERS

| Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Democratic style				
2. Autocratic style				
3. Laissez-fair style				

66

SECTION C

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A HEADTEACHER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The students in my class are well vested in sharing their opinion in class				
2. The students in my class are able to comprehend what they learn				
3. The students participate in group work				
4. Students are anxious of learning new things by seeking audience with teacher				
5. Students participate effectively in class activities				
6. Students are able to participate in problem solving process				
7. Students are afraid to ask questions in class				
8. Students generally put in much effort in studying				

SECTION D

FACTORS THAT HINDER EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE AMONG
HEADTEACHERS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Statement	Agree	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Poor human relation				
2. Lack of managerial skills				
3. Lack of foresight				
4. Lack of respect to teachers				
5. Lack of self confidence				
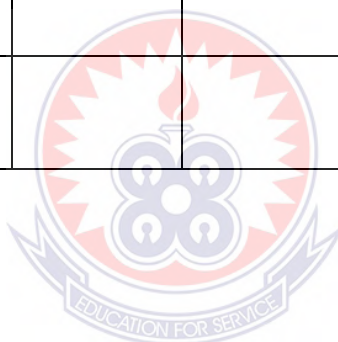
APPENDIX C

Multiple regression analysis on the three Dominant Leadership Styles

Variables	Standard error	Standardized co-efficient	Sig.
Democratic style	160	.125	.585
Autocratic style	1.478	.582	.001
Laissez-fair style	.691	.308	.031
Constant		2.426	
R		.698	
AR^2		.373	

*$p < 0.05$.

Zero-order Correlation between Democratic Leadership Style and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Democratic Style	Pearson Correlation	.695**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Zero-order Correlation between Autocratic Leadership Style and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Autocratic Style	Pearson Correlation	.389**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

69

Zero-order Correlation between Laissez-fair Leadership Style and Students' Academic Performance

		Students' Academic Performance
Laissez-fair Style	Pearson Correlation	.147**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	001
	N	120

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Multiple regression analysis on the Factors that Hinder Effective Leadership Styles

Variables	Standard error	Standardized co-efficient	Sig.
Poor human relation	212	.325	.001
Lack of managerial skills	205	.375	.001
Lack of foresight	235	.208	.045
Lack of respect to teachers	182	.572	.001
Lack of self-confidence	208	.468	.001
Constant		1.845	
R		.801	
AR^2		.636	

*$p < 0.05$.