UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SURVEY INTO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS IN THE NURSES TRAINING COLLEGES IN THE CENTRAL REGION

JEMIMAH FATI ACKON

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SURVEY INTO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS IN THE NURSES TRAINING COLLEGES IN THE CENTRAL REGION

BY

JEMIMAH FATI ACKON

Dissertation submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Education Degree in Educational Administration

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Candidate's Name: Jemimah Fati Ackon

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Name: Mr. J. M. Dzinyela

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to ascertain the most appropriate leadership styles of Principals that enhance academic performance of students in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region. The study was based on such research question as how do tutors perceive the leadership style of their respective principals? The assertions made by the authors in the literature review mentioned the issues of the attitude administrators, the level of female education, how females were perceived in all aspects of life and some traditional and/or social beliefs that affected the performance of female administrators and how they are perceived by staff.

The study was conducted in three (3) Nursing training schools in the Central Region, namely Cape Coast Nursing and Midwifery Training School, Anakaful Psychiatric Nursing Training College and Winneba Community Health Nursing Training School. The study was a descriptive survey. The sample for the study was 334 made up of 24 tutors, 300 students and 10 non-teaching staff members. Simple random method was used to select the sample for the study. Questionnaire was the instrument used for the study.

The study revealed that Heads' supervisory roles had been ineffective in the Region resulting in poor academic performance of students. It was recommended that the Ghana Health Service (GHS) should make the programme management/administration as a requirement for principalship.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I acknowledge the outstanding contribution of my supervisor, Mr. J. M. Dzinyela, who spent tireless efforts to make this work a success. The principals, staff and students of the schools used for this study need to be commended for their immense contribution. Finally, I am indebted to Rev. John Bentil and all my loved ones for their support.

DEDICATION

To my loving husband, parents and children especially, Daniel Ackon and Mildred Ackon for their love and encouragement given during the period.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
DECLARATION		
ABSTRACT		
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS		
DEDICATION		
LIST OF TABLES		
CHAPTER		
ONE	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background to the Study	1
	Statement of the Problem	5
	Purpose of the Study	6
	Research Questions	6
	Significance of the Study	7
	Delimitation of the Study	7
	Limitations of the Study	7
	Organisation of the Rest of the Study	8
TWO	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	9
	Concept of Leadership	9
	Leadership Styles	15
	Leadership Qualities	16
	Douglas McGregor's XY Theory and	
	William Ouchi's Theory Z	18

	General perception of workers about female	
	Heads/Principals	25
	Attitude of Female Principals	28
	Traditional/Social/Beliefs/Barriers to Women's	
	Advancement	33
	Principals' use of Resources	41
	Instructional Leadership	42
	Leadership Styles and Students' Achievement	44
	Summary	45
THREE	METHODOLOGY	47
	Research Design	47
	Population	48
	Sample and Sampling Technique	49
	Instrument	49
	Pilot -Testing of Instrument	51
	Procedure for Data Collection	52
	Data Analysis Procedure	53
FOUR	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	54
	Research Question 1: How do tutors and students	
	perceive the leadership style of their respective principals?	56
	Research Question 2: How are the principals using	
	the resources available to the school?	66
	Research Question 3: In what ways does instructional	

	leade	rship of principals influence students' achievement?	69			
	Resea	arch Question 4: In what ways can principals help				
	impro	improve on students' academic performance?				
FIVE	SUM	MARY, CONCLUSIONS AND				
	RECO	OMMENDATIONS	74			
	Summary					
	Sumn	nary of the Major Findings	76			
	Concl	lusions	77			
	Reco	mmendations	77			
	Sugge	estions for Further Research	78			
REFERENCES						
APPENDICES						
	A	Questionnaire for tutors	93			
	В	Questionnaire for students	97			
	C	Questionnaire for all staff	100			

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Population of the Study Area	49
2	Gender of Respondents	55
3	Professional Qualification of Tutors	55
4	Present Rank of Respondents in the GHS	56
5	Number of Years Tutors have been Teaching	56
6	Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals	57
7	Tutors' Involvement in the Management of Nursing	
	Training Colleges (tutors)	60
8	Students' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals	63
9	Principals' Leadership Styles and Management of	
	Institutions (non-teaching staff)	67
10	Principals' attempts to bring about desirable change	
	in the college (non-teaching staff)	70
11	Measures Enhancing Leadership Styles of	
	Principals (non-teaching staff)	73

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The increasing number of enrollment creates problems in leadership, management and administration of Health training institutions in Ghana. One would ask, are the principals of such institutions doing the right things to enable the schools realize their educational goals? In a report on Graduate Unemployment, Ministry of Employment And Social Welfare (1999) stated, the vision of Ghana is to develop its human resources to achieve a middle income status by the year 2020 and as part of achieving this goal, many nursing and midwifery training schools have been established by both Government and private institutions. This has given rise to the increased intake of students with its attendant administrative challenges. The primary concern of workers in the nursing and midwifery training schools is the effective administration of teaching and learning as well as welfare of both students and staff.

Nursing career must respond to the profound changes taking place in the structure of health care delivery and the need for nurses to exercise leadership to bring about the needed change. Exercising the leadership necessary to bring about such a change means developing, implementing and sustaining appropriate nursing leadership and management capacity. No country can have a bright future without a well-trained manpower resource. It is the responsibility of heads of Health training institutions to ensure that the purpose of their establishment is realized. The performance of the health training institutions in licensing examination seems unsatisfactory. The factors for this unsatisfactory performance are many and varied and include probably ineffective leadership. Leadership requires the ability to get others to work enthusiastically and competently towards accepted objectives Burns (1987) expresses a belief that the leader's principal task is one of instituting purpose. Cribbin (1972) sees leadership as a process. To him, leaders continue to influence others mainly by means of competence, motivation and communication towards goal setting, acceptance and achievement. From the stated definition of leadership, it is very clear that leadership is made up of the following aspect. First leadership is the ability to use the different forms of power to influence followers' behaviour in a number of ways.

There is a general agreement that the administrative leadership of a school is the key element to the effectiveness of the school (Wallace Foundation, 2007; Short & Greer, 1997). Similarly, other writers and scholars (Thomas, 1992; Day & Robert, 1988) see leadership as a key concept in understanding and improving organizations such as schools. As Roberts (1985) puts it, educational leadership does have substantial impact on school organization. Therefore, it is essential that schools have effective, quality leaders.

For many years now, researchers in the area of educational leadership have attempted to identify links between educational leadership and school effectiveness research. This phenomenon is mainly due to the perception that educational leaders, especially school principals, affect school effectiveness

(Edmonds, 1979; Fuller, 1987; Rutter et al, 1979). However, two main issues have arisen: Firstly, what positions or roles do leaders have in a school organization? Secondly, under what conditions does school leadership affect students' achievement and to what extent?

In relation to the first issue, it is interesting that the vast majority of researchers have been involved mainly in studies of principals' leadership styles. However, recent research has also been concerned with the leadership of persons who have other roles in a school organization such as teachers, (Ogawa & Bossert 1995; Pounder, Ogawa & Adams, 1998; Pashiardis, 2004). As a consequence, it is necessary to investigate the parameters of many individuals' leadership styles in order to give a more complete overview of school leadership.

The second issue is more complex due to contradictory findings concerning effects of leadership on students' achievement. Some studies found no influence whereas others identified some effects (Edmonds, 1979; Andrews & Soder, 1987).

The meta-analyses, conducted by Hallinger & Heck (1998), emphasized at least two important elements that differentiate the results among many studies. Firstly, the different educational systems and cultures among the various countries lead to different results (also in Pashiardis, Thody, Papanaoum & Johansson, 2003). Secondly, the absence of intermediate variables between principals' leadership and students' achievement tends to find no links between them.

Principals often are seen as the linchpin to grassroots school reform, doing the steady work of leading instruction and motivating teachers and

students. Critics of current school governance structures argue that principals are too constrained by regulations and education interest groups to act effectively (Chubb & Moe, 1990). These analysts often place principals at center stage in their push for charter schools, school-based management, or sending dollars directly to principals based on a weighted student formula (Ouchi, 2003). Other analysts argue that the current system already affords principals the flexibility to manage for results – some principals, in their view, simply fail to use that flexibility (Hess, 2006). In this view, it is not institutional flexibility that's the problem; but instead, principals' misplaced goals and capacities that constrain them. Despite reformers drastically varying prescriptions, the principal's office consistently plays a central role.

Although we lack a clear empirical picture of what principals do or why, we do know that their job is difficult. During a recent five-year period in New York City, more than half vacated their posts, a share that can't be explained only by historical retirement rates (Ingersoll, 2003).

An understanding of leaderships is of vital importance for educational administrators (Morphet and Reller, 1982). The role of the principal is much more complicated than the process of just dealing with a primary group. He deals with many groups both formal and informal. Many of these groups have conflicting goals purposes and expectations, teachers expect that the principal should be fair firm and just, students expect that the head ensure that teaching and learning go on very smoothly in an enabling environment, parents expect that he principal sees to the power growth of their children physically, academically and spiritually, the non-teaching staff on the other hand also expect fairness in the administrative methods of the principal. The past

students associations want to see their schools progressing academically, the chiefs and the people in the community expect a cordial relationship between the school and the community, officials of the District Health Administration, Regional Health Administration Ghana Health Service and the Ministry of Health expect that the principals will comply with their term of reference.

In the term of reference, the principal is to perform a number of administrative functions. Among other things he recruits staff for the school, supervises the work of both teaching and non-teaching staff and he ensures that the activities of all staff and students are in conformity with the vision and mission of the school. It is the responsibility of the principal to work towards the procurement of funds and to ensure the effective disbursement of funds which are needed to carry out the program of activity of the school. The success of the principal is measured in terms of the efficiency with which he performs these functions.

Statement of the Problem

It is an accepted fact that effective leadership in all human institutions lead to high morale and adequate performance. Asabiji (1999, Jan. 29, p.16) in an opening of a fair-day meeting of District Directors of Education and District budget officers in the preparation of internal budget books, declared that District Directors of Education are to sign performance contract agreement with the Ghana Education Service (GES) to ensure quality teaching and effective management of Education. He conformed that "what is needed is to improve on the human factor and the leadership aspect of GES".

The giving desire of most senior high school graduates to enroll in Health Training institutions thereby creating enrolment problems prompts

issues relating to leadership, management and administration of Health training institutions in Ghana. Are the principals of such institutions doing the right things to enable the schools realize their educational goals. Among other things are the principals putting into good use available resources of the school to achieve maximum efficiency and effectiveness? Are the academic and leadership behaviour of the principals urging them to be effective leaders? It is in line of these that the study seeks to identify leadership styles of principals in the nurses training colleges and how they affect students academic achievement.

Purpose of the Study

This study seeks to ascertain the most appropriate leadership styles that enhance academic performance of students in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region. It is also to find out how principals can help improve on students' academic performance.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions;

- 1. How do tutors and students perceive the leadership style of their respective principals?
- 2. How are the principals using the resources available to the school?
- 3. In what ways does instructional leadership of principals influence students' achievement?
- 4. In what ways can principals help improve on students' academic performance?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would contribute to knowledge on the perception of principals on the type of Administrative styles that enhance high academic performance of students.

It would also help polish the Administrative leadership style, and managerial skills of the principals of HTI as the study would unearth what students and tutors expect as far as effective leadership is concerned.

Delimitation of the Study

This study is limited to three (3) Nursing training schools in the Central Region, namely Cape Coast Nursing and Midwifery Training School, Anakaful Psychiatric Nursing Training College and Winneba Community Health Nursing Training School. The scope of this study is limited to just the authoritarian, participative and instructional leadership styles of the principals and not their general administration styles.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to three (3) Nursing Training Schools in the Central Region. The limited area of the study could decrease the generalisability of the findings. The questionnaires were distributed and left with the respondents for 2 weeks. Some students may be influenced by their colleagues in filling the questionnaire. Some tutors close to the tutors may cover up some behaviours of the principal which are not in line with good leadership style. These may invariably affect the findings of the research.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

This study examines the leadership style practiced in Nurses training colleges in the Central Region of Ghana and the effect of the various Administrative techniques on students, academic performance.

Chapter One of the study is the introduction, which is made up of the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. Other areas treated under the chapter are delimitation, limitations and organisation of the dissertation.

Chapter Two looks at the review of related literature done by pervious scholars. Chapter Three of the study is the methodology, it looked at the research design used, the sample for the study, population, the instrument used for data collection, the data collection procedure and how data was analysed.

Chapter Four analyses and discusses the findings of the research, taking the research questions into consideration. Chapter Five is devoted to summary, conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter examined the works of some authors that have relevance to the topic under study. This study looks at leadership styles that enhance academic performance of students in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region.

The review was structured under the following headings.

- 1. Concept of leadership
- 2. Leadership styles and behaviour
- 3. General perception of workers about female heads/principals
- 4. Attitude of female principals
- 5. Principals use of resources
- 6. Instructional leadership
- 7. Leadership styles and students' achievement

Concept of Leadership

There have been many different opinions by authorities in the field of management on the concept of leadership. Some of these authorities include Koontz and O'Donnell (1972) who defined leadership "as interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals." (p.484)

Leadership is of prime importance to every organisation and institutional setting. Several definitions have come up in the attempt to explain

that draw attention to the complexity of the concept. Stogdill (1974) writing on leadership, warned that, that subject is complicatedly intellectual, emotional and physical. In this view Wilson (1966) indicated that the concept portray man as one who must please or satisfy innumerable desires of a group. In addition there are other opinions which also indicate that leadership is based on functions. Gibson (1991) and Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) shared the view that leadership thrives on motivation to ensure that institutional goals and objectives are achieved. Their conviction is that good leadership employs guidance and encouragement of subordinates to achieve the aims of the institution.

Owens (2001) also supported the view of Gibson (1991) and Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) and introduced yet another dimension of a leader follower relationship. He added that effective leadership is a two-way reciprocal process which influences booth individuals and institutional performance. This means that in institutions where the relationship is poor, teamwork in ineffective, the general output of work falls short of expectation.

Knezevich (1976) conceived leadership from three perspectives.

Leadership is envisaged as:

An attribute of personality: - This is referred to as symbolic leadership, whereby "leaders are born not made". A status, titles, or position recognized in a formal leadership. Here, the person and position become confused as this recognition may disappear when he or she vacated the status, title, position or office.

A function or role performed in an organized group: This is also referred to as functional leadership. Here, leadership is not viewed as existing in isolation but as related to interpersonal relations and group operations. Leadership, therefore, comes out as a group phenomenon. Thus the fundamental issues in leadership are what the leader does to help the group define its goals, achieve its objectives or maintain its strength as a body.

Stogdill (1974) defined leadership as:

"An interaction between members of a group. Leaders are agents of change, persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group" (p. 21).

This definition depicts that the use of influence and interpersonal relationships are included in leadership, which will affect people's behavior and performance in achieving organization's goals.

Musaazi (1985) conceived leadership as a process whereby everyone in the group and the prevailing circumstances need to be understood by the leaders. He says, "The nature of leadership is largely determined by the nature of the followers and that of the society or situation in which the leader is operating." (p.53)

Some writers talked about the voluntary aspect of the response to leadership to differentiate between authority and power. This is why Katz and Kahn (1978) wrote, "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organization" (p.528). People are

influenced to act on their own volition. Neither is it required of them nor because of the fear of the consequences of non-compliance.

Furthermore other writers like Lipham (1974), Davies (1986), Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1996) and Mussazi (1985) in their studies defined leadership variously and claimed that effective leader involves other people identified as subordinates or followers who are ready and willing to accept direction from the leader, however this does not mean the followers are powerless. In effect leadership is seen as working with and through other people to achieve organizational goal. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000) jointly held the view that a leader through appropriate training brings about a desirable change among his subordinates and helps in the creation of cordial relationships that impacts positively on his Administration. Cole (1997) saw leadership as a dynamic process at work in a group whereby one individual over a period of time and in a particular organizational context, influences the other group members to commit themselves freely to the achievement of group tasks or goals. According to Lipham (1974), leadership is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organizational goal or objective.

Feldman and Arnold (1983) defined leadership as a process involving one person, consciously trying to get other people to do something the leader went them to do. Furthermore, Ahuja and Galvin (2003) stated that leadership is the quality of an individual's behaviour whereby he is able to guide others or their activities towards certain goals. He again indicated that leadership involves the way a manager behaves in his man-to-man relationship with his subordinates.

Pondy (1978) also said leadership is a part of management but not all of it. It is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goal. He contended that leaders tend to exhibit four (4) main characteristics which are intelligence, social maturity and breath, inner motivation and achievement drive and human relations attitude. Through their contention is popular, yet not all leaders possess all the characteristic while ordinary individuals in no leadership position have been found to exhibit some or all of these characteristics. Pondy (1978) added that the effectiveness of a leader is in his ability to make activity meaningful... not to change behaviour, but to give others a sense of understanding of what they do. This implies that the leader explains all activities to those she leads.

Tack (1984) suggested that leadership is related to motivation, interpersonal behaviour and the process of communication. Good leadership also involves the effective process of delegation. It is dynamic process. The leader follower relationship is reciprocal and effective leadership is a two-way process which affects both individual and organisational performance. Hoy and Miskel (1982) summarised definitions from other sources as follows:

Leadership is organizations' involvement in the exercise of authority and the making of decisions. Leadership is initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goal or objectives. Leadership is a process of influencing the activities of an organized group towards goal setting and goal achievement.

Leadership is said to be a dynamic form of behaviour and there are several variables, which influence the leadership relationship. McGregor (1967) indentified four major variables as:

- i. The characteristics of a leader
- ii. The attitude, needs and other personal characteristics of the follower.
- iii. The nature of the organization such as its purpose, structure and task to be performed.
- iv. The social economic and political environment.

McGregor concluded that leadership is not a property of the individual but a complex relationship among these variables. Cole (1997) remarked that leadership is a gift and placed upon the individual an additional responsibly of being in charge of others. He added that, on the basis of ultimate accountability, that the first quality in leadership is an awareness of the role of God is ones life. Gaining such awareness that we are dealing with gifts we have to exercise another virtue which is honesty.

Hoy and Miskel (1982) identified six main traits that a leader must possess. They are capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, humour and status. They also included intelligence, initiative, judgment and physical capacity.

Piotrowski and Rock (1963) also identified some characteristics of a successful executive that could be applied to effective educational leadership. Some of the qualities are;

- 1. The ability to work at "a mad pace".
- 2. Ability to meet all people from all walks of life.

- 3. Interest in events in the personal lives of the people to be strict when necessary in a subtle and tactful manner.
- 4. Capacity to deal with both concrete and abstract problem.
- 5. Assistance in decision making and humility in advice.

Leadership Styles

Dealing with leadership, Gibson et al. (2000) referred vividly to it as the way in which managers typically behave towards members of a group. They explain that leadership style is based on the assumption that subordinates are more likely to work effectively for leaders who adopt a certain style of leadership such as charismatic, democratic and laissez faire. These inters bluntly state that leadership style shows the extent to which the leader seems to exhibit concern for or seems oriented towards getting work done or accomplish task. These styles they assert help to motivate the behaviour of leadership in various situations. Bryman (1986), also pointed out that leadership style and behaviour are usually treated as synonymous both pointing to what leaders do.

Bryman (1986) stated that behaviour is goal directed, which is observable and measurable. To him the behaviour of a leader is easily observed and determined by his ideas, set of values and beliefs. His behaviour can influence or be influenced by his subordinates. Furthermore, a leader can have an extraordinary power to influence the behaviour of his followers through an expression of a clear vision of all his ideas and values in order to have a better and perfect future for his organisation.

The leader again organises duties and responsibilities, controls and checks quality performance and finally reviews progress of subordinates. In

fact such a leader maintains team work by setting standards and creating opportunities that help subordinates to undergo training that enhances their performance. Additionally, he encourages them to take up responsibilities within the institution and personality attends to subordinates' personal problems a way of motivating and reconciling them.

Adesina (1990) was of the view that an effective leader must be able to protect the interest of his subordinates in order to gain their respect. To a large extent leadership structure must reflect the extent to which the leader establishes mutual respect and rapport with his subordinates. He does so by showing concern, support and consideration for them. This is referred to as a two-way communication process that promotes good human relationships.

Leadership Qualities

High moral standards and exemplary characters (Afful-Broni, 2004) should be the hallmark of an effective leader. He further asserted that school leadership preparation should include moral and ethical formation. Every leader needs to possess personal and professional qualities as well.

Moore (1997) revealed there have been times when the search for school leader placed great emphasis on character as a required ingredient.

Leadership should be able to foster the process of growth, renewal and progress within the community [or organization] (Deal & Peterson, 1998). To do this, unique qualities are needed on the part of the leaders. Every community or organization needs to grow from one level to another; and be renewed from strength to strength.

Starrat (1996) emphasized, a leader needs the eyes to see, the ears to hear and the mind to know what is. This depicts that every leader should have

vision or be a forecaster; be a good listener; and a good thinker. Sergiovanni (1993) talked about how formal education or training or knowledge should be part of the leader. A leader would need to integrate his [or her] knowledge of what is, with what he [or she] believes to be the essentials of what ought to be.

Leaders must necessarily be creative, flexible and open to the changing times and needs [of the organization]. Each leader should be conversant with the dynamics of the society or organization he or she governs. Possible adjustments or changes have to be made when and where necessary. In light of the above stipulation, modern scholars of the study of administration have revealed that effective administration is best done in a collective, co-operative, collaborative manner (Starrrat, 1996).

Categorically, Blasé, Anderson and Dungan (1995) argued that schools are not shops or offices that require clever and ingenious bits of engineering and scientific inputs to increase productivity and morale, but major social institutions where wisdom and courage are required to infuse practice with our highest hopes. Leaders need to understand group dynamics and have the ability to go through unpleasant times in the life of the organization.

Effective leaders are constantly finding new and more meaningful ways of saying, "I hear you" to their membership--communication needs to be sound and solid; and tolerance has to exist within organizational climate. The absence of this builds needless tensions, which would be counter-productive to the establishment of the community or school (Blasé et al., 1995). By this leaders would make their attitude clear to their staff; maintain definite standards of performance; work out plans with them; let staff know what is expected of them, and so forth.

It is justifiable to reiterate that organizations exist to provide valuable services for the people. The otherwise makes it superficial. Since leadership occurs in a cultural context, leaders can help shape the culture of an organization by what they pay attention to and reward. Leaders infuse a common set of values, ideals, and principles in their schools (Hoy and Miskel, 1982). It is therefore obvious that leadership is more than the technical and interpersonal aspects of efficient management. It has a symbolic side. It rests upon meanings as well as actions. Thus, every school or organization has a culture that has to be built, which involves the leadership directly.

It is educative to conclude with this assertion from one renowned writer on leadership: "The effective functioning of social systems from the local PTA to the United States of America is assumed to be dependent on the quality of their leadership" (Vroom, 1982). And if quality works have to be done quality leaders have to lead.

Douglas McGregor's XY Theory and William Ouchi's Theory Z

Theory X and theory Y are still referred to commonly in the field of management and motivation. Whilst more recent studies have questioned the rigidity of the model, the theory remains a valid basic principle from which to develop positive management style and techniques. McGregor's XY Theory remains central to organizational development, and to improving organizational culture (Lee, 1982).

Lee (1982) added that McGregor's X-Y theory is a salutary and simple reminder of the natural rules for managing people, which under the pressure of day-to-day business are all too easily forgotten. Lee quoted McGregor as saying that there are two fundamental approaches to managing people. Many

managers tend towards Theory Z, and generally get poor results. Enlightened managers use Theory Y, which produces better performance and results, and allows people to grow and develop.

Although "X" and "Y" are the standard names given to McGregor's theories, it is also appreciative to mention here that other names for these management theories have been used as well, and are sometimes interchanged with "X" and "Y". For instance, DuBrin (1990) refers to Theory X as the "Autocratic Style" and Theory Y as the "Participative Style" while Benson (1983) wrote that Theory X and Theory Y are sometimes termed as "hard" and "soft" management style respectively.

Theory X ("authoritarian leadership" style)

Theory X basically holds the belief that people do not like work and that some kind of direct pressure and control must be exerted to get them to work effectively. These people require a rigidly managed environment, usually requiring threats of disciplinary action as a primary source of motivation. It is also held that employees will only respond to monetary rewards as an incentive to perform above the level of that which is expected (Bittel, 1989). From a management point of view, autocratic (Theory X) managers like to retain most of their authority. They make decisions on their own and inform the workers, assuming that they will carry out the instructions. Autocratic managers are often called "authoritative" for this reason; they act as "authorities". This type of manager is highly task oriented, placing a great deal of concern towards getting the job done, with little concern for the worker's attitudes towards the manager's decision. This shows that autocratic managers lose ground in the work place, making way for leaders who share

more authority and decision making with other members of the group (DuBrin, 1990). Essentially, Theory X assumes that the primary source of most employee motivation is monetary, with security as a strong second.

Characteristics of the X Theory Leader

Chapman and O'Neil (2000) outlined the characteristics of the X theory leader to include; results-driven and deadline-driven, to the exclusion of everything else; intolerant; issues deadline and ultimatums; distant and detached; aloof and arrogant; elitist; short tempered; shouts; issues instructions, directions, edicts; issues threats to make people follow instructions; demands, never asks; does not participate; does not team-build; unconcerned about staff welfare, or morale; proud, sometimes to the point of self-destruction; one-way communicator; poor listener; fundamentally insecure and possibly neurotic; anti-social; vengeful and recriminatory; does not thank or praise; withholds rewards, and suppresses pay and remunerations levels; scrutinizes expenditure to the point of falls economy; seeks culprits for failures or shortfalls; seeks to apportion blame instead of focusing on learning from the experience and preventing recurrence; does not invite or welcome suggestions; takes criticism badly and likely to retaliate if from below or peer group; poor at proper delegating – but believes they delegate well; thinks giving orders is delegating; holds on to responsibility but shifts accountability to subordinates; relatively unconcerned with investing in anything to gain future improvements; and unhappy.

Theory Y ("participative management" style)

A more popular view of the relationship found in the work place between managers and workers, is explained in the concepts of Theory Y. This theory assumes that people are creative and eager to work. Workers tend to desire more responsibility than Theory X workers, and have strong desires to participate in the decision making process. Theory Y workers are comfortable in a working environment which allows creativity and the opportunity to become personally involved in organizational planning (Bittel, 1989).

Some assumptions about Theory Y workers are that this type of worker is far more prevalent in the work place than are Theory X workers. For instance, it is pointed out that ingenuity, creativity, and imagination are increasingly present throughout the ranks of the working population. These people not only accept responsibility, but actively seek increased authority (Lee, 1982). DuBrin (1990) outlined that a participative leader shares decisions with the group. He also mentioned subtypes to this type of leader, namely the "Democratic" leader who allows the members of the working group to vote on decisions which reflect the "consensus" of the group.

William Ouchi – Theory Z

Another theory which has emerged, and deals with the way in which workers are perceived by managers, as well as how managers are perceived by workers, is William Ouchi's "Theory Z". Often referred to as the "Japanese" management style, Theory Z offers the notion of a hybrid management style which is a combination of a strict American management style (Theory A) and a strict Japanese management style (Theory J). this theory speaks of an organizational culture which mirror the Japanese culture in which workers are more participative, and capable of performing many and varied tasks. Theory Z emphasizes things such as job rotation, broadening of skills, generalization

versus specialization, and the need for continuous training of workers (Luthans, 1989). Much like McGregor's theories, Ouchi's Theory Z makes certain assumptions about workers. Some of the assumptions about workers under this theory include the notion that workers tend to want to build cooperative and intimate working relationships with those that they work for and with, as well as the people that work for them. Also, Theory Z workers have a high need to be supported by the company, and highly value a working environment in which such things as family, cultures and traditions, and social institutions are regarded as equally important as the work itself. These types of workers have a very well developed sense of order, discipline, moral obligation to work hard, and a sense of cohesion with their fellow workers. Finally, Theory Z workers, it is assumed, can be trusted to support them and look out for their well being (Massie & Douglas, 1992).

One of the most important tenets of this theory is that management must have a high degree of confidence in its workers in order for this type of participative management to work. While this theory assumes that workers will be participating in the decisions of the company to a great degree, one author is careful to point out that the employees must be very knowledgeable about the various issues of the company, as well as possessing the competence to make those decisions. This author is also careful to point out, however, that management sometimes has a tendency to underestimate the ability of the workers to effectively contribute to the decision making process (Bittel, 1989). But for this reason, Theory Z stresses that need for enabling the workers to become generalists, rather than specialists, and to increase their knowledge of the company and its processes through job rotations and continual training. In

fact, promotions tend to be slower in this type of setting, as workers are given a much longer opportunity to receive training and more time to learn the intricacies of the company's operations. The desire, under this theory, is to develop a work force, which has more of a loyalty, towards staying with the company for an entire career, and be more permanent than in other types of settings. It is expected that once an employee does rise to a position of high-level management, they will know a great deal about the company and how it operates employees (Luthans, 1989).

While several similarities and differences surround the ideas of these two theorists, the most obvious comparison is that they both deal with perceptions and assumptions about people. These perceptions tend to take the form of how management views employees, while Ouchi's Theory Z takes this notion of perception a bit further and talks about how the workers might perceive management.

With respect to overall management style, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y managers seem to have a much more formal leadership style than do Ouchi's Theory Z managers. McGregor's managers seem to both have different views of the workers, while their views of the tasks remains the same in both cases: that is, one of specialization, and doing a particular task. Albeit that Theory Y suggests that the workers would become very good at their particular tasks, because they are free to improve the processes and make suggestions. Theory Z workers, on the other hand, tend to rotate their jobs frequently, and become more generalists, but at the same time become more knowledgeable about the overall scheme of things within the company. Several parallels indeed exist between these theorists. Namely McGregor's

theory Y, and Ouch's Theory Z both see the relationship between managers as "coaches", helping the workers to be more participative in their endeavour to be more productive. They both are more group oriented than the Theory X assumptions, which seem to be more group oriented. One of the most notable similarities between McGregor's theory Y and Ouchi's Theory Z appears in the form of the type of motivation that makes the workers perform in a way that enables them to be more productive. While the Theory X worker is said to require coercion, threats, and possibly even disciplinary action, Theory Y and Theory Z workers are, again, self-motivated. This allows them to focus on the task, and also their role within the company. Their desire is to be more productive and enable the company to succeed. Theory X workers, on the other hand, seem to have just enough self-motivation to show up at work, punch the time clock, as it were, and do only that which is necessary to get the job done to minimum standards.

Many assumptions are made in the work place, based on observations of the workers, and their relationship with management. The types of tasks being performed, as well as the types of employees which make up a particular organization can set the stage for the types of leadership roles which will be assumed by managers. Theory X, which shows that workers are assumed to be lazy and do not want to work, seems to be giving way to theories, which suggest that workers lend themselves to a more effective organization. While McGregor's Theory Y seems to address the more motivated type of employee, Ouchi's Theory Z seems to take that notion a step farther by implying that not only are assumptions about workers made, but assumptions about managers as well. That is to say that under Ouchi's theory, managers must be more

supportive and trusting of their employees, in order to receive the benefit of increased participation in the decisions of the company. As is clearly seen by comparing and contrasting these two theorists, assumptions about people can be more clearly understood in order for managers and workers to make for a more productive environment in the work place.

General perception of workers about female

Heads/Principals

It is a general notion that much of women's success is prompted by their keen ability to solve problems and think analytically, their effective communication and their ability to value professional relationship.

Miles (1997) observed that some communication and parents hold negative views about the education of girls. In Chad, for example he said some parents believe that schools push girls to prostitution, make them unfaithful to their husbands and difficult to control by parents. Some parents were also of the view that literate girls are more liberal with the use of their sex organs than the illiterate ones and this discouraged most parents from supporting the education of their daughters. Many feminists believe that women's language reflect too much uncertainty and unassertiveness (Lakoff, 1976). They argued that women in the profession should adopt "the stranger" firms of the male communication style and consciously work at eliminating them more female – like speech characteristics through assertiveness training so that they will not be perceived as lacking confidence and be unable to take on leadership positions. According to Jackson (1998), women who adopted this strategy were not treated equally. Self-confident, assertive masculine speck when used by women was often perceived as overly aggressive or overbearing. Kanter

(1977) supported this when he said men resented assertive unemotional women for acting like men, but they also judged women who were passive and emotional as unsuited to management.

According to Powell (1990) Comte believed women should not work outside the home, own property or even exercise political power. He said the gentle nature of women required that they remain at home as mothers tending to their children and as wives tending to their husbands emotional, domestic and sexual needs. Nukunya (1992) also asserts that in many Ghanaian societies the traditional position is that a woman is never wholly independent. He postulated that a woman must always be under the guardianship of a man and when she mammies, her original guardian hands her owner to her husband.

Despite the fact that there are gender biases against women, it has been cited that women possess the qualities to be the superior sex (Lair, 1980). According to Jacklin (1989), men are more physically vulnerable and susceptible to stresses, both prenatally and parentally. Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) added that women leaders not only maintain feminine features such as warmth and openness but also exhibit "masculine" quality such as rational, assertiveness and independence. Eagly and Johnson (1990) also reported that female principal were found to be more task-oriented, democratic and participative in their leadership style.

Meyenn and Parker (1993) discussed female principals as collaborative, co-operative and supportive, while Brady (1992) saw them as highly effective in delivering professional development to teachers.

Gayle (1991) asserts that women are found to be less competitive in conflict management situations than men, and they communicate with cooworkers to satisfy needs for affection while men communicate to satisfy needs for control. These qualities according to Burke (1984) have enabled women to become effective mentors because they tend to support their protégées both professionally and psychologically. Female leadership valves are also considered valuable components of a strong co-operate culture.

Restine (1993), in a study, indicated that a head or supervisor's gender died indeed influence subordinates' perception of their job and the difference were attributed to different leadership style men and women use in the work place. Staff or subordinates with female heads or supervisors perceived greater interpersonal aspect in their jobs while subordinates who had male supervisors or head perceived greater structure in their jobs.

Many studies have highlighted differences between male and female teachers and school executive, gender differences have also been found in terms of the interplay between these two groups. In a U.S. study of 400 principals, Whitaker and Hein (1991) found that male principals perceived the administrative capabilities of males and females as below average. However female principals perceived the administrative capabilities of males as significantly below average and the same capabilities of females as significantly above average. The surprising result of these findings was that both male and female principals were likely to employ males for administrative positions. Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that women are sometimes devalued in leadership positions when they use a stereotypically male leadership style. This devaluation was greater when women leaders

occupied roles traditionally dominated by men and women evaluator were men. According to Bass (1985) the stereotypical woman is perceived to be lacking traits such as leadership ability, competiveness, self-confidence aggressiveness and ambition all of which are considered desirable for managers. Research also indicates that female managers are often stereotyped as irrational indelicate and irresolute in challenging work situation (Grady, 1995). Researchers have found female administrators superior to males in both leadership performance and leader qualities. Evetts (1994) in a study of managers in industrial firms reported that women were rated higher than men by both peers and subordinates in all thirty five (35) leadership behaviour measured by his scale.

Attitude of Female Principals

A number of studies support the motion that men and women valve different leader characteristics. Copper (1993) realized that while women mentioned enthusiasm, determination interpersonal skills and sense of humor men reported integrity and loyalty as key factors. A similar study conducted by Brenner, Tomkiewiez and Schein (1989) discussed management characteristics of male and female managers. Men believed successful managers more often and both masculine and feminine leadership traits.

Ardayfio-Schandorf (1990) noted from Oppong and Abu's work that the rate at which women in the formal sector rise is lower than men. Women in the formal sector are not able to take up opportunities offered such as posting outside their regions, as well as training and self advancement programmes. She said married women do not want to disrupt their family life and unmarried ones harbour the fear that a suitable partner might not be found in a new and strange environment.

Smith (1977) stated that women have been found to have less commitment to work and carrier development. They also have lower carrier aspiration. Most women, he said, are afraid to take in responsibilities even when they are qualified. These he believed are among the factors that seem to constrain women from becoming as uproardly mobile as their male counterpart. Hall (1996) also asserted that women have notoriously lacked self-confidence and the tendencies to underrate their own abilities have clearly inhibited them from competing with men where they feel the odds are against them.

Goffman (1963) noted that women modify their aspiration rather than accept marginal status. He said women retain culturally defined roles. Thus avoiding the acquisition of stigma. They remain in lower position and are not encouraged to more women in educational organisation. The advantage of many men is that women have to prove themselves a little more as the sharp girls to get into administration.

According to Goffman (1963) women used demiall which is a self-limiting process as a coping strategy. When women deny their aspirations, they endure role strain discriminations. They accede to normative controls of the school organisation and they retain culturally defined roles. He said denial allows women to avoid a spoiled identity in society and in their carrers, but it disallows career mobility. Goffman continued to say that women prefer to stay in position that make fewer demands than administrative positions did. Women Seldom attend professional conferences or the like which will expose

them to issues pertaining to higher positions. They can avoid female career role strain when the job is less stressful. When it requires management handling conflict involvement with state programs and increasing professional obligations, they have the choice of resigning or adopting the static head teacher administrative style. If they preferred to do the latter, they never find appropriate management techniques for successful career development. They never advance.

Goffman continued to say that women avoid a stigma by delaying and retreating from career involvement until their children are grown. They avoid deviating from women's roles and such career requirements as frequent evening meetings, night and weekend courses for administrator credentials, living apart from family in order to earn a higher degree in a distant university. Some women have had to drop out of the university when they could not find a way to care for their kids. They decline leadership roles in organizations because of the pressures at work and home. Much retreat or delay entry into administration until later in life.

Asamoah (1996), viewed women's attitudes towards themselves as reasons for the under-representation of women in senior positions. Asamoah indicated that many of those women tended to down-play their particular skills and abilities, as drawing attention to one's past achievements is often considered as boastful and therefore socially unacceptable. They claimed this may mean many women who are qualified to apply for jobs do not do so. They also said very few of those who are already employed would apply for promotion and/or put themselves up as possible candidates for senior administrative positions. This means that the most common path towards

promotion for such women would be nomination by their respective heads of department.

The idea that men and women use different leadership styles is also supported by various studies. Rozier and Hersh-Cochran (1996) considered leadership in the nursing industry, which is typically dominated by women. Results of the study suggest that men and women differ in leadership behaviours. Similarly, Rosener (1990) surveyed 465 female managers and concluded that women were more likely to use power based on charisma and work record. Rosener concluded that women are now making it into crop management based on skills developed from their shared experience as women and were not finding it necessary to adopt male leadership styles. In an Australian study of over 200 principals, Caldwell (1994) discovered that female principals reported working, on average, nearly seven hours per week more than men; more women had very high job satisfaction; and women tended to be more highly qualified than men.

Women's managerial preference may cause them to behave differently than men in leadership roles. Gibson (1995) found that male and female leaders from four countries emphasized divergent leadership behaviours regardless of their country of origin. Druskat (1994) indicated that women are more inclined to use transformational leadership than men.

Fox and Schuhmann (1999), using a national sample of 875 city managers fond that female leaders were more likely to rely on communication and participative leadership. They often prefer people-centered team management and believe strongly that sensitivity and responsiveness are components of such supervision. Women also appear to be highly

conscientious at work and exceedingly willing to downplay their individual successes.

Acheampong (1999) stressed that the attitudes that prevail to lower women's quest to increase their participation in public life have been motivated by women themselves. This is because it is within the home and the community that the learning of gender relations take place and women as custodians of culture pass on values and norms which contribute to their inequality. It is said that, in socializing their children, women pass on norms that work against their own interest as women.

Eagly and Johnson (1990), observed that some women adopt autocratic and directive style (which are referred to as masculine styles) of leadership which violate the norms associated with the feminine style of leadership which are interpersonal and democratic. Davis and Newstrom (1985) also observed that women conform to stereotyped gender roles, which are counseling, hospitality and support services. He continued to say that such an allocation leads to a spiral of under evaluation where women are not given the chance to demonstrate administrative competence. Rigg and Sparrow (1994), in a small scale study of sixteen subjects, found that women emphasized the team approach more than men and were regarded as more people oriented while men were considered more paternalistic and authoritative.

Shakeshaft (1989) also considered female Administrators as good communicators, exhibiting pedagogical knowledge, give instructional feedback. Shakeshaft refers to the use of the language of empowerment' by female administrators, such as approach promotes participations and problemsolving.

Traditional/Social/Beliefs/Barriers to Women's Advancement

Asamoah (1996), observed that African society's concept of women is negative. This is shown in customs, traditions and beliefs, which have over the years contributed in keeping women under subjection and making them, feel generally inferior to men. Asamoah continued to say that women are not viewed as human resources vital for development but as amorphous labour reserve to be used when there is a shortage.

Because of the masculine character of administration and leadership, barriers are seen to exist for females. According to Afful-Broni (2004), women who were actively pursuing positions in school administration were found to have masculinity scores that were significantly higher than their female colleagues. Afful-Broni (2004) suggested that societal attitudes about leadership styles had created barriers for women aspiring for promotion. Other contributing factors were seen to be the inherent culture of educational systems and institutions, and an incompatibility of management employment with domestic responsibilities.

Women may now enter, but rarely attain high positions in careers that have been traditionally male-dominated. Research has documented the organizational and professional barriers faced by women who enter and seek higher positions in traditionally male dominated careers (Marshall, 1985).

According to Asamoah (1996) procreation is implanted in the minds of the females, which cause them to fulfill the expectations of society by aspiring towards what society expects of them. They treasure and prefer early marriage and childbearing to higher education. He added that other cultural practices like betrothal, "dipo" and the "trokosi" systems, which promote promiscuity

among young girls was highly encouraged. Society sees women as either not needing education or if need be at all not much since the woman will finally end up in the kitchen. This is because girls and thus women have often been relegate to the background and assigned roles such as good cooks, baby sitters and probably taking care of their husbands.

Educating girls, and for that matter women to the traditional society's like arming a monkey with ammunitions. It handles it anyhow and misuses it. This is exactly how women in position are perceived. They are portrayed as over ambitious, inefficient, ineffective and not tactful in handling roles of administration. They are seen as unable to fill the relevant identity norms of either "normal women" or "normal school a administrators." This way of thinking does not make educating a woman any important in society. According to Clark (1996), women in higher positions are "tokens" who have difficulty gaining acceptance. They have social segregation and stereotyping. Women's success is seen as due to luck or extreme effort while men's success is seen as due to ability.

Studies (Borcelle, 1985), on female education have shown that the background of parents has a profound influence on their daughters' effective participation and smooth transition on the educational ladder. Borcelle (1985) observed that employer normally defend their attitudes towards women on the notion that women are physiologically inferior and therefore are not competent to take up leadership roles. She pointed out that for part of the time each month, women are not at their physical best due to headaches, indisposition and pain, which sometimes accompany menstruation. This has led to hasty generalizations, irrespective of the fact that five or six of discomfort have

never prevented housewives, servants, female workers and female administrators from carrying out their duties without flinching.

Dolphyne (1991) expressed her view that, the gender roles of women conflict with their administrative responsibilities. She observed that women's education has always lagged behind that of men in all African societies. She explained that the major role for a woman in a traditional society was to ensure the lineage, and she was expected to marry soon after puberty. The woman she said did not need formal education to perform this function.

Dolphyne (1991), continued to assert that in traditional societies, the traditional woman is expected to be provided for by her husband, and since education becomes a means for entering highly paid jobs in the formal sector women were taken care of themselves and not fully depending on their husbands. It was considered more important for boys to have formal education since they were the breadwinners in the family. She observes that it is fairly easy for a girl with no formal education to make a living out of retail trade or the sale of snacks to workers. Dolphyne said on account of this, most girls who started school did not continue beyond the primary school level. She also observed that parents took their female children as their insurance against poverty in their old age. It did not seem profitably therefore to invest money in the education of girls.

Davies (1992) supported Dolphyne's view that the gender role of women is a hindrance to their advancement to leadership positions. He observed that a common phenomenon in any sphere is the concept of female as related to "family". Davis continued to explain that the male emotional dependence on women and the female economic dependence on men created

situations where it is the woman who follows her spouse if a job demands mobility. In a study of women teaching in Brunei conducted by Davies it was revealed that women did not apply for leadership positions because of home commitment.

Stromquist (1993), found that various studies about girls' education is affected by the gender division of labour, which made them needed at home for domestic duties. Stromquist stated that Botswana girls attended significantly fewer hours of class per day than boys. This was because the girls (particular those in low-income families) were often needed at home for house-keeping, child minding and even income-earning activities. According to Stromquist, parents rely on girls for domestic help and that this resulted in poor attendance and in turn led to low academic performance, which often resulted in grade repetition or dropping out among girls.

Shakeshaft (1989) observed that women generally would not be promoted because of domestic responsibilities. Women provided evidence for supported based on her "Woman Place Model", which assumed women's non-participation in administrative careers based solely on social norms. Shakeshaft also observed that school boards do not want to invest time and money in workers with short-term commitments, a description often given to women who are expected are expected to leave work for marriage.

It has been observed that discriminatory and promotion practices constitute barriers to women's advancement into leadership positions. Borcelle (1985), observed that sex discrimination begins right from birth. Borcelle, said parents treated their daughters and sons differently, which perpetuate prejudice and old-fashioned representations. She said parents wanted to produce boys

who are tough, courageous and prepared to command obedience and respect from other children but girls are trained to be gentle and obliging.

Borcelle (1985) further observed that the school intensifies the process of differentiation. Teachers show sexism in sharing work between boys and girls. Boys were to learn gardening and handle tools and girls were to do sewing and knitting. It is the boy who is asked to clean the board, write the date on the chalkboard, distribute exercise books, all of which showed that the teacher has more confidence in boys than girls thus turning the girls into "second-class" individuals who were always expected to be followers. Borcelle believed that women theoretically have the same right to work as men, but in practice they lag far behind the men especially in terms of administrative occupations.

Stromquist (1993) stated that teachers considered that educating girls had less value than educating boys, they asked girls fewer questions, gave them fewer positions of responsibility and let them get away with lower standards of work than boys. Stromquist concluded that teachers are equally responsible for perpetuating sexism and reducing females to second-class individuals. Many studies in the gender and education literature imply that teachers play an important part in the thwarting of girls' potential. Reporting on a research and Gender and Education, Acker (1989) stated that,

In many classrooms, teachers persistently spend more time with the boys, accord more value to male experience, treat the boys more as named individuals and identities... Girls on the average participate in 44% of classroom interactions, although they are likely as boys to volunteer to answer

teachers' questions. Girls get les criticism but also less instruction; boys received more academic and more behavioural criticism (p. 309).

Commenting on the above, Acker argued that this pattern of differential treatment of the sexes marginalizes the females and further reinforces their position as second-class individuals. The study also showed that teachers are reluctant to accept equal opportunity initiatives such as girls into Science and Technology, probably for fear that girls cannot do as well as boys. Acker believed that teacher' behaviour was rooted more in tradition. According to him, research has shown that girls in single-sex schools perform better than their counterparts in co-educational schools. Their successes have been attributed to factors including more opportunities for class participation and leadership and less gender stereotyping by teachers and the girls themselves.

From Acker's observation, teachers appear to be in favour of sex equality in its general terms but skeptical about feminism. He advocated for educational innovation concerned with sex equality. Date-Bah (1986) indicated that employers considered women not as strong as men to supervise effectively. Date-Bah states that 21% of employers admitted that they did not like employing women on some jobs for fear that they might become pregnant and go on maternity leave. The employer indicated that pregnancy poses problems like payment for maternity leave, absence on maternity and the fear that work be affected by a woman's new family commitments after childbirth. The employers fear such problems would affect general productivity.

Biklen and Brannignan (1980) said the relationship between families and career has been seen as a difficult one for women. This is because of the conflicting expectations that workingwomen face. Biklen and Brannignan pointed out that the nature of ones family certainly played a role in determining the degree of difficultly experienced as a career woman. The absence of children, for example, Biklin and Brannignan said increased the livelihood that the women would work professionally, and the age of the children plays a role in determining the question of career continuity.

Other problems associated with working women were enumerated by Biklen and Brannignan (1980). She pointed out that whereas men could move their families to their new stations when promoted to administrative roles and transferred, women could not do the same. She said the problem combining a career and family life is lessened for women only when the husband is accommodating. Support received from the husband is seen as essential for a successful wife and administrator. A married man receives professional support from his wife but most of the married women do not receive the same professional support from their husbands. Biklin and Brannignan pointed out that women's activities become numerous and complex. The woman bears and nurses children and at the same time acts as the socialized. These activities they said hinder women's progress into leadership roles.

Apart from parents' financial stand and domestic roles to be performed by girl or women, Stromquist (1993), observed that cultural and religious values also affect the participation of girls in educational activities that can put her into leadership positions. He said marriage for girls result in their being withdrawn from school at an early age. Stromquist pointed out that practices such as brides wealth and dowry in several African and Asian countries prompt low-income parents to give their daughters into marriage early to collect money (through dowry). Stromquist is of the opinion that when religious beliefs of women's subordination mesh with cultural practice, the constraints on female educational participation are severe.

Dine's (1988) findings in her research identified cultural and religious values as factors, which affect female education. She observed that in the Arab States, cultural and religious norms lead to strict segregation of the sexes at school and at work, with girls taught in single sex schools by female teachers and restricted to a curriculum which favoured home economics more than science and mathematics. She felt his did not prepare girls for full and equal participation in the workface and thereby limits their career horizon.

Dine (1988), cited in UNESCO, (1993) pointed out that where women have been able to gain academic or professional positions, they frequently faced cultural barriers. The difficulties were attributed to their dual responsibilities as wife/mother and professional woman. Some traditional roles are accepted without question and the professional role is secondary.

Stromquist (1993) confirmed the observations of Dine. He indicated that at the age of nine, girls in Saudi Arabia must wear the veil and withdraw to female schools. He said in addition girls traveled to school on chaperoned buses and attended schools where administrators and teachers were all females. These constraints he pointed out invariably resulted in fewer educational opportunities for women. According to Stromquist (1993), parental interest and encouragement was a factor in retention of girls in

schools. In traditional societies, parents have had low occupational aspirations for their daughters and even saw education as risky for women.

Principals' use of Resources

Some principals make good use of resource flexibility to create coherent instructional reforms, while others do not. Evidence from case studies suggests that a larger share of a principal's budget becomes flexible under a weighted-student formula plan, allowing school managers to deploy inputs to elements of the instructional program according to the individual school's needs (Miles, Ware, & Rosa, 2003).

A recent survey in Washington State shows that principals are eager to achieve greater flexibility, in particular to become less hamstrung by state regulation and the monitoring of categorical aid programs. It found that 91 percent of principals agreed that decentralization would help to improve their performance (Portin & Shen, 2005). A study by Sonstelie (2006) conducted in concurrence with this report indicates that California principals, if given additional resources and complete control over their budgets, would, on average increase instructional time through programs such as extended day and year, tutoring and summer school and increase instructional capacity through coaches, additional time for teachers to work together, and support staff.

Principals sometimes use the resources over which they do hold control to encourage cooperation or compliance from their staff. Ingersoll's (2003) work inside several schools turned up a rich array of such incentives: allocation of space and preferred classrooms; more manageable teaching schedules and choice classes or grade levels; assignment of playground or

non-teaching duties; budget for field trips, lab equipment and projects; and travel funds to conferences. Incentives may be allocated in ways that advance morale or loyalty but hold little effect on student achievement, perhaps reflecting the lack of training that aspiring principals have received in management or the lack of incentives principals can allocate within institutional constraints (Hess, 2006).

In Chicago, under democratic controls advanced in the early 1990s about one-third of principals were able to inventively deploy resources in ways that appeared to boost achievement (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993). Unfortunately, the results were quite uneven across schools. Many principals focused either on reducing class sizes and buying additional resource teachers or more peripheral inputs, such as social welfare supports (Hess, 1999). It remains unclear whether the new, localized lines of accountability, specific inputs, or a mix of the two explained the gains in student motivation or achievement observed in a subset of Chicago schools. In any event, this line of inquiry shows that when an administrator has full discretion, resources are "used in so many ways with such varied effects that it is difficult to predict the outcomes of investing in them" (Raudenbush, 2005).

Instructional Leadership

A clearly defined understanding of instructional leadership is imperative if that leadership is to be effective. Effective school leadership today must combine the traditional school leadership duties such as teacher evaluation, budgeting, scheduling, and facilities maintenance with a deep involvement with specific aspects of teaching and learning. Effective instructional leaders are intensely involved in curricular and instructional

issues that directly affect student achievement (Cotton, 2003). Research conducted by King (2002), Elmore (2000), and Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2000) confirms that this important role extends beyond the scope of the school principal to involve other leaders as well.

The key players in instructional leadership include the following:

- i. Central office personnel (superintendent, curriculum coordinators, etc.)
- ii. Principals and assistant principals
- iii. Instructional coaches

Some key elements of instructional leadership include the following:

1) Prioritization: Teaching and learning must be at the top of the priority list on a consistent basis. Leadership is a balance of management and vision.

While leaders cannot neglect other duties, teaching and learning should be the area where most of the leaders' scheduled time is allocated.

2) Scientifically based reading research (SBRR): Instructional leaders must be well informed of SBRR and effective reading instruction in order to assist in the selection and implementation of instructional materials and to monitor implementation. Leaders' participation in professional development sessions will help them remain informed and will provide a focus for monitoring.

Effective instruction is a skill that can never be perfected. All teachers can benefit from additional time and support to improve their instruction. Research indicates that effective principals have "a view of instructional improvement as an ongoing process" (Chase & Kane, 1983). Leaders that maintain learning as a priority will provide released time for teachers to attend relevant training. They will follow up by monitoring and providing the support that sustains the new learning.

Leadership Styles and Students' Achievement

For many years now, researchers in the area of educational leadership have attempted to identify links between educational leadership and school effectiveness research. This phenomenon is mainly due to the perception that educational leaders, especially school principals, affect school effectiveness (Levin & Lezotte 1990; Reynolds & Cuttance, 1992). However, two main issues have arisen: Firstly, what positions or roles do leaders have in a school organization? Secondly, under what conditions does school leadership affect students' achievement and to what extent?

In relation to the first issue, it is interesting that the vast majority of researchers have been involved mainly in studies of principals' leadership styles. However, recent research has also been concerned with the leadership of persons who have other roles in a school organization such as teachers or tutors, (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan and Lee, 1995; Raudenbush, 2005; Deal & Peterson, 1999, Harris & Muijs, 2003, Pashiardis, 2004). As a consequence, it is necessary to investigate the parameters of many individuals' leadership styles in order to give a more complete overview of school leadership.

The second issue is more complex due to contradictory findings concerning effects of leadership on students' achievement. Some studies found no influence whereas others identified some effects (Edmonds, 1979; Andrews & Soder, 1987; Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides, 1990).

The meta-analyses, conducted by Hallinger and Heck (1998) and Witziers, Bosker and Krüger (2003), emphasized at least two important elements that differentiate the results among many studies. Firstly, the different educational systems and cultures among the various countries lead to

different results. Secondly, the absence of intermediate variables between principals' leadership and students' achievement tends to find no links between them (also in Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000).

Summary

From the literature reviewed, similar and divergent views on the concepts of leadership, perception and supervision were given. The assertions made by the authors mentioned the issues of the attitude of female administrators, the level of female education, how females were perceived in all aspects of life and some traditional and/or social beliefs that affected the performance of female administrators and how they are perceived by staff.

Females were given little attention in the society especially when it comes to the education of the young girl. Females were restricted to domestic roles that is taking care of the home and nurturing children. Most of the few females who could go through education were not able to ascend into leadership or managerial positions. They were perceived to be the weaker ones who could not perform as effectively as their male counterparts could do. The literature also revealed that there were some traditional and societal beliefs that affected the performance of female administrators.

The literature revealed that females/women are now being empowered and given equal opportunities as their male counterparts. Most women are now excelling and are getting into leadership or managerial positions especially in education sector. They are performing as effectively as their male counterparts.

It was observed from the literature reviewed that women as they performed their duties were perceived to behave in ways that were different

from what they were before assuming leadership positions. Women were perceived to use leadership styles that did not favour subordinates or the staff they worked with. They needed to be looked at as their male counterparts and not considered as weak and dependable. Women need to be supported as they discharge their duties as leaders in our institutions and in the society at large.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This study sought to find out the leadership styles used by principals in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region and whether the styles helping them to achieve instructional goals. This chapter looks at the research design used, the population, sample and sampling procedure, the instrument used for data collection and how the data were analysed.

Research Design

The study was a descriptive survey. Descriptive survey offers the chance of gathering data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time so as to make inferences and generalizations from the study of the sample. (Best & Kahn, 1998; Gay, 1990; Osuala, 1993). Franklin and Wallen (2000) perceive the descriptive survey as a research design that attempts to describe existing situations without actually analyzing relationships among variables. It is also designed to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena. This design was chosen because it has the advantage of producing a good amount of responses from a wide range of people. It also provides a clear picture of events and people's behavior on the basis of data gathered at a point in time.

Furthermore, in-depth follow-up questions can be explained using a descriptive survey design. According to Franklin and Wallen (2000), descriptive study has become popular because of its versatility across

disciplines. They have further explained that descriptive investigations have a broad appeal to the administrator and policy analyst for planning, monitoring, and evaluating. O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999) postulated that descriptive survey addresses issues such as quantity, cost, effectiveness, and adequacy.

On the other hand, there is the problem of ensuring that questions to be responded to using the descriptive survey design are clear and not misleading because results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording of questions. It may also produce untrustworthy results because it enquires into private matters that people may not be completely truthful about. To offset these shortcomings, the wordings of the research instruments were subjected to scrutiny by my supervisors. These limitations notwithstanding, I believed that this descriptive survey was the appropriate for this study because:

- It helped me make direct contact with tutors and students whose views could be relevant for investigating perceptions about leadership behaviours of nursing training colleges.
- 2. It helped me draw useful and meaningful conclusions from the study.

Population

The population for the study was made up of Students and Tutors in the selected schools for the study. The breakdown of the total population of the area where the study was conducted is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Population of the Study Area

School	Stu	dents	Tu	tors	Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Ankaful	170	390	4	8	572
CNTC	140	330	2	12	484
Winneba	120	500	3	11	634
Total	430	1220	9	31	1690

Sample and Sampling Technique

The study was limited to 3 nursing training schools in the Central Region. The respondents were made up of 24 tutors and 300 students. In order to have a representative sample, the random sampling technique was used in almost all the situations. In all, 334 respondents were used as a sample for the study. The names of the tutors were written on pieces of paper from which the respondents were randomly selected.

Instrument

A questionnaire was designed for all respondents. The design was guided, to a large extent, by the material acquired from the literature review as well as the research questions. Items on the questionnaire were formulated using the research questions as a guide.

The questionnaire comprised close-ended items. The respondents were provided with a four-point Likert-type scale made up of the following responses: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (DA) and Strongly Disagree (SD). They were asked to choose answers that appropriately represented their perceptions. The open-ended questions required the

respondents to use their own expressions, phrases and words to provide responses to questions posed. In all, there were 63 close-ended questions. The questionnaire was adopted as an instrument because respondents for the study were literate. It was assumed that they could read and understand the questions posed.

The questionnaire was in eight sections (A - H), namely:

- a) Biographic data of respondents;
- b) Tutors' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of Principals;
- c) Students' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of Principals;
- d) How Principals' leadership behaviours affect management of their institutions;
- e) How Principals' leadership behaviours affect students' academic performance;
- f) Leadership behaviours of Principals and tutors' involvement in the management of the Nurses training colleges in the Central region;
- g) Measures which tutors and students perceive as necessary steps in enhancing leadership behaviours of principals;

Appendix A consisted of items that dealt with the biographic data of tutors. It also dealt with the professional qualifications of the tutors and number of years of teaching in their present institutions. It looked at the biographical information of the tutors as well as how principals' leadership styles affect the management of their institutions. It also dealt with how principals' leadership styles affect students' academic performance. Section C looked at the attempts made by principals to bring about desirable change in the college. It solicited views on measures which tutors and students perceive

as necessary steps/ingredients in enhancing leadership styles of principals of nursing training colleges.

Appendix B centered on students' perception about the principal's leadership behavior. Respondents were asked to show by ticking the number on the Likert scale that corresponded with their responses regarding the degree to which they felt that certain things done by the principals of their various colleges enabled the principals to be effective.

Appendix C was designed to solicit from staff and students their perceptions about the leadership styles of their Principals. The items covered personal qualities, human relations, decision-making process, and delegation of authority and communication skills of principals.

A summative model with a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from one to four as described by Oppenheim (1966) was used to develop the questionnaire. Numbers were placed on the following as: Strongly disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Agree = 3; Strongly Agree = 4. According to Best and Khan (1998), the Likert-type questionnaire has been considered the most appropriate and suitable instrument for measuring attitudes, feelings and perceptions since it offers respondents the opportunity to indicate the extent of their belief in a given statement.

Pilot -Testing of Instrument

The questionnaire was subjected to critical scrutiny to ensure its consistency and appropriateness. It was given to some colleagues, experts in education and research and the supervisor for the study for their perusal and comments with the view to establishing face validity. This enabled me 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 Nursing and Midwifery Training School in Sekondi in the Western Region. A total of 20 nurses from the NMTC were used in the exercise since they shared similar characteristics with the respondents who were used in the main study. Although, the students are in Sekondi they have the same/similar characteristics and their conditions are virtually the same. 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. Cronbach co–efficient alpha was used to calculate the reliability of the instrument through the use of Software Product for Service Solution (SPSS). The reliability co-efficient of the instruments was found to be 0.78 which was high to be used to collect data for the actual study. This exercise helped to validate the instrument and made it more reliable for use in the main research.

Procedure for Data Collection

In carrying out the data collection, I went to the schools, and the heads of the various schools introduced me to the tutors and the students. Copies of the questionnaire were given to the students and the tutors. The Heads assigned tutor to gather the completed questionnaire for me.

On the whole, 54 copies of the questionnaire were administered and 54 were returned. This means that there was one hundred percent return rate. This was made possible because the questionnaire was administered when schools were in session and therefore tutors and students were available.

Data Analysis Procedure

The completed questionnaires were finally scored and values tabulated. The same scores were given items with the response strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree and items with the response always, often, sometimes and never respectively. For ease of analysis, the responses of strongly agree and agree were combined and strongly disagree and disagree were also combined. Items with "yes" and "no" responses were scored 2 and 1 respectively.

Since the study was purely descriptive, descriptive analysis was used. The main statistical tool that was used for analyzing the data was simple percentages and frequencies. The percentages were used to analyze all the responses. Frequency and percentage tables were used to describe the data that were collected from respondents. The frequency and percentage tables enabled me to have an overall view of the findings, to identify the trends and to display the relationship between parts of the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study sought to ascertain the most appropriate leadership styles that enhance high academic performance of student in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region. This chapter shows the analysis of the data collected as well as the discussion of the data based on the responses to the questionnaire distributed to respondents. The respondents include tutors and students.

Analysis of the data covers the following broad aspects:

- Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership styles of Principals in Health Training Institutions (HTI)
- 2. Tutors' Involvement in the management of Nurses training Colleges
- 3. Students' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals of HTI
- 4. Principals' Leadership Styles and Management of Institutions
- 5. Principal's Attempts to bring about desirable Change in the
- 6. Measures Enhancing Leadership styles of Principals in HTI

Aspects discussed here include age, gender, highest academic qualification, and highest professional status of tutors. These are analyzed to determine the effects on the effort of the respondents` ability to play the roles expected of them.

It was deemed fit to find out the age of respondents in order to know whether they were young or old. Questionnaire item1, Section A, sought to elicit the age of respondents. The details are shown in Table 2

Table 2: Gender of Respondents

Responses	T	utors	Stud	dents
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Male	9	37.5	12	40.0
Female	15	62.5	18	60.0
Total	24	100.0	30	100.0

Table 2 shows the gender distribution of respondents. The respondents were made up of 9 (37.5%) male tutors and 15 (62.5%) female tutors whereas the students were made up of 12 (40%) male students and 18 (60%) female students. The professional qualification of the tutors are giving in Table 3.

Table 3: Professional Qualification of Tutors

Respondents	Frequency	Percent
M.Phil/M.Ed/M.Sc/M.A	2	8.3
First Degree (B.Ed, B.A,B.Sc)	13	54.2
Diploma	9	37.5
Total	24	100.0

Table 3 shows the professional qualification of the respondents. Out of the total number of respondents who provided responses to the questionnaire, 2(8.3%) had M Phil/ M.Ed/M.Sc/M.A degrees, 13(54.2%) had First Degree (B.Ed, B.A, B.Sc) level whilst 9(37.5%) had Diploma level. Table 4 shows the rank of the tutors in GHS.

Table 4: Present Rank of Respondents in the GHS

Respondents	Frequency	Percent
District Director of Nursing Services (DDNS)	2	8.3
Principal Nursing Officer (PNO)	4	16.7
Senior Nursing Officer (SNO)	5	20.8
Nursing Officer (NO)	13	54.2
Total	24	100.0

With the present rank of the respondents in the GHS, Table 4 shows that 2(8.3%) were ranked DDNS, 4(16.7%) were ranked PNO, 5(20.8%) were ranked SNO whilst 13(54.2%) were also ranked NO. Table 5 shows the number of years the tutors have been teaching.

Table 5: Number of Years Tutors have been Teaching

Number of years	Frequency	Percent
1 – 5 year	21	87.5
6 – 10 years	3	12.5
Total	24	100.0

Table 5 indicates the number of years tutors have been teaching. The results shows that 21(87.5%) of the respondents have been teaching between 1-5 years whilst 3(12.5%) have also been teaching between 6-10 years.

Research Question 1: How do tutors and students perceive the leadership style of their respective principals?

Tables 6 - 11 show the results of the study in relations to the research questions.

Table 6: Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals

Statement	SA	SA		A		D		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Has a relatively high desire for	-	-	15	62.5	0	37.5	24	100.0
achievement			13	02.3	9	31.3	24	100.0
Very ambitious about his/her								
work/career and has a desire to get	5	20.8	15	62.5	4	16.7	24	100.0
ahead								
Can easily be approached by								
subordinates with their personal	5	20.8	9	37.5	10	41.7	24	100.0
problems								

Table 6 Continued								
Corrects subordinates in privacy rather -		-	20	83.3	4	16.7	24	100.0
than in front of others								
Allows student leaders to be selected	10	41.7	1/1	58.3		-	24	100.0
by popular choice	10	71.7	17	30.3			27	100.0
Takes the views of students into								
consideration in arriving at final	5	20.8	15	62.5	4	16.7	24	100.0
decisions affecting students.								
Assigns staff to particular tasks.	10	41.7	9	37.5	5	20.8	24	100.0

The results in Table 6 indicate that when asked whether they have a relatively high desire for achievements, 15(62.5%) of the respondents agreed whilst 9(37.5%) disagreed. Also, as to whether the principals are very ambitious about his/her work/careers and has a desire to get ahead 5(20.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed, 15(62.5%) agreed whilst 4(16.7%) disagreed. This is in line with Robert's (1985) assertion that behaviour is goal-directed, which is observable and measurable. He also said that a leader's behaviour can influence or be influenced by his subordinates.

Furthermore, with the issue concerning whether they can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems, 5(20.8%) strongly agreed, 9(37.5%) agreed whilst 10(41.7%) disagreed. Again, when asked whether the principals correct subordinates in privacy rather than in front of others, 20(83.3%) of the respondents agreed whilst 4(16.7%) disagreed.

In addition, as to whether the principals allow student leaders to be selected by popular choice, all the respondents agreed to this statement. The respondents were once again asked whether the principals take the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students and the results are that, 20(83.3%) agreed whilst 4(16.7%) disagreed. Finally, as to whether the principals assign staff to particular tasks, 19(79.2%) of the total respondents agreed whilst 5(20.8%) disagreed. Table 7 shows the tutors' involvement in the management of Nursing Training Colleges (Tutors).

Table 7 reveals the tutors' involvement in the management of Nursing Training Colleges (Tutors). With the issue concerning the involvement of staff in the decision making process, 20 respondents representing 83.3% agreed whilst 4 respondents representing 16.7% disagreed with the statement.

 Table 7: Tutors' Involvement in the Management of Nursing Training Colleges (tutors)

Statement	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Involves staff in decision-making process	-	-	20	83.3	-	-	4	16.7	24	100.0
Accepts and implements suggestions made by tutors	10	41.7	5	20.8	-	-	9	37.5	24	100.0
Convenes regular meetings with the staff	-	-	10	41.7	4	16.7	10	41.7	24	100.0
Lays bare college matters at staff meetings for discussion and adoption	5	20.8	15	62.5	-	-	4	16.7	24	100.0
Welcomes tutor's opinions on effecting changes	5	20.8	5	20.8	4	16.7	10	41.7	24	100.0
Gives tutors freedom to select appropriate textbooks	5	20.8	14	58.3	-	-	5	20.8	24	100.0
Empowers tutors to choose their own teaching					-	-				
methods	10	41.7	10	41.7			4	16.7	24	100.0

Table 7 Continued

Allows tutors to make classroom disciplinary policies	5	20.8	15	62.5	-	-	4	16.7	24	100.0
Allows tutors to participate in planning new projects for the college	10	41.7	14	58.3	-	-	-	-	24	100.0
Authorizes tutor to plan college budget	24	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	24	100.0

Again, as to whether the principals accept and implement suggestions made by tutors 15 (62.5%) of the respondents agreed, but 9 (37.5%) disagreed. Also, when asked whether they convene regular meetings with the staff, 14 (41.7%) agreed and 14 (58.4%) disagreed. Furthermore, when asked whether they lay bare college matters at staff meetings for discussion and adoption, 20 (83.3%) agreed, but 4 (16.7%) disagreed.

In addition, with the issue concerning whether the tutors' opinions are welcomed on effecting changes, 10 (41.6%) of the respondents agreed and whilst 14(58.4%) disagreed. Moreover, when asked whether the tutors are given the freedom to select appropriate textbooks, 19 (79.1%) agreed and 5 (20.8%) disagreed. Again, when asked whether the tutors are empowered to choose their own teaching methods, 20 (83.4%) agreed and 4 (16.7%) disagreed. Also, as to whether the tutors are allowed to make classroom disciplinary policies, 20 (83.4%) agreed, 4 (16.7%) disagreed.

Likewise, when asked whether the tutors are allowed to participate in planning new projects for the college, all the respondents agreed to this statement. Additionally, the respondents also agreed to the statement that tutors are being authorized to plan college budgets. This supports the idea of Meyenn and Parker (1993) that principals are collaborative, co-operative and supportive. Brady (1992) also saw them as highly effective in delivering professional development to tutors. The study sought the students' perceptions about the leadership styles of Principals. Their responses are shown in Table 8.

 Table 8: Students' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals

Statement	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Has a relatively high desire for achievement	-	-	3	10.0	9	30.0	18	60.0	30	100.0
High desire for achievement	-	-	3	10.0	18	60.0	9	30.0	30	100.0
Can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems	3	10.0	12	40.0	12	40.0	3	10.0	30	100.0
Corrects subordinates in privacy rather than in front of others	-	-	3	10.0	12	40.0	15	50.0	30	100.0
Allows student leaders to be selected by popular choice	-	-	3	10.0	9	30.0	18	60.0	30	100.0

Table 8 Continued

Takes the views of students into consideration in	18	60.0	3	10.0	6	20.0	3	10.0	30	100.0
arriving at final decisions affecting students										
Assigns staff to particular tasks	-	-	9	30.0	9	30.0	12	40.0	30	100.0
Delegates tutors to attend meetings	-	-	3	10.0	9	30.0	18	60.0	30	100.0
Communicates information to tutors through staff	3	10.0	3	10.0	6	20.0	18	60.0	30	100.0
meetings	3	10.0	3	10.0	0	20.0	10	00.0	30	100.0
Communicates information directly to students during			2	10.0	18	60 O	0	20.0	20	100.0
college gatherings.			3	10.0	18	60.0	9	30.0	30	100.0

Table 8 shows the students' perceptions about the leadership styles of Principals. When the students were asked whether the principals have a relatively high desire for achievement, 3(10.0%) of the respondents agreed, whilst 270(90.0%) disagreed. Also, as to whether the principals are very ambitious and has a high desire for achievements 3(10.0%) of the respondents agreed, 18(60.0%) strongly disagreed whilst, 9(30.0%) disagreed. Furthermore, with the issue concerning whether they can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems, 150(50.0%) agreed whereas another 150(50.0%) also disagreed. Again, when the students were asked whether the principals corrects subordinates in privacy rather than in front of others, 30(10.0%) of the respondents agreed, 270(90.0%) disagreed.

In addition, as to whether the principals allow student leaders to be selected by popular choice, 30(10.0%) of the respondents agreed, 270(90.0%) disagreed. The respondents were once again asked whether the principals take the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students and the results are that, 210(70.0%) agreed but 90(30.0%) disagreed. Moreover, as to whether the principals assign staff to particular tasks, 90(30.0%) of the total respondents agreed whilst 210(70.0%) disagreed. When asked whether they delegate tutors to attend meetings, 30(10.0%) agreed whereas 270(90.0%) disagreed. Again, 60(20.0%) of the respondents agreed but 240(80.0%) disagreed to the fact that principals communicate information to tutors through staff meetings. Finally, 3(10.0%) agreed but 270(90.0%) disagreed with the fact that principals communicate information directly to students during college gatherings.

Research Question 2: How are the principals using the resources available to the school?

Table 9 shows the non-teaching staff responses on Principals' leadership styles and management of institutions and ensuring that resources are effectively used.

Table 9 shows the Principals' leadership styles and management of institutions (non-teaching staff). With the issue concerning whether the principals prepare up-to-date job descriptions for all staff, and assigns roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and students, 6(60.0%) agreed whist 4(40.0%) disagreed. Also, 8(80.0%) agreed whereas 2(20.0%) disagreed agreed with the fact that principals' arranges for the appointment of new staff. Again, 4(40.0%) agreed and 6(60%) disagreed with the fact that principals induct/give orientation to new tutors and students. Moreover, all the respondents agreed with the issue that principals communicate regularly and fully, by the most appropriate means, to staff and students about college programs.

Furthermore, as to whether the principals' ensure presence and punctuality of both staff and students, 6(60.0%) of the respondents agreed whereas 4(40.0%) disagreed. In addition, the respondents agreed with the issue that principals conduct a full and fair appraisal of all staff including observations, discussions and in written reports. The respondents also agreed with the fact that principals take stock and physically check the store and equipment of the college. More to the point, the results shows the principals analyze examination results and as such set new targets for individuals, departments and the college as a whole.

 Table 9: Principals' Leadership Styles and Management of Institutions (non-teaching staff)

Statement	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Prepares up-to-date job descriptions for all staff, and										
assigns roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and	2	20.0	4	40.0			4	40.0	10	100.0
students										
Arranges for the appointment of new staff	2	20.0	6	60.0	-	-	2	20.0	10	100.0
Inducts/gives orientation to new tutors and students	4	40.0	4	40.0	-	-	2	20.0	10	100.0
Communicates regularly and fully, by the most										
appropriate means, to staff and students about college										
programmes	6	60.0	4	40.0	-	_	-	-	10	100.0

Table 9 Continued

2	20.0	4	40.0	-	-	4	40.0	10	100.0
2	20.0	8	80.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
		10	100.0					10	100.0
-	-	10	100.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
6	60.0	4	40.0					10	100.0
6	60.0	4	40.0					10	100.0
U	00.0	4	40.0					10	100.0
	2	2 20.0 6 60.0	2 20.0 8 10 6 60.0 4	2 20.0 8 80.0 10 100.0 6 60.0 4 40.0	2 20.0 8 80.0 10 100.0 - 6 60.0 4 40.0	2 20.0 8 80.0 10 100.0 6 60.0 4 40.0	2 20.0 8 80.0 6 60.0 4 40.0	2 20.0 8 80.0 6 60.0 4 40.0	2 20.0 8 80.0 10 10 100.0 10 6 60.0 4 40.0 10

Research Question 3: In what ways does instructional leadership of principals influence students' achievement?

Table 10 shows the responses from the non-teaching staff on Principal's attempt to bring about desirable change in the college.

Table 10 reveals the results on Principal's attempt to bring about desirable change in the college (non-teaching staff). With the issue concerning whether they have initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competence of students, 6(60.0%) of the respondents agreed, whereas 4(40.0%) disagreed. The respondents also agreed with the issue that the principal has provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the college. The Table revealed that the principal has provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members in the college.

Furthermore, the non-teaching staff agreed that principals provided leadership in developing the curriculum and providing the appropriate resources, which maximizes students' achievement. The respondents also indicated that the principal has established close ties between the college and the community. Moreover, 6(60.0%) agreed whilst 4(40.0%) disagreed that the principal has initiated rehabilitation and repair of college facilities. Additionally, the respondents agreed with the fact that the principal has established a congenial climate for learning. They also agreed with the issue that the principal has established the use of appropriate instructional strategies. However, the respondents also agreed with the fact that the principal has introduced a valid and reliable performance indicators and testing procedures to measure performance strategies. There has also been injection of new ideas into co-curricular activities, the respondents also agreed to this statement.

Table 10: Principals' attempts to bring about desirable change in the college (non-teaching staff)

Statement	SA		A		SD		D		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Has initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competence of students	2	20.0	4	40.0	-	-	4	40.0	10	100.0
Has provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the college	2	20.0	8	80.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Has provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members in the college	2	20.0	8	60.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Has provided leadership in developing the										
curriculum and providing the appropriate resources,	2	20.0	8	80.0	_	_	_	_	10	100.0

Table 10 Continued

which will maximize students' achievement										
Has established close ties between the college and			10	100.0					10	100.0
the community	-	-	10	100.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Has initiated rehabilitation and repair of college	6	60.0					4	40.0	10	100.0
facilities	U	00.0	-	-	-	-	4	40.0	10	100.0
Has established a congenial climate for learning	6	60.0	4	40.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
Has established the use of appropriate instructional	_		10	100.0	_	_	_	_	10	100.0
strategies			10	100.0					10	100.0
Has introduced valid and reliable performance										
indicators and testing procedures to measure	8	80.0	2	20.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0
performance strategies										
Has injected new ideas into co-curricula activities	4	40.0	6	60.0	-	-	-	-	10	100.0

Research Question 4: In what ways can principals help improve on students' academic performance?

Table 11 shows responses on measures that can enhance leadership styles of principals.

Table 11 shows the measures enhancing leadership styles of principals (non-teaching staff). All the respondents agreed that the Ghana Health Service (GHS) should make the programme management/administration a requirement for principals. The respondents agreed that refresher courses should be organized for principals at short intervals and also agreed that the "Best Principal Award" in administration of nursing training colleges should be instituted.

Table 11: Measures Enhancing Leadership Styles of Principals (non-teaching staff)

Statement	SA	A	1	A	Т	'otal
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
The Ghana Health Service (GHS) should make the						
programme management/administration a requirement for	4	40.0	6	60.0	10	100.0
principalship						
Refresher courses should be organized for principals at short	2	20.0	8	80.0	10	100.0
intervals	2	20.0	0	80.0	10	100.0
"Best Principal Award" in administration of nursing training	6	60.0	4	40.0	10	100.0
colleges should be instituted	O	00.0	т	1 0.0	10	100.0

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This chapter discusses the summary of the main findings, conclusion drawn from the findings and recommendations made by the study. It also looks at areas for further research. The research was primarily aimed at ascertaining the most appropriate leadership styles that enhance academic performance of students in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region. It is also to find out how principals can help improve on students' academic performance.

Descriptive sample survey was the research design employed in the collection of data for the study. The population for the study was made up of 1450 students and 40 tutors in the selected schools for the study. The respondents were made up of 24 tutors and 300 students. In all, 334 respondents were used as a sample for the study. The simple random sampling was employed in the selection of the respondents of target groups. Structured Questionnaires was the instrument employed for collection of data. The question was close–ended questions. The completed questionnaires were finally scored and tabulated using percentages.

The main statistical tool that was used for analyzing the data was simple percentages and frequencies. The percentages were used to analyze all

the responses. Frequency and percentage tables were used to describe the data that were collected from respondents.

The study was based on research questions as:

- a. How do tutors and students perceive the leadership style of their respective principals?
- b. Is the principal perceived to be putting into good use the resources available to the school?
- c. In what ways does instructional leadership of principals influence students' achievement?
- d. In what ways can principals help improve on students' academic performance?

The study was meant to contribute to knowledge on the perception of principals on the type of Administrative styles that enhance high academic performance of students. Literature relevant to the study was reviewed under the following headings:

- a. Concept of leadership
- b. Leadership styles and behaviour
- c. General perception of workers about female heads/principals
- d. Attitude of female principals
- e. Principals use of resources
- f. Instructional leadership
- 1. Students' achievement

Summary of the Major Findings

As podium to the discussions in chapter four, the following findings were realized.

The study revealed that,

- a. The heads' leadership style(s) and administrative practices have contributed negatively to academic performance of students in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region. The tutors see some leadership styles of principals as factors that negatively affect the administration of the school.
- b. Heads' supervisory roles had been ineffective in the Region resulting in poor academic performance of students. Principals' instructional leadership has affected students' academic achievement negatively as they are not able to perform their supervisory roles and instructional roles effectively.
- c. Heads of schools in the Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region do not involve students and tutors much in the administration of the schools. Involving students and tutors in the administration can help improve on students' academic achievement.
- d. Some principals are able to use resources in their disposal to effectively manage the school while others need training on how to use resources effectively.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it could be concluded that,

The leadership style(s) and administrative practices of heads of Nurses Training Colleges in the Central Region leave much to be desired. This is evidenced by the responses given by the majority of the various respondent groups and this could affect the academic performance of the students.

Poor Supervisory roles by heads negatively affected students' academic performance. This was revealed by the findings of the study. It was evident that heads do not truly involve their tutors and students in the administration of the schools and purely run 'one-man show' system. The implication was that the tutors and the students were not committed to achieving the goals of the school. Again, the implication of the ineffective supervision of heads is that, effective teaching and learning is compromised resulting in poor academic performance in the schools. Also Heads lack the managerial strategies needed for effective monitoring of teaching and learning. This was revealed through the interview held with the heads.

Recommendations

From the research conducted, the following recommendations were made;

i. As a matter of necessity, the Ghana Health Service (GHS) in conjunction with the Ghana Education Service (GES) should make provision for regular in-service training for heads to update their skills on administrative practices in response to the changing trends and demands of schools.

- ii. Heads should also involve tutors and other stakeholders in the planning, especially of the academic and financial activities of the schools as a way of increasing their participation in school administration to help do away with unnecessary suspicions on their part.
- iii. The Ghana Health Service (GHS) should make the programme management/administration as a requirement for principalship.
- iv. Best Principal Award" in administration of nursing training colleges should be instituted.
- v. Refresher courses should be organized for principals at short intervals.

Suggestion for Future Studies

Much as the study endeavored to cover most of the relevant aspects of the theme; review of the leadership styles of principals in the nurses training colleges in the central region, the following suggestions for future research are made:

- For generalization of the findings of the study, the study could be modified and the scope widened to cover the whole country.
- 2. The study did not capture the financial management of heads. It is therefore, suggested that future researchers of school management should include this area in their work.

REFERENCES

- Acheampong, L. (1999). Women and management of educational institutions in the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana. An Unpublished Thesis University of Cape Coast.
- Acker, S. (1989). Teachers, gender and careers. London: Falmer Press.
- Adesina, S. (1990). *Educational Management*. Enugu, Nigeria: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co Ltd.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2004). Theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana. Accra, Ghana: Type Company Limited.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2004). Theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana. Accra, Ghana: Type Company Limited.
- Ahuja, M. K., & Galvin, J. E. (2003). Socialization in virtual groups. *Journal* of Management, 29(2), 161–185.
- Andrews, R., & Soder, R. (1987). Principal instructional leadership and school achievement. *Educational Leadership*, 44(6), 9-11.
- Andrews, R., & Soder, R. (1987). Principal instructional leadership and school achievement. *Educational Leadership*, 44(6), 9-11.
- Ardayfio-Schandorf, E. (1990). Women in Ghana: An annonated bibliography. Accra: Woeli Publishing Service.
- Asabiji, S. N. (1999, Jan. 29). District Education Directors urged to sign contract agreement with GES. *Daily Graphic*, p. 16.
- Asamoah, L. M. (1996). Women and educational leadership in the Volta

 Region of Ghana. An Unpublished M. Phil. Thesis, University

 of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

- Asiedu-Akrofi, K. (1978). *School administration in modern Africa*. Tema: Ghana Publishing Corporation.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: Free Press.
- Benson, G. L. (1983). How employee assumptions influence managerial behaviour. *Supervisory Management March*, 2(7), 34-37
- Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1998). *Research in education,* (8th ed.). Boston:

 Ally and Bacon
- Betz, N. E., & Fitzgerald, L. E. (1987). *The career psychology of women*. New York: Academic Press
- Biklen, S. K., & Brannignan, M. B (1980). Women and educational leadershlp. Canada: D.C. Hca1th and Company
- Bittel, L. R. (1989). *The McGraw-Hill 36-hour management course*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Blasé, J., Anderson, G., & Dungan, S. (1995). *Democratic principles in action: Eight pioneers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Borcelle, G. (1985). Jobs for women: A plea for equity of opportunity technical education, vocational training and employment.

 Paris: UNESCO
- Bossert, S. T., Dwyer, D. C., Rowan, B., & Lee, G. V. (1995). The instructional management role of the principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(3), 34-64.
- Brady, L. (1992). Gender as a factor in the professional development of principals. *Unicorn*, 18(1), 84-88.

- Brenner, O. C., Tomkiewiez, J., & Schein, V. E. (1989). The relationship between sex role sterrotypes and requisite management characteristics revisited. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 662-669.
- Bryk, A. S., Lee, V. E., & Holland, P. B. (1993). *Catholic schools and the common good*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bryman, A. (1986). Leadership in organizations. London: Sage
- Burke, R. J. (1984). Mentors in organizations. *Group and Organization Studies*, 9(3), 353-372.
- Burns, J. M. (1987). Leadership. New York: Harper and Row.
- Caldwell, B. J. (1994). Leading the self-managing school. London: Falmer.
- Chapman, E., & O'Neil S. L. (2000). *Leadership: Essential steps every manager needs to know* (3rd ed.). Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River.
- Chase, G., & Kane, M. (1983). The principal as instructional leader: How much more time before we act? Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.
- Chubb, J., & Moe, T., (1990). *Politics, markets and America's schools*.

 Washington: WA Brookings Institution.
- Clark, J. M. (1996). Women and politics. *Journal of educational* administration, 16(1), 25.
- Cole, G. A. (1997). *Personnel management: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). London: DP Publishing Ltd.
- Copper, C. (1993). Educational administration in a pluralistic society.

 Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.

- Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and student achievement*. Alexandria, VA:

 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Cribbin, J. J. (1972). Effective managerial leadership. New York: AMACOM
- Date-Bah, E. (1986). Sex segregation and discrimination in Accra-Tema:

 causes and consequences' in Sexual Inequalities in Urban

 Employment in the Third World. New York: St. Martins Press.
- Davies, L. (1992). Women and men in educational management: An international inquiry. Paris: IIEP Research Report
- Davis, K. (1986). *Human behaviour at work*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Davis, K., & Newstrom, J. W. (1985). Human behavior at work. In J. A.

 Okumbe, *Educational management, theory and practice*(pp.45). Nairobi: University Press.
- Day, D. V., & Robert, G. L. (1988). "Executive Leadership and Organizational Performance: Suggestions for a New Theory and Methodology." *Journal of Management*, 14, 453-464.
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1998). How leaders' influence the culture of schools. *Educational leadership*, 56 (1), 28-30.
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1999). Shaping School Culture: The heart of school leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Dine, L. (1988). Women in higher education. A review of education research, 51 (3), 311-343.
- Dolphyne, F. A. (1991). *The emancipation of women*. Accra: Ghana University Press

- Druskat, V. U. (1994). Gender and leadership style: Transformational and transactional leadership in the Roman Catholic Church.

 *Leadership Quarterly, 5(2), 99–119.
- DuBrin, A. J. (1990). Essentials of management. Cincinnati: South-Western.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 233-256.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37(1), 15-24.
- Elmore, R. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership*. Washington, DC: The Albert Shanker Institute.
- Evetts, J. (1994). *Gender and secondary headship: Managerial experiences in teaching.* London: Longman.
- Feldman, C., & Arnold, J. (1983). *Managing individual and group behavior in organizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Fox, R. L., & Schuhmann, R. A. (1999). Gender and local government: A comparison of women and men city managers. *Public Administration Review*, 59, 231–242.
- Franklin, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2000). *How to design and evaluate research*in education (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Fuller, B. (1987). School effects in the Third World. *Review of Educational Research*, 57, 255-292.
- Gay, L. R. (1990). *Educational Research* (3rded.) London: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Gayle, B. M. (1991). Sex differences in conflict management strategy selection: A meta-analytic review (Report No. CS 507 527).

- Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Communication Association, Chicago, Illinois.
- Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly, J. H., (2000) *Organizations:*behavior, structure, processes (10th ed.). Boston: Irwin

 McGraw Hill.
- Gibson, C. B. (1995). An investigation of gender differences in leadership across four countries, *Journal of International Business*Studies, 26 (2), 255 279.
- Gibson, J. L. (1991). Organisation behavior and structure process. Boston:

 Irwin Inc.
- Goffman, E. (1963). Stigma: Notes on the management of spoiled identity.

 Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Grady, M. (1995). Building a network for women in educational administration. In B. Irby & G. Brown (Eds.), Women executives: voices and visions (pp. 121-126). Austin, Texas:

 The Texas Council of Women School Executives.
- Hall, V. (1996). Dancing on the ceiling: A study of women managers in education. London: Paul Chapman.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1998). Exploring the principals' contribution to school effectiveness: 1980 1995. School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 9(2), 157-191.
- Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2003). *Teacher leadership: Principal and practice*.

 Chicago: American Educational Research Association.

- Heck, R., Larsen, T., & Marcoulides, G. (1990). Instructional leadership and school achievement: validation of a casual model. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 26(2), 94-125.
- Hess, F. (2006). Tough love for schools: Essays on competition, accountability, and excellence. Washington, D.C.: AEI Press.
- Hess, F. M. (1999). Spinning wheels: The politics of urban school reform.

 Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1982). *Educational administration: Theory,* research and practice (4th ed.). New York: Random House.
- Ingersoll, R. (2003). Who controls teachers' work? Cambridge, Massachusetts:

 Harvard University Press
- Jacklin, C. M. (1989). *Male & female: Issues of gender*. American Psychologist, 44, 127-144.
- Jackson, R. M. (1998). Destined for equality: The inevitable rise of women's status. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- King, D. (2002). The changing shape of leadership. Educational Leadership, 59(8), 61–63.
- Knezevich, S. J. (1976). Administration of Public Education: A Sourcebook for the Leadership and Management of Educational Institutions (4th Ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

- Koontz, H., & O'Donnell, C. (1972). *Principles of management*. New York:

 MacGraw Hill.
- Lair, J. (1980). Sex: If I didn't laugh, I'd cry. New York: Doubleday.
- Lakoff, R. (1976). Language and woman's place. New York: Harper and Row.
- Lee, J. A. (1982). The gold and the garbage in management theories and prescriptions. Athens: Ohio University Press.
- Levine, D. U., & Lezotte, L. W. (1990). *Unusually effective schools*. Madison, WI: the National Center for Effective Schools Research and Development.
- Lipham, H. (1974). *The principalship: Foundations and functions*. New York:

 Harper and Row.
- Luthans, F. (1989). Organisational behaviour. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Marshall, C. (1985). The stigmatized woman: The professional woman in a male sex-typed career. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 23(2), 131-152.
- Massie, J. L., & Douglas, J. (1992). *Managing: A contemporary introduction*.

 Englewood Cliffs: Simon & Schuster Company.
- McGregor, D. (1967). The professional manager. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Meyenn, B., & Parker, J. (1993). *Devolution, dezoning, equity and social justice: The unintended consequences.* Paper presented to the

 Australian Council for Educational Administration, Australian

 Secondary Principals Association National Conference,

 Adelaide, 26–30 September, 1993.

- Miles, K., Ware, K., & Roza, M. (2003). Leveling the playing field: Creating funding equity through student-based budgeting. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85, 114-119.
- Miles, R. H. (1997). Leading corporate transformation: A blueprint for business renewal. San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare (1999). Report on Graduate

 Unemployment in Ghana. Accra: Ministry of Employment and
 Social Welfare.
- Moore, S. (1997). Nothing's impossible: Leadership lessons from inside and outside the classroom. New York: Times Books.
- Morphet E. J., & Reller, T. L. (1982). *Educational organization and administration*. New York: Prentice Hall Inco.
- Musaazi, J. C. S. (1985). The theory and practice of educational administration. London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.
- Nukunya, G. K. (1992). *Tradition and change in Ghana: An introduction to sociology*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- O'Sullivan E., & Rassel G. R. (1999). Research methods for public administrators. New York: Longman.
- Ogawa, R. T., & Bossert, S. T. (1995). Leadership as an organizational quality. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(2), 224-243.
- Oppenheim, A. N. (1966). Questionnaire design and attitude measurement.

 New York: Basic Books.
- Osuala, E. C. (1993). *Introduction to research methodology*. Onitsha, Nigeria:

 Africa Fep Publishers Ltd.

- Ouchi, W. (2003). Making schools work: A revolutionary plan to get your children the education they need. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Owens, R. G. (2001). Organizational Behaviour and Educational,

 Institutional Leadership and School Reform (7th ed.). New
 York: Ally and Bacon.
- Pashiardis, P. (2004). Democracy and leadership in the educational system of Cyprus. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(6), 656-668.
- Pashiardis, P., Thody, A., Papanaoum, Z., & Johansson, E. (2003). *European* search for consensus in diversity. Nicosia, Cyprus: Digiword Limited.
- Piotrowski, S. J., & Rock, A. (1963). *Effective educational leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pondy, L. R. (1978). *Leadership is a language game*. Durham, N.C: Duke University Press.
- Portin, B., & Shen, J. (2005). *The challenging principalship: School Principals*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Pounder, D, Ogawa, R. T., & Adams, E. A. (1995). Leadership an organization-wide phenomena: Its impact on school performance. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 34(4), 564-588.
- Powell, G. N. (1990). One more time: Do male and female managers differ?

 Academy of management executive, 12, 731–743.

- Raudenbush, S. W. (2005). Learning from attempts to improve schooling: The contribution of methodological diversity. *Educational Researcher*, 34(5), 25-31.
- Restine, N. L. (1993). Women in administration: facilitators for change.

 Newbury Park, California: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Reynolds, D., & Cuttance, P. (1992). School effectiveness: Research, policy and practice. London: Cassell.
- Rigg, C., & Sparrow, J. (1994). Gender, Diversity and Working Styles.

 Women in Management Review, 9(1), 9-16.
- Roberts, N. C. (1985). Transforming leadership: A process of collective action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Rosener, J. B. (1990). Ways women lead. *Harvard Business Review*, 68 (6), 119-145.
- Rozier, C. K., & Hersh-Cochran, M. S. (1996). Gender differences in managerial characteristics in a female-dominated health profession, *Health care supervisor*, 14 (4), 57-70.
- Rutter, M. Maugham, B., Mortimore, P., Ousten, J., & Smith, A. (1979).

 Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their effects on children. London: Open Books.
- Sergiovanni, T. (1993). Organizations or communities? Changing the metaphor changes the theory. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA.
- Shakeshaft, K. (1989). Women in educational administration. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

- Short, P. M., & Greer, J. T. (1997). *Leadership in empowered schools: Themes* from innovative efforts. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Smith, M. E. (1977). Those who live from the sea: a study in maritime anthropology. St. Paul: West Publishing Company
- Sonstelie, J. (2006). Aligning school finance with academic standards: A Weighted-Student Formula Based on a Survey of Practitioners.

 Working Paper, 18, 13-19.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. (2000). *Toward a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective*. Alexandria, VA: NAESP.
- Starratt, R. J. (1996). Transforming educational administration: Meaning, community, and excellence. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974) Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research. New York: Free Press.
- Stoner, J. A. F., Freeman, E., & Gilbert, D. R. (1996). *Management* (6th ed.).

 New Delhi: Prantice Hall.
- Stromquist, N. P. (1993). Determinant of educational participation and achievement of women in the third world. A review of the evidence.: and theoretical critique. *A Review of Educational Research*, 59,(2).143-183
- Tack, A. (1984). Motivational leadership. London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.
- Teddlie, C., & Reynolds, D. (2000). The international handbook of school effectiveness research. London: Falmer Press.

- Thomas, K.W. (1992). Conflict and negotiation process in organizations.

 Handbook of Industrial Psychologists Press, 615-717.
- UNESCO. (1993). Women in higher education management. Paris: UNESCO Vroom, V. H. (1982). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.
- Wallace Foundation. (2007). A Wallace Perspective: Getting Principal

 Mentoring Right: Lessons from the Field. New York City:

 Wallace Foundation.
- Whitaker, K. S., & Hein, A. (1991). Principals' perceptions of female capabilities in school administration. *Journal of Research and development in Education*, 25 (1), 40-50.
- Wilson, J. (1966). *Education and changing West African culture*. London:

 Oxford University Press.
- Witziers, B., Bosker, R. J., & Krüger, M. L. (2003) Educational leadership and student achievement: The elusive serach for an association. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 39 (3), 398-425.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TUTORS

This study is being conducted on Principals' leadership styles in the Teacher Training Colleges in Central Region in Ghana. Kindly complete this questionnaire as frankly as possible. You are assured that your identity and responses will be treated **confidentially**. Thank you.

Indicate your answer to the following questions where applicable by ticking ($\sqrt{\ }$) the appropriate answer or by completing the spaces provided.

Section A – Biographic Data

1.	Sex Male () Female ()	
2.	Your highest professional qualification		
	a) M.Phil/M.Ed/M.Sc/M.A	()
	b) First Degree (B.Ed, B.A,B.Sc)	()
	c) Diploma	()
	d) Specialist	()
	e) Others (Please specify)		
3.	Your present rank in the Ghana Health Service (GI	ES).	
	a) DDNS	()
	b) PNO	()
	c) SNO	()
	d) NO	()
	e) Any other?		
4.	How long have you been teaching in your present of	colle	ge?
	a) $1-5$ year	()

b)	6 – 10 years	()
c)	11 – 15 years	()
d)	16 and above	()

SECTION B

Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership styles of Principals

Please, use the scale below to indicate your perception about the leadership styles of principals of nursing training colleges. Tick $(\sqrt{})$ the one that is appropriate for each item.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership styles of	1	2	3	4
Principals				
1. Has a relatively high desire for achievement.				
2. Very ambitious about his/her work/careers and has a desire				
to get ahead.				
3. Can easily be approached by subordinates with heir				
personal problems				
4. Corrects subordinates in privacy rather than in front of				
others				
5. Allows student leaders to be selected by popular choice.				
Tutors' Perceptions about the Leadership styles of	1	2	3	4

Principals		
6. Takes the views of students into consideration in arriving		
at final decisions affecting students.		
7. Assigns staff to particular tasks.		

SECTION C

Leadership Styles of Principals and Tutors' Involvement in the Management of the Nursing Training Colleges

Use the scale to indicate your perception by ticking $(\sqrt{\ })$ the number you find appropriate.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Tutors' Involvement in the management of Nursing	1	2	3	4
training Colleges				
8. involves staff in decision-making process				
9. accepts and implements suggestions made by tutors				
10. convenes regular meetings with the staff				
11. lays bare college matters at staff meetings for discussion				
and adoption				
12. welcomes tutors's opinions on effecting changes				

Tutors' Involvement in the management of Nursing	1	2	3	4
training Colleges				
13. gives tutors freedom to select appropriate textbooks				
14. empowers tutors to choose their own teaching methods				
15. allows tutors to make classroom disciplinary policies				
16. allows tutors to participate in planning new projects for				
the college				
17. authorizes tutor to plan college budget				

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

This study is being conducted on Principals' leadership styles in the Nursing Training Colleges in Central Region in Ghana. Kindly complete this questionnaire as frankly as possible. You are assured that your identity and responses will be treated **confidentially**. Thank you.

Indicate your answers to the following questions where applicable by ticking ($\sqrt{\ }$) the appropriate answer or by completing the spaces provided.

1. Sex Male () Female ()

Student's Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of Principals

Please tick ($\sqrt{\ }$) the number on the scale following each statement to show how you feel about the leadership styles of your principal.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Students' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of	1	2	3	4
Principals				
1. has a relatively high desire for achievement				
2. very ambitious high desire for achievement				
3. can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems				
Students' Perceptions about the Leadership Styles of	1	2	3	4

Principals		
4. corrects subordinates in privacy rather than in front of		
others		
5. allows student leaders to be selected by popular choice		
6. takes the views of students into consideration in arriving at		
final decisions affecting students		
7. assigns staff to particular tasks		
8. delegates tutors to attend meetings		
9. communicates information to tutors through staff meetings		
10. communicates information directly to students during		
college gatherings.		

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ALL STAFF

How Principals' Leadership Styles Affect the Management of their Institutions

Please, use the scale below to indicate your feelings about how the leadership styles of your Principals affect management of your institution. Tick $(\sqrt{})$ the one that is appropriate for each item.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Principals' Leadership Styles and Management of	1	2	3	4
Institutions				
1. prepares up-to-date job descriptions for all staff, and				
assigns roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and students.				
2. arranges for the appointment of new staff.				
3. inducts/gives orientation to new tutors and students				
4. communicates regularly and fully, by the most appropriate				
means, to staff and students about college programmes				
5. ensures presence and punctuality of both staff and students				
Principals' Leadership Styles and Management of	1	2	3	4
Institutions				

6.conducts a full and fair appraisal of all staff including		
observations, discussions and in written reports.		
7. takes stock and physically checks the stores and equipment		
of the college.		
8. analyses examination results		
9. reviews the performance of the college in all in-class and		
out-of-class activities.		
10. sets new targets for individuals, departments and the		
college as a whole		

SECTION B

The attempts made by Principal to bring about Desirable Change in the ${\color{blue} \textbf{College}}$

Use the scale below to indicate your perception about the attempt made by your Principal to bring about a desirable change in the College. Tick ($\sqrt{}$) the one that is appropriate for each item.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Principal's Attempts to bring about desirable Change in	1	2	3	4
the College				

11. has initiated steps that will bring about improvement in		
academic and professional competence of students		
12. has provided leadership in assessing the needs of students		
in the college		
13. has provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff		
members in the college		
14. has provided leadership in developing the curriculum and		
providing the appropriate resources, which will maximize		
students' achievement		
15. has established close ties between the college and the		
community		
16. Has initiated rehabilitation and repair of college facilities.		
17. has established a congenial climate for learning		
18. has established the use of appropriate instructional		
strategies		
19. has introduced valid and reliable performance indicators		
and testing procedures to measure performance strategies		
20. has injected new ideas into co-curricula activities (e.g.,		
sports)		

SECTION C

Measures which Tutors and Students Perceive as Necessary Steps/Ingredients in enhancing Leadership styles of Principals of Nursing Training Colleges

Use the scale below to indicate your perception about steps/ingredients necessary in enhancing leadership styles of your principal. Tick ($\sqrt{\ }$) the one that is appropriate for each item.

- 1 Strongly Disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Agree
- 4 Strongly Agree

Measures Enhancing Leadership styles of Principals	1	2	3	4
21. The Ghana Health Service (GHS) should make a course,				
administration as a requirement for principalship.				
22. Refresher courses should be organized for principals at				
short intervals				
23. "Best Principal Award" in administration of nursing				
training colleges should be instituted.				