

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PERCEPTIONS OF TUTORS AND STUDENTS ABOUT LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE
CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA

ERNEST AMOAH NYARNE

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THE CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA

BY

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requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational
Administration

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis 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:.....

Name: Ernest Amoah Nyarne

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

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Name: Rev. Kodwo Arko-Boham

ABSTRACT

The study sought to find the perceptions tutors and students held about the Leadership Behaviours of Principals of Colleges of Education in the Central Region of Ghana. The design for the study was a descriptive survey whereby data were collected to answer the research questions. Tutors and students from the three colleges of education in the Central Region of Ghana constituted the population. In all, the sample size of the study stood at 407. Seventy-seven tutors were selected by using stratified random sampling technique while 330 students were randomly selected through the lottery method. Major findings of the study were that, the leadership behaviours of principals promoted good human relations and interpersonal communication. Principals exhibited good, appropriate, and effective administrative behaviours which placed the management of the colleges on a sound footing. Principals were believed to have introduced desirable changes in the colleges which uplifted the images of the colleges. On the contrary, principals were noted to be castigating at tutors and students publicly. Also, principals were aloof towards subordinates who had personal problems. Moreover, principals did not involve tutors in planning new projects and budget for the colleges.

Based on the findings, it is recommended that: Principals need to improve upon their human relations and interpersonal communication skills. They need to consider the views of tutors and students before arriving at final decisions affecting them (tutors and students). Finally, they must involve tutors in planning for new projects and budget for the colleges.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Amoah; and Professor
and Mrs. Opare.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds a group together and motivates it towards goals. It is, indeed, the ultimate act that brings to success all the potentials that is in an organization and its people (Kast & Rosenzeig, 1985). Thus, leadership is the process of influencing the activities and behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards goals achievement in a given situation (Musaazi, 1982).

For some time now, there has been a lot of concern on the effectiveness of leadership in the various educational institutions in Ghana. These days, this concern has become more crucial than before as stakeholders of education have developed enthusiastic interest in the management, and for that matter, leadership of educational institutions. This has, probably, called for the institution of certain bodies in the country like Parent-Teacher Association, School Management Committees, Boards of Governors, District Education Oversight Committees and even Alumni of educational institutions, to be partners in the management of these institutions, nationwide.

In recent years, a lot of awareness has been created among the people in the Ghanaian communities that education is the key to national development.

Habison (as cited in Rebore, 2001) said human resources form the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. A country without well-trained human resources has a bleak future. It is therefore the arduous task of heads of educational institutions to see to it that the educational aims and objectives of Ghana are achieved so as to produce the needed manpower for the country.

The principal is the leader on the hierarchical structure of the college of education and as such, the success or failure of the college depends, to a large extent, on the leadership behaviour he or she displays. Buttressing this point, Knezevich (1984) postulated that the principal is the educational leader and executive of management team at the building level who influences, to a large degree, how well teachers perform, how well students learn, and how easily and rapidly innovations are introduced into the college. Yukl (1994) stated that different people and organizations interpret effective leadership in different ways to mean different things.

In the educational system, indicators of effective leadership include rate of staff turnover, good examination results of students, students' comportment, principal-staff relationship and how diligent teachers and students work toward the achievement of institutional expertise required in today's complex educational organizations (Knezevich, 1984). Even though, of late, students' unrests or riots are at their lowest ebb in Ghana, there seems to be a general concern by the entire society on the mediocre type of teachers that the colleges of education in Ghana tend to produce.

Leadership, which is both a science and an art, is an interactive process between the leader and members of the group. The type of interaction between them is responsible for the success or failure of the organization. Leadership as a science, develops concepts, principles, and processes to guide the everyday practice of leaders to generate expected results while these processes do not in themselves offer solution to an organization's problems, they provide a logical and analytical approach to planning, decision making, and problem solving. Leaders who go by these principles and processes are at an advantage when it comes to problems solving. The art of leadership, on the other hand, lays great stress on the skills of leadership such as how knowledge and experiences are applied to achieve desired results.

Lussier (1999) asserted that leadership qualities can propel a person to a successful and bright career. He adds that job satisfaction stems from the leadership skills of the employee's manager. Strong leadership is needed in educational institutions because of the nature of work the head, particularly the principal, does. The job of the principal has conflicting goals, objectives, purposes, and expectations. Tutors expect that the principal should be fair and firm, students expect that the principal ensures that teaching and learning go on well in a conducive atmosphere while parents and the entire society expect the principal to see to the proper development of students for the achievement of national goals and objectives. Non-teaching staff want fair treatment from the principal, the alumni want to see their alma matter growing from strength to strength in terms of academic and disciplinary matters while the officials of the

District Education Office, Regional Education Office, Ghana Education Service, and the Ministry of Education demand total compliance with the laid down rules and regulations. The different expectations from these groups call for different perceptions of the principal's leadership role. According to Peprah-Mensah (1999), historically, Ghanaian schools are known to be administered in an automatic manner as far back as the colonial era. The schools in Africa, which were established by the missionaries and the colonial governments, followed a similar trend of automatic administration. Graham (as cited in Wiredu-Kusi, 1990) stated that the schools in British West Africa are the replica of English system of education. Just like the British educational system, the administrators of African schools are state employees at the helm of affairs and they dictate to both teachers and students. The schools in Ghana and those of the developing nations are undergoing structural changes. These changes demand other forms of administration. In implementing a change like this calls for greater involvement at the grass root level. It is believed that lack of an open climate in schools or colleges can easily lead to agitation on the part of students, and apathy on the part of teachers or tutors. To change the situation for the better, the Government of Ghana, in conjunction with United Nations Educational and Scientific Organization (UNESCO), established a department, Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA), at the University of Cape Coast, to train principals and other heads of educational institutions since August 1975 (IEPA, Brochure). This was to help change and also enhance the leadership behaviours of headmasters or headmistresses and principals of schools and colleges in Ghana

including principals of the colleges of education in the Central Region. The academic programmes being offered are Educational Planning, Educational Administration, and Higher Educational Administration.

Statement of the Problem

Research on the perceived leadership behaviours of principals of training colleges in Ashanti Region of Ghana suggests that the principals promote good human relations, encourage tutors to participate in decision- making, and practice good communication skills (Asare, 2006). One area in which principals were not acting in accordance with the expectations of the staff and students was in the area of planning of the colleges' budget. No such research has been done in the colleges of education in the Central Region. So it is not known whether the findings reported by Asare are peculiar to the colleges in the Ashanti Region or are applicable to other colleges outside the Ashanti Region. The present study was therefore designed to find out how tutors and students perceive the leadership behaviours of their principals of colleges of education in the Central Region of Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

Specifically the study sought to find out:

1. tutors' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in Central Region.
2. students' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in Central Region.

3. the ways in which the administrative behaviours of principals affect the management of the colleges of education.
4. the extent to which principals involve tutors in the management of the colleges of education.
5. the attempts made by principals to effect desirable changes in the colleges of education.

Research Questions

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions did direct the focus of the study.

1. What are tutors' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in the Central Region?
2. What are students' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in the Central Region?
3. In what ways do the administrative behaviours of the principals affect the management of the colleges of education?
4. To what extent do principals involve tutors in the management of the colleges of education in the Central Region?
5. What attempts have principals of the colleges of education in the Central Region made to effect desirable changes in their institutions?

Significance of the Study

The study will be of significance in the following ways; firstly, it will constitute a guide to principals and potential principals of colleges of education. This is because leadership behaviours, which are considered desirable, are outlined in this study. Secondly, the study will inform tutors on how administrative behaviours of principals affect their involvement in the management of the colleges of education. Finally, the study will inform the students on the need to get involved in the activities of the colleges of education.

Delimitation of the Study

This particular study was confined to tutors and students of colleges of education. This study was limited to perceptions held by tutors and students about leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education. The study was further delimited to the human relations and interpersonal communication skills of the principals. Finally, the study was restricted to the Central Region of Ghana.

Limitations of the Study

The questionnaires for the study should have been prepared for all tutors and students of the colleges of education in the Central Region. This would have helped the researcher ascertain the true picture of tutors' and students' perceptions about leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in the region so as to make the generalisation more effective. However, this was not

practicable because of time and financial constraints. Furthermore, the third year students were not included in the study because they were all out of campuses on teaching practice for the whole year. The views of the first and the second year students only might not be the true picture of principals' leadership behaviours.

Operational Definition of Terms

1. Leadership: is a way of influencing people towards common goals and showing them the path in reaching those goals.
2. Perception: is a process by which individuals select, organize, and interpret the input from their senses (vision, hearing, touch, smell, taste) to give meaning and order to world around them. Through perception, people try to make sense of their environment and the objects, events, and other people in it.
3. Principals; heads of the colleges of education in Ghana.
4. Tutors: refers to teachers who teach in the colleges of education.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters. The first chapter serves as the introduction and it deals with the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study and five research questions the study is expected to answer. Additionally, the chapter discusses the significance of the study, the delimitation, and limitations of the study as well as the operational definition of terms.

The second chapter of the thesis reviews literature related to the study. These are the concept of perception, the factors that influence the formation of

perception, the theoretical perspectives of leadership, Blake Mouton Managerial Grid, other contemporary approach to leadership, behaviour and behavioural change, empirical studies on leadership and elements of an effective leader's behaviour. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature reviewed.

The third chapter discusses the methodology adopted. These are; research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, and the instrument. The pilot testing, the administration, and retrieval of the instrument are also stated. The chapter finally, explains the data collection and analysis procedures.

The fourth chapter presents the analysis and discussions of the data. It deals with analysis on perceptions of tutors and students regarding leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education. These are presented, using frequencies and percentages. The fifth chapter, which is the final chapter of the thesis, sums up the results and findings of the study. The chapter states the recommendations based on the findings. Recommendations for further research are also included in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature review covers the theory of perception, factors that influence the formation of perception, theoretical perspectives of leadership, Blake Mouton Managerial Grid, contemporary approach to leadership, behaviour and behavioural change, empirical studies on leadership, and fundamentals of effective leader behaviour.

Theory of Perception

Researchers have defined perception in different ways. Hayes (1998) defined perception to mean how we interpret the information that we receive through the sense organs of the body. Jennifer and Gareth (1996), seem to share a similar opinion with Hayes (1998) because they defined perception as a process by which individuals select, organize, and interpret the input from their senses (vision, hearing, touch, smell, taste) to give meaning and order to the world around them. Gregory (1973) stated that perception was more than simply the decoding of information received by the visual system. Instead, it is a process of making inferences about the data – developing reasonable guesses on the basis of what is most probable or likely.

Gibson (1950) was also concerned with perception in everyday life, rather than the perception of laboratory diagrams or out-of-context situations. According to Neisser (1976), perception is a skilled activity that takes place over time, not a static, “snapshot” – like process.

It can be seen from the above that almost all the definitions point to the fact that perception is a process. It is a process in that it is on-going. It occurs over a period of time.

Factors that Influence Formation of Perception

In the 1950s, Bruner and his contemporaries performed a number of studies on perceptual set. Their findings marked the very beginning of what later became known as the cognitive revolution. Bruner and his contemporaries, and other psychologists who followed up this work, found that perception could be influenced by a variety of factors. These are cultural values, personal attitudes, expectation, and motivational states.

Cultural Values

Perceiving perspective-based drawings is a specific cultural skill, which is learned rather than automatic. People from several cultures world-wide seem to prefer drawings which do not show perspective but instead split so as to show both sides of objects at the same time (Deregowski, 1972). In one study, children and adults from traditional African backgrounds were shown to pictures of an elephant’s legs splayed out unrealistically. The participants in the study preferred the split drawing, even though to Western eyes it looked quite unrealistic.

Deregowski further indicated that this split-style representation is universal, and is even found in young European children, before they are taught not to draw that way. One possible explanation, which Deregowski suggested, was that such a style might allow for all the important characteristics of the object to be shown. The drawing would then be a way of representing someone's real experience of an object far more fully than a standard perspective drawing would.

Mundy-Castle (1966) performed a study on how traditional Ghanaian children interpreted line drawings. They were shown a series of sketches, each of which used only a limited number of depth cues: height in plane, superposition, and relative size. Each picture showed a man and a deer in the foreground, and an elephant in the background, and the pictures contained different combinations of these cues. Mundy-Castle established that the children's interpretations differed from those made by European children of the same ages (between five and ten years old). Mundy-Castle described these differences as "errors" in interpreting the drawing, but it was noticeable that they were generally of the same kind.

The studies by Deregowski and Mundy-Castle propose that culture plays an important role in the perception of an individual or about something.

Personal Attitudes

Allport (1954) explained a study which showed how prejudice could affect perception. The experimenters used a stereoscope, which is a device for presenting a separate picture to each eye at the same time. They showed research participants mixed-race pairs of individuals, with one member of each pair shown to each eye. In general, people were most definite when they were categorizing

people from other ethnic groups. But Afrikaners, who were noted for their racial prejudices, differentiated far more sharply between the races. They perceived subcategories or uncertainties in classifying people. Allport construed this as showing how the strongly racist views held by these people had affected their perceptions.

Expectation

Bugelski and Alampay (1961) conducted a study in which the participants in the research were shown either a series of animal pictures or a set of unrelated images – furniture, vehicles, and so on. When they were shown an ambiguous “rat man” figure, people were significantly more likely to perceive it as a rat than as a man if they experienced the prior exposure to animal pictures. Just seeing those figures had established an expectation that what would follow would be more of the same thing, and that expectation had directed how they would perceive the stimulus.

Bruner and Minturn (1955) showed how strongly expectation could influence perception. They began by showing people letters or numbers, one at a time. Then showed them an ambiguous figure which could be read either as a B or 13. According to Bruner and Minturn, the research participants who had seen numbers unequivocally judged the figures- to be a 13, while those who had seen letters previously saw it as a B. Moreover, when they were asked to reproduce what they had seen, their drawings showed no ambiguities: the gap in the figure was enlarged by those who believed it to be a 13, but those who believed it to be a B did not include any gap.

From the two studies it can be concluded that expectation influences perception to a large extent. This suggests that once an impression is created concerning an object or about something or somebody at the back of the mind it makes an ineradicable mark. The impression created affects an individual's perception about an object or someone either positively or negatively.

Motivation

Gilchrist and Nesberg (as cited by Hayes, 1998) asked people to rate pictures for brightness, and discovered that the longer they had gone without food, the brighter the food pictures were rated, even though the research participants' ratings of other picture showed no change.

Standford (as cited in Hayes, 1998) deprived research participants of food for various lengths of time up to four hours, and then showed them ambiguous pictures. Standford found that the longer the participants had been food-deprived, the more likely they were to interpret pictures as being something to do with food.

These studies, and others of the same kind, implied that internal motivational states, in this case starvation, could directly affect perception.

Values and Perceptual Defense

According to Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies (1948) sexual or other taboo words have higher recognition thresholds than ordinary words do. Their research participants were shown those words very quickly and they needed more microseconds to identify the taboo words than they did to identify neutral ones.

The researchers used a device known as a tachistoscope, which presents stimuli for very brief, but measurable, periods of time.

Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies (1948) argued that their findings were evidence for perceptual defense – the idea that our perceptual system tries to protect us against threatening or disturbing stimuli, by making them more difficult to identify. But Bitterman and Kniffin (1953) found that the time difference in recognition disappeared if people were allowed to write down their responses instead of saying them out loud.

The discussion continued until a study by Worthington (1969) indicated that perceptual defense did seem to be a real phenomenon. The research participants in this study were not asked to say any words at all. Instead, words were presented subliminally – so faintly that the research participants were entirely unaware of them. They were embedded in the centre of a dot light projected on to a screen. Dots were presented in pairs, and all the research participants had to do was to say which dot was brighter or dimmer, or whether they were both the same. Worthington established that the dots with taboo words embedded in them were systematically rated as being dimmer than those with neutral words, even though the participants in the study were not aware of having seen any words at all.

Carpenter, Wiener, and Carpenter (1956) asked people to complete sentences on sensitive topics, such as feelings of inadequacy, hospitality or sex. From this, the participants in the study were categorized as being either “sensitive” or “repressed” in those areas. They discovered that participants

showed differences in their reactions to stimuli: “sensitive people perceived taboo or disturbing words more easily than normal ones; while “repressed people perceived such word less readily. This study, too, suggests that personal differences in values and attitudes can influence perception strongly.

Theoretical Perspective of Leadership

The Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)

The Situational Leadership Theory was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) who classified most of the activities of leaders into two distinct behavioural dimensions: That is, initiation of structure and consideration of group members. They defined initiation of structure as the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what each follower is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. They defined consideration of group members as the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing emotional support and facilitating behaviours. The research has discovered that some people are strong in one area and neglect the other, others are well balanced and some neglect both leadership dimensions. It is, however, important to recognize the equal importance of all the roles within each dimension to optimal team or group management.

Fiedler’s Contingency Model

An Organizational Behaviourist, Fred Fiedler, developed a situational model of leadership. Fiedler’s (1967) model is based on the assumption that the performance of a leader depends on two interrelated factors: (a) the degree to

which the situation gives the leader control and influence- that is, the likelihood that the leader can successfully accomplish the job; and (b) the leader's basic motivation- that is, whether or not the leader's self-esteem depends primarily on accomplishing the task or on having close supportive relations with others (Krietner & Kinicki, 2001). With respect to a leader's basic motivation, Fiedler believes that leaders are either task motivated or relationship motivated.

According to Krietner and Kinicki, Fiedler's theory is also based on the premise that leaders have one dominant leadership style that is resistant to change. He suggested that leaders must learn to manipulate or influence the leadership situation in order to create a "match between their leadership style and the amount of control within the situation at hand."

For Shani and Lau (2000), Fiedler's Contingency Model has an aspect called situational control. This aspect, they say, has three components. These are: (a) leader-member relations which indicate the support and loyalty obtained from the work group; (b) task structure- the clarity with which critical task components (goals, materials, and standards of performance) are defined; and (c) position power- the degree of power bestowed by the organization to reward and punish subordinates.

Shani and Lau (2000) quoted Fiedler as saying that task-motivated leaders perform best in situations in which they have either very much or very little situational control whilst relationship-motivated leaders perform best in situations allowing them moderate control and influence. In leader-match training the individual's leadership style and situational control are identified, and the

individual is offered strategies for changing critical components of the situation rather than suggestions for modifying his or her personality. Sepic, Manar, and Fiedler (1982) also share the view that the contingency model assumes that manager's behaviours and personal characteristics are more difficult to change than is the work situation.

The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

The path-goal theory which focuses on the situations and leaders behaviours rather than on fixed traits of the leader was developed by Evans and House in the 1970s.

According to Moorhead and Griffin (1995), path-goal theory allows for the possibility of adapting leadership to the situation. Shani and Lau (2000) shared similar sentiment when they asserted that path-goal theory becomes increasingly complex when leadership enters the picture. The theory includes four leadership styles: directive leadership, which is similar to the Ohio State concept of initiating structure; participative leadership, which emphasizes consultation with the subordinate before decisions are made; supportive leadership which is similar to the concept of consideration; and achievement oriented leadership, where the leader is preoccupied with setting challenging goals for the work group. Shani and Lau (2000) further stated that path-goal theory suggests that leaders motivate subordinates to achieve high performance by showing them the path to reach valued goals or results. When the tasks along the way have been performed and the goals reached, rewards follow. The leader's role is to show a clear path and to help eliminate barriers to achievement of goals.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model of Leadership

Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of leadership was first proposed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton and later revised by Vroom and Arthur Jago (Moorhead & Griffin, 1995). The model attempts to prescribe a leadership style appropriate to a given situation. It also assumes that the same leader may display different leadership style. But the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model, according to Moorhead and Griffin, concerns itself with only a single aspect of leader behaviour: viz. subordinate participation in decision-making. The goals of the model are to protect the quality of the decision while ensuring acceptance of the decision by subordinates.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model assumes that the degree to which subordinates should be encouraged to participate in decision making depends on the characteristics of the situation. In other words, no one decision making process is best for all situations. After evaluating each of the problem attributes (characteristics of the problem or decision), the leader determines an appropriate decision style that specifies the amount of subordinate participation.

Vroom and Jago's (1988) expansion of the original model requires the use of a decision tree. The manager assesses the situation in terms of several variables. During the assessment, the manager provides yes or no answers to a series of questions. These answers guide the manager through the paths of the decision tree to a recommended course of action.

There are four trees: two for group-level decision and two for individual-level decision. One of each is for use when time is of the utmost importance and the

other for when time is less important and the manager wants instead to develop the subordinates' decision-making abilities. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model advocate that subordinates such as tutors and students should be encouraged to get involved in decision making. However, principals should ensure that they accept quality decisions from tutors and students that will best fit a particular situation.

Douglas McGregor's XY Theory

Douglas McGregor, an American social psychologist, proposed his famous X-Y theory in his 1960 book. 'The Human Side of Enterprise'. 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 X-Y theory remains central to organizational culture (Woollard, 2003).

McGregor's X-Y theory is a salutary and a simple reminder of the natural rules for managing people, which under the pressure of day-to-day business are all too easily forgotten (Woollard, 2003). Woollard quoted McGregor as saying that there are two fundamental approaches to managing people. Many managers tend towards Theory X, 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 appropriate 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 management” 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 attitude towards the manager’s decision. This shows that autocratic managers lose ground in the work place, making way for the 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 manager

Chapman (2001) outlines the characteristics of the X theory manager to include some, most or all of these: results-driven and deadline-driven to the exclusion of everything else, intolerant, issues deadlines and ultimatums, distant and detached, aloof and arrogant, elitist, short tempered, shouts, issues instructions and directions, edicts, issues threats to make people follow instructions, demands and 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. Chapman further outlined the following as being part of the characteristics of the X theory manager: does not thank or praise, withholds rewards and suppresses pay levels, scrutinizes expenditure to the point of false economy, seeks culprits for failures or shortfalls, seeks to apportion blame instead of focusing on learning from 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 delegation – but believes they delegate well, 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, and the “Consensual” leader who encourages group discussions and decisions which reflect the “consensus” of the group.

William Ouchi’s-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 mirrors 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). 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 co-operative 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, 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, and 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 do their jobs to their utmost ability, so long as management 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 the need for enabling the workers to become generalist, 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, and will be able to use Theory Z management theories effectively on the newer employees (Luthans, 1989).

Blake Mouton Managerial Grid

Balancing Task- and People-Oriented Leadership

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a popular framework for thinking about a leader's 'task versus person' orientation. Called the Managerial Grid, or Leadership Grid, it plots the degree of task-centeredness versus person-centeredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles.

The Managerial Grid is based on two behavioural dimensions:

1. **Concern for People** - This is the degree to which a leader considers the needs of team members, their interests, and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

2. **Concern for Production** - This is the degree to which a leader emphasizes concrete objectives, organizational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

Using the axis to plot leadership 'concerns for production' versus 'concerns for people', Blake and Mouton defined the following five leadership styles:

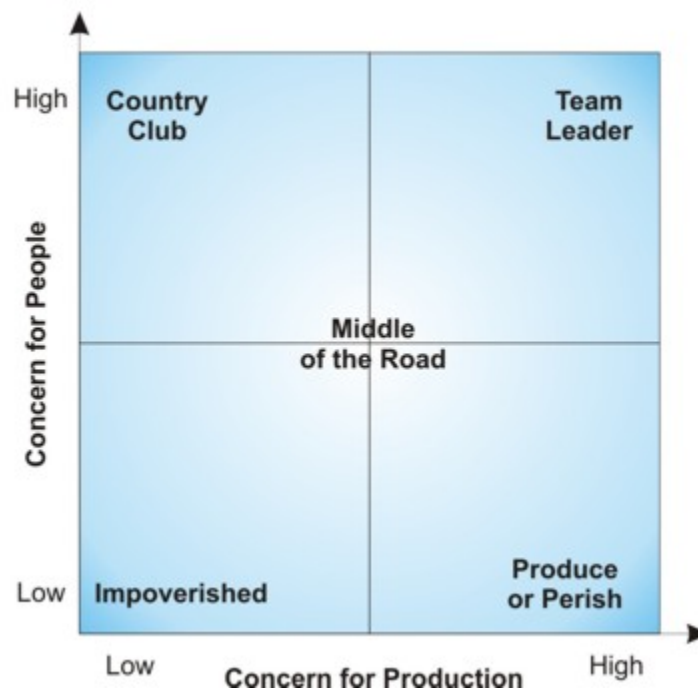


Figure 1: The Blake Mouton Grid

Country Club Leadership – High People or Low Production. This style of leader is most concerned about the needs and feelings of team members of his or her team. These people operate under the assumption that as long as team members are happy and secure then they will work hard. What tends to result is a work environment that is very relaxed and fun but where production suffers due to lack of direction and control.

Produce or Perish Leadership - High Production or Low People.

Also known as Authoritarian or Compliance Leaders, people in this category believe that employees are simply a means to an end. Employee needs are always secondary to the need for efficient and productive workplaces. This type of leader is very autocratic, has strict work rules, policies, and procedures, and views punishment as the most effective means to motivate employees.

Impoverished Leadership - Low Production or Low People.

This leader is mostly ineffective. He or she has neither a high regard for creating systems for getting the job done, nor for creating a work environment that is satisfying and motivating. The result is a place of disorganization, dissatisfaction and disharmony.

Middle-of-the-Road Leadership - Medium Production or Medium People.

This style seems to be a balance of the two competing concerns. It may at first appear to be an ideal compromise. Therein lies the problem, though: When you compromise, you necessarily give away a bit of each concern so that neither production nor people needs are fully met. Leaders who use this style settle for average performance and often believe that this is the most anyone can expect.

Team leadership – High Production or High People.

According to the Blake Mouton model, this is the pinnacle of managerial style.

These leaders stress production needs and the needs of the people equally highly.

The premise here is that employees are involved in understanding organizational purpose and determining production needs. When employees are committed to,

and have a stake in the organization's success, their needs and production needs coincide. This creates a team environment based on trust and respect, which leads to high satisfaction and motivation and, as a result, high production.

Contemporary Approach to Leadership

Since leadership is such an important area, managers and researchers continue to study it. As a result new ideas, theories, and perspectives are continuously being developed. One of such important models is the leader-member exchange model.

The Leader-Member Exchange Model

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model of leadership, conceived by George Graen and Fred Dansereau, stresses the importance of variable relationships between supervisors and each of their subordinates. Each superior-subordinate pair is referred to as a “vertical dyad.” The model differs from earlier approaches in that it focuses on the differential relationship leaders often establish with different subordinates (Moorhead & Griffin, 1995).

Krietner and Kinicki (2001) affirmed that the model suggests that supervisors establish a special relationship with a small number of trusted subordinates referred to as the “in-group.” The “in-group” usually receives special duties requiring responsibility and autonomy and may also receive special privileges. Subordinates who are not part of this group are called the “out-group,” and they receive less of the supervisor’s time and attention. The Leader-Member Exchange Model seems to suggest that principals need to establish a close

relationship with a few members of staff they can rely on not only in taking certain decisions but also executing certain responsibilities. These special responsibilities tend to attract special incentives or privileges. Meanwhile, there are no criteria for the selection of the in-group. Principals are likely to be biased in choosing only their favourites, and this, in turn, would tend to breed ill-feeling and enmity among the staff.

In support of this, Dunegan, Duchon, and Uhl-Bien (1992) asserted that early in his or her interaction with a given subordinate, the supervisor initiates either an “in-group” or “out-group” relationship. How a leader selects members of the “in-group” is not clear, but the decision may be based on personal compatibility and subordinates’ competence. Research has confirmed the existence of “in-groups” and “out-groups.” In addition, studies generally have found that “in-group” members have a higher level of performance and satisfaction than “out-group” members.

Behaviour and Behavioural Change

According to Gage and Beliner (1992), behaviour refers to some action, muscular or glandular, or combination of actions. They added that one kind of behaviour is verbal- our spoken actions. Gage and Beliner (1992) posited that behaviour change is a change in behaviour that occurs in the process of learning. They asserted that neither changes in physical characteristics such as height and weight do count as learning nor do changes in physical strength such as lifting ability and endurance, which occur as a result of physiological change in size of muscles or the efficiency of circulatory systems.

Hornby (1982) defined behaviour as a way of acting or conducting oneself. He explained that it could be said to be treatment shown towards others. Three relatively distinct theories have been put forth by behavioural psychologists to describe how learning takes place which influences behavioural change. These theories are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and reinforcement theories.

Classical Conditioning Theory

In a now-famous experiment, Pavlov (1927) rang a bell a few seconds before giving a dog some meat, a stimulus to which the dog responded by salivating profusely. After repeating this procedure many times, Pavlov found that the dog salivated upon hearing the bell alone, even if no food was given. The bell, in short, now had power to trigger certain behaviour (salivation) because the dog had learned an association between the bell and food (Wortman, Loftus & Marshall, 1992).

Wortman, Loftus, and Marshall (1992) reported that Watson took extreme position that all behaviour represents learned response to particular stimuli. He rejected the notion of innate differences in ability or temperament. He believed that by controlling environmental stimuli, he could shape a person's character in any way he wished.

Operant Conditioning Theory

According to Wortman, Loftus, Weaver, and Atkinson (2000), an American psychologist, Thorndike who was influential in developing behaviourist

thought conducted a series of studies with cats. In one classic experiment, a hungry cat was placed in a box from which it could escape if it pulled or pushed the right mechanism (a string or lever, for example) attached to the box's inside. Although the cat's first successful responses were largely a matter of chance, it gradually learned to perform the desired action as soon as it was placed in the box. This research emphasized the importance of rewards to learning new behaviour, because the cat received a tasty bit of fish when it found its way out. Thorndike summarized this relationship in the law of effect, a simple but powerful principle. The law of effect states that responses that lead to positive outcomes (which Thorndike called "satisfiers") are more likely to be repeated, while responses that lead to negative outcomes ("annoyers") are less likely to be repeated.

Reinforcement Theory

Another important theory which has a bearing on leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education is the Reinforcement Theory. Our environment is filled with positive and negative consequences (rewards) that mould our behaviour just as escape from the box moulded the behaviour of Thorndike's cat. Our friends and families control us with their approval or disapproval. Similarly, our employers control us by passing or failing us, thus permitting or denying us access to jobs. Positive or negative consequences shape our actions all through our lives. The distinctive patterns of behaviour each person develops are the product of all the many consequences that person has experienced (Wortman, Loftus, Weaver & Atkinson, 2000).

Empirical Studies on Leadership

Ewing (1989) found that school or college heads exhibit a predominantly high directive or supportive leadership style. This is also the style that most teachers prefer. School heads also rate their leadership effectiveness higher than do their faculty members. Steward (1982) revealed that the ideal leader should possess a higher degree of Consideration and Initiating Structure than the actual leader is rated as having. Both leaders and their subordinates held this opinion.

Palmer (1995) also studied the relationship between leadership styles and leadership effectiveness. He concluded that principals who use the leadership styles of selling and participating are perceived to be more effective than those using a telling or delegating leadership style.

Stogdill (as cited by Tiekou-Gyansah, 2000) examined one hundred and twenty-four studies on the relationship between leadership and personality factors. The following conclusions were arrived at and supported by uniformly positive evidence from 15 or more of the studies undertaken.

1. The average person who occupies a position of leadership exceeds the average member of his group in the following respects: socio-economic status, activity and social participation, scholarship, intelligence, and dependability in exercising responsibilities.

2. The qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a greater extent by the dictates of the situation in which he is to function as a leader.

The following conclusions are supported by uniformly positive evidence from 10 or more of the studies undertaken. The average person who occupies a position of

leadership exceeds the average member of his group to some degree in the following respect: sociability, initiative, persistence, knowing how to get things done, self confidence, alertness to and insight into situations, co-cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability, and verbal facility.

Graves (1982) concluded that leader behaviour is unrelated to leader effectiveness. Kraus (1988) also found that a leader who emphasizes consideration behaviour is more effective, more charismatic, and more responsible for group success in proportion to the degree to which leader's behaviour matches the participant's schema of an effective leader.

Ruiz (1995) examined the relationship between style and leadership effectiveness among Mexican-American principals in Northern California. The result of the study indicated that the predominant leadership style among elementary and college principals are high supportive and low directives.

A study conducted by Heck (1992) on instructional leadership behaviours of elementary and college principals in high-achieving and low-achieving schools and colleges sought to determine whether college performance could be predicted through examination behaviours. He surveyed principals on eight instructional leadership tasks: viz. makes regular classroom visits, promotes discussion of instructional issues, minimises class interruptions, emphasises test results, participates in discussion about how instruction affects achievement, ensures systematic monitoring of students progress, communicates instructional goals, and protects faculty from external pressures. The results disclosed that principals in high-achieving schools or colleges, as measured by academic achievement in a

variety of areas, are more effective leaders than their counterparts in consistently low-achieving schools or colleges.

Harrill (1990) who conducted a study that investigated competencies and skills needed by district level curriculum and instructional leaders, postulated that interpersonal communications, human relations, and management are the most important competency areas. Harrison (1993) in an investigation of effective principal preparation programmes, has similar findings. The research of Harrill (1990), Hutchison (1988), Jolly (1995), and Rouss (1992) also supported the premise that human relations and interpersonal skills are competencies needed for effective leadership.

When Kouzes and Posner (1995) asked 1,500 managers the values they look for and admire in their supervisors, the former answered integrity, being truthful and trustworthy, and having character and conviction. Kouzes and Posner concluded that honesty is absolutely essential to leadership. They added that if people are willing to follow someone, whether it is into battle or into the boardroom, they first wanted the assurance that the person was worthy of their trust. People want to know whether he or she is being truthful, ethical, and principled. They want to be fully confident in the integrity of their leaders.

Johnson (1991) disclosed that the mean scores of effectiveness of principals are highest on communicating with staff ($M = 4.0$), making decisions, fostering morale, and providing feedback ($M = 3.9$) each. Berkbuegler (1987) stated that factors of principal's leadership style and organizational structure do serve as predictors of principals' effectiveness.

There are a number of behaviours principals practice that can negatively or positively affect teacher morale and the climate of the school (Bulach, Boothe & Pickett, 1997). They stated that other factors that influence principals' behaviour are human relations, trust, instructional leadership and control, and conflict management. Practising the behaviours in the human relations domain is a very important leadership skill.

According to Sass (1989), interpersonal communication skills, human relations, and instructional leadership are the most important skills for educational leaders. This finding is based on the results of a survey that was sent to superintendents and professors of leadership training institutions across the United States. Many others who investigate competencies and skills critical for educational leaders have supported this finding.

Hogan, Raskin, and Fazzini (1990) investigated three types of flawed leadership. They found that individuals can possess well-developed social skills and attractive interpersonal styles yet still exhibit flawed leadership behaviours. Most of the shortcomings and mistakes school administrators make fall into the category of poor human relations. Bulach, Boothe, and Pickett (1997) asked 375 Georgia educators who were enrolled in graduate programmes to list and rank the types of mistakes their administrators make. Fifteen categories of mistakes were identified: poor human relations skills, poor interpersonal-communication skills, a lack of vision, failure to lead, avoidance of conflict, lack of knowledge about instructions or curriculum, a control orientation, lack of ethics or character, forgetting what it is like to be a teacher, inconsistency, showing favouritism,

failure to hold staff accountable, failure to follow through, snap judgments, and interrupting instruction with public-address-system announcements.

Bulach, Boothe, and Pickett (1997) found mistakes that can be subsumed under the category of poor human relations skills. Lack of trust and an uncaring attitude are two behaviours most frequently associated with this category of mistakes. These two behaviours tend to go together. That is, if a person perceives that the supervisor does not care, it is likely that trust will be absent. After all, why trust others when you believe they do not care about you?

Other mistakes associated with caring and trust are failure to circulate with staff, staying distant, not calling teachers by their names, failure to delegate, and failure to compliment staff. Generally, administrators who display these shortcomings have a very strong “task orientation” as opposed to a “people orientation.” Principals who are abrasive, arrogant, aggressive, uncaring, and inattentive to the needs of others are far more likely to lose their jobs (Davis, 1968). Such characteristics impede the development of support among teachers, parents, and community agencies. These qualities are interpreted as a lack of savvy and people skills. Behaviour of this nature leads to ineffective management of the diverse political demands of the job and failure to establish trust and confidence.

One final mistake in this category dealt with the ability to motivate staff. Teachers believe many administrators do not know how to motivate staff except through position, reward, and coercion. Leaders who attempt to motivate by exercising these forms of power tend to be task-oriented. Duignan (1990) focused

on mistakes of unsuccessful principals in Oregon. Seventy-three percent of responding superintendents have supervised a principal, whom they have to release, transfer, or “counsel out” of the principalship. Reasons cited for a lack of success are avoidance situation, lack of vision, poor administrative skills, and poor community relations.

In Greenfield’s (1999) study, in which he collected data from 507 superintendents in Ohio, respondents were asked to assess the impact of 23 deficiencies. These areas have been reduced by a factor analysis to a set of seven clusters. Significant negative relationships have been found between maintaining one’s position as a principal and deficiencies in the following cluster: “problem-solve or decision-making” and “delegating or monitoring.” Human relations and interpersonal communication skills are closely associated. Listening, caring, and trust are interrelated. Listening conveys a caring attitude, and caring is a building block for trust (Bulach, 1993). The ability to build trust is an essential human relations skill that facilitates interpersonal communication. Little attention, however, is given to these two areas in leadership preparation programmes.

Leadership assessments conducted at the State University of West Georgia’s Professional Development Centre revealed that the curriculum in the administrator preparation programme in the Department of Education Leadership and Foundations at the State University of West Georgia contained very little training in human relations or interpersonal relations skills. Since the assessment, a human relations seminar has been developed to address this weakness in the training programme (Bulach, Boothe & Pickett, 1997).

Data provided by teachers who participated in a study by Bulach, Boothe, and Pickett (1997) send a clear message that school administrators are making mistakes that could be avoided if they were aware of them. Also, this study provides evidence that the overall climate of a school is affected by the number of mistakes an administrator makes. As stated by Bulach (1993), “We need to learn from the pain and pitfalls encountered on the road to success.”(p. 12). Howell and Haggins (1990) cautioned against sweeping mistakes under the rug. Instead, they emphasise the importance of admitting one’s mistakes and moving on. Although acknowledging a poor decision is tough, the sooner it is done the better.

Davis (1968) offered six suggestions for avoiding career-ending mistakes: (a) evaluate and refine your interpersonal skills, (b) understand how you perceive the world around you, (c) don’t let your past successes become failures, (d) look for organizational indicators that your leadership may be faltering, (e) be assertive in developing a professional growth plan, and (f) recognise the handwriting on the wall by making the first move.

Asare (2006) examined the perceptions of tutors and students about the leadership behaviours of principals of teacher training colleges in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The results of the research indicated that the leadership behaviours of principals promoted good human relations, participatory decision making processes, delegation of authority, and good interpersonal communication skills. Seventy nine percent of the respondents perceived the leadership behaviours of principals as placing the colleges on a sound footing. However, the

findings indicated that the involvement of tutors in the area of planning of the colleges' budget was said to be minimal.

Cotton and Savard (1980) reviewed research conducted related to the effective leadership role and concluded that principals who demonstrate good leadership are characterized by frequent observation and/or participation in classroom instruction, clear communication to staff of expectations, related to the instructional programme, central involvement in decision making related to the instructional programme, active participation in planning and evaluating the instructional programme, and demonstrating high expectations for the instructional programme.

In an effort to establish the nature of leader behaviour, other studies have attempted to describe the activities at which principals spend their time. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) found that most of the principal's time is spent doing routine activities including problem solving, orienting, and building concerns. These findings are reflective of those of a study of principalship conducted by Hallinger and Heck (1996). Hallinger and Heck (1996) found that sixty-five percent of a principal's day is spent interacting directly with people.

The Model of Participation

Johnston and Germinario (1985) indicated that an administrator's ability to utilise teachers efficiently in the school's decision-making process might favourably influence their effective orientations toward the administrator and ultimately facilitate the achievement of organizational goals through informal means. They added that the teacher involvement in the college's decision-making

process can be viewed as a key link to various organizational and interpersonal phenomena. In particular, the teacher involvement has been linked to many affective responses of individuals within the organization.

Participation in decision making has long been a critical concern in organizational research (Miller & Monge, 1986). In recent times numerous recent contexts of current national reports have urged giving teachers real voice in decision making (National Governors' Association, 1986, p. 40) and for increasing participation in "school- site management" at the school level (National Education Association, 1988, p.79).

A dominant theme of this reform movement has been the development of collegial and participative decision-making procedures at the school level (Weiss, 1984). The focus on teacher involvement in decision making is not without historical precedent (Rice & Schneider, 1992). Educational researchers have long studied the effects of participative decision making (Conway, 1984; Rice & Schneider, 1992).

Bridges (1980) attempted to operationalise the determinants of teacher participation in the decision-making process. She suggested that teacher participation in decision making has desirable consequences when the principal involves teachers in making decisions, which are located out of their "zone of indifference." That is, a teacher is interested in participating if the decision is personally relevant.

Alutto and Belasco (1976) noted that much of the research has been based on the implicit assumption that the teachers have a desire to increase their

absolute involvement in all forms of decision making and that there is a direct relationship between increased teacher participation and improved educational outcomes.

Devolution of financial management to the school site recognizes the importance of participative decision making in educational organizations (Duignan, 1990). Duignan (1990) further, asserted that the level of participation in financial decision making need to be extended to the classroom teacher; otherwise school site financial management could be just another form of centralized control, with the principal at the “centre.”

However, in an attempt to establish a high level of teacher involvement in decision making and to promote an image of self- management, some schools have established administrative structures that, in effect, distract teachers from their primary instructional role (Robertson, 1993). Some teachers are required to attend many meetings such as budget committees, financial planning groups, and staff development committees. They are encouraged to be involved in a plethora of financial issues ranging from income generation to marketing and long-term financial planning.

Despite this wide range of apparent participation, in many cases teachers find that, while these committees create an illusion of involvement, they can actually impede any real teacher influence (Imber & Duke, 1984). While some teachers agree that, in some cases, the potential benefits of participation may outweigh the cost of their involvement, they (the teachers) feel that there is a little possibility of these potential benefits being actually achieved, unless their level of

participation is matched with a similar level of influence over the final decision outcomes (Duke, Showers & Imber, 1980).

Robertson (1993) observed that teachers often have an inherent dislike for financial matters. This dislike, he said, might stem from a lack of skills in the area, from a suspicion that teacher empowerment in financial decision making is merely an euphemism for budgetary cutbacks, from a conviction that such business matters intrude into teachers' professional time, or from an expectation that teachers will never be told the "full story" concerning the school's financial situation, among other possibilities (p.132).

Alutto and Belasco (1976) provided substantial evidence that teachers are not homogeneous in their desire for participation, and that teachers' desire for participation is related to age, sex, teaching level, employing organization, and seniority. Based on Alutto's and Belasco's (1976) research findings, teachers are classified within three decisional states. That is, deprived teachers want to be involved in the decision making process but are not; saturated teachers are involved in the decision making process than they would like; and, equilibrium teachers whose level of participation in decision making is equal to their desired level.

Lawler and Hackman (1975) and Alutto and Acito (1974) reported that decisional climate is a major factor influencing employee's satisfaction levels. Specifically, decisional deprived individuals are negative toward the employer, less committed to the job, experience greater job-related tensions, exhibit less interpersonal trust, and are less satisfied with their superiors.

Fundamentals of Effective Leader Behaviour

As the leader, the principal of the college should realize that there are group problems. The principal should not be blindfolded by the task of achieving the set goals and objectives of the college. The problems and difficulties that members of staff encounter should be noticed and addressed promptly. The difficulties may stem from lack of understanding on the part of the staff concerning the task they are to perform, lack of knowledge, skills or resources. Consequently, some members of staff may put up an apathetic or hostile attitude. The principal may find it extremely difficult to weld the staff members together as one body for high productivity (Rodney et al., in Tiekku-Gyansah, 2000).

Gorton and Snowden (1993) asserted that the bureaucracy in the educational system makes it difficult for the principal to address the difficulties that confront staff members. However, frantic efforts should be made in developing an understanding on the part of the staff with regard to the reasons they are in the institution and their potential contribution and roles. They add that the principal should make an attempt to demonstrate the ability to lead and express an appreciation of the participation and contribution of each staff member.

Johnson and Johnson (as cited in Gorton and Snowden, 1993) postulated that the key to developing co-operative interaction and cohesiveness in a group is the development and maintenance of a high level of trust among members of a group. That is, a college that has a high level of trust, and in which members express their feelings, ideas, opinions, concerns, and thoughts without any

reservation. Conversely, in a college that has a low level of trust, and in which its members tend to be evasive, competitive, defensive, and suspicious in their interaction with each other, cannot be cohesive.

Cohesiveness and trust can be deeply entrenched, if the principal becomes aware that not all leadership functions are to be performed by him. Some staff members can be trustworthy in performing a particular leadership function. The principal must, therefore, delegate authority to them. One of the most important leadership behaviours a principal should display is identifying and encouraging other members of staff to perform leadership functions, whenever necessary or appropriate (Sergiovanni, 1992).

To establish a productive college staff, it is extremely important that the principal blends task accomplishment behaviours with human relations behaviours. The disposition of the individual may dictate which of the two sides he may adhere to, but the fact remains that both sets of behaviour are equally important. The principal who devotes much attention into task accomplishment behaviour to the detriment of the feelings, emotions, and needs of the members will militate against accomplishing a task (Tieku-Gyansah, 2000).

On the contrary, the principal who lays much emphasis on the human relations behaviour, but does not give due attention to task accomplishment behaviour is likely to fail in his or her attempt to achieving set goals. Sergiovanni (1995) stated, “high teacher motivation to work and strong commitment to work are essential requirements for effective schooling” (p. 47). When these characteristics are absent, teachers are likely to consider their commitment as

being a “fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay...instead of exceeding of minimums and giving their best” (p. 60).

Effective leaders raise followers’ consciousness levels about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of achieving them. They also motivate followers to transcend their own immediate self-interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the organization. Followers’ confidence levels are raised and their needs broadened by the leader to support development to their highest potential. Such total engagement (emotional, intellectual and moral) encourages followers to develop and perform beyond expectations (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1992).

What is essential is that the principal should ensure that all members of the college community are committed to the aims and objectives enshrined in the college’s mission statement. One thing the principal should not gloss over is the fact that commitment cannot be got through command, but rather through encouragement. The role of the principal in developing the culture of the college is essentially important. This constitutes elements of effective leader behaviour.

The research literature on effective leadership has focused primarily on business settings. Bennis and Nanus (1985) in a five-year study involving interviews with 90 outstanding chief executive officers and leaders in public sector organizations, came to the realization that transformational leaders empower followers, thereby helping them to develop competences necessary to achieve organizational goals.

Leithwood (1994) described effective leadership as a series of behaviours that is designed to affect classroom instruction. In this environment, according to him, principals are responsible for informing teachers about new educational strategies, technologies, and tools that apply to effective instruction. Principals must also assist teachers in critiquing these tools to determine their applicability to the classroom. In his vision for improving colleges, Barth (1990) declared, “Show me a good school, and I’ll show you a good principal” (p.16).

For Foriska (1994), effective leadership can be seen as critical to the development and maintenance of an effective school or college. Instructional leaders must influence others to pair appropriate instructional practices with their best knowledge of the subject matter. The focus must always be on Student Active Teaching, and principals must supply teachers with resources and incentives to keep their focus on students.

Andrews and Soder (1987) described the effective leader as a principal performing at high levels in four areas: viz. as a resource provider, an instructional resource, a communicator, and one who is visibly present in the institutions.

As a resource provider, the principal takes action to marshal personnel and resources within the institution, district and community to achieve the vision and the goals of the college. These resources may be seen as materials, information, or opportunities, with the principal acting as a broker.

As an instructional resource, the principal sets expectations for continual improvement of the instructional programme and actively engaged in staff

development. Through this involvement, the principal participates in the improvement of classroom circumstances that enhance active teaching.

As a communicator, the principal models commitment to college goals, articulates a vision towards instructional goals and the means for integrating instructional planning and goal attainment, and sets and adheres to clear performance standards for instruction.

As one who is visibly present, the principal is out and around in the college, visiting classrooms, attending departmental meetings, walking on the veranda, and holding spontaneous conversations with staff and students.

Oneness among staff, according to Tiekku-Gyansah (2000), is the degree to which the members of a group are attracted to the group, are willing to take personal responsibility for its tasks, and are willing to engage in co-operative actions to achieve its goals. Staff trust is the extent to which the members of a group feel secure with each other. These factors are important elements for the effective function of a group.

According to Baron and Uhl (1995), effective leadership generally refers to the principal's role in providing direction, resources and support to staff members and students to improve teaching and learning. To execute this role effectively the principal must develop and practice relevant skills in instructional planning and organization, supervision, curriculum, and evaluation.

Walderman, Bass, and Yammarino (1989) demonstrated their support to this assertion through a regression analysis, which stated that transformational

factors augment the subordinate satisfaction, leader effectiveness, and willingness of subordinates to exert extra effort, which is attributed to transactional factors.

Geering (1980) stated that the principal is “pivotal” to the success of the school. In making decisions, establishing communication patterns, setting school climate, introducing innovations, supervising curriculum, maintaining physical facilities, and establishing good school-community relationships, it is the principal who is primarily responsible for teacher morale and for pupils’ performance.

Although an idealized view of the principalship is both impossible and inappropriate, there are some things that good principals know and do. First, good principals understand the importance of context for the performance of their roles. Second, good principals understand themselves- their values, skills, and knowledge. Third, good principals fulfill their roles in ways that focus on what is best for students (Hausman, Crow & Sperry, 2000).

According to Richardson (1990), the power for teachers to be of themselves, when combined with experience and a professional teaching culture, enables them to enrich the learning experiences of their students through, for example, self-constructed or self-discovered learning activities, through references to life lessons from their own experience, and through the teachers’ obvious excitement and commitment associated with various units of the curriculum.

Bass (1990), and Pierce and Newstrom (2000) also explained that leaders have a relatively high desire for achievement. The need for achievement is an important motive among effective leaders and even more important among

successful entrepreneurs. High achievers obtain satisfaction from successfully completing challenging tasks, attaining standards of excellence, and developing better ways of doing things. To work their way up to the top of the organization, leaders must have a desire to complete challenging assignments and projects. This also allows the leader to gain technical expertise, both through education and work experience, and to initiate and follow through with organizational changes.

According to Newmann and Wehlage (1995), structural changes in the school, when combined with certain human and social resources will enhance the school professional community which, in turn, elevates student achievement. Environmental intricacy appears to be significant for captivating judgments amongst children.

Leadership at the building level clearly influences student achievement and college effectiveness, but it has been difficult for researchers to directly link principals' attributes to academic growth. The principal's major duty is to help teachers to be responsive to the needs of students regardless of the constraints (Heck, 1993). For Pierce and Newstrom (2000), leaders are very ambitious about their work and careers and have a desire to get ahead. To advance, leaders actively take steps to demonstrate their drive and determination. Ambition impels leaders to set difficult, challenging goals for themselves, and their organizations. Effective leaders are more ambitious than non leaders. Conley (1989) postulated that effective leaders begin with the end in mind. This habit, he says, is the ability to see the big picture, know what is most important, and have a vision for where you want to be.

According to Kennedy (1999), an environmental educator, there is a direct correlation between students learning and the facilities that are meant to enhance and inspire learning.

Effective leaders are proactive. They make choices and take action that lead to change instead of just reacting to events or waiting for things to happen; that is, they show a high level of initiative. Instead of sitting “idle by or waiting for fate to smile upon them,” leaders need to “challenge the process”. Leaders are achievement-oriented, ambitious, energetic, tenacious, and proactive. These same qualities, however, may result in a manager who tries to accomplish everything alone, thereby failing to develop subordinate commitment and responsibility. Effective leaders must not only be full of drive and ambition, they must want to lead others (Pierce & Newstrom, 2000).

Effective superintendents are proactive and confront rather than avoid, anticipate instead of react to situations and circumstances. Successful superintendents prefer to deal with problems head-on -- to act on the situation rather than try to avoid it. (Crowson & Morris, 1990).

Effective principals also are proactive. They believe that “a successful leader is one who aims at something no one else can see and hits it” (p. 10). The school principals in their research “are continually alert for opportunities to make things happen and if the opportunities did not present themselves, they created them” (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980, p. 20-21).

They noted that effective principals do not merely accept all the rules and customs of their schools or districts; they always test “the limits in an effort to

change things that no one else believes can be changed” (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980, p. 23). Hoy, Tarter and Forsyth (1978) reported that teachers prefer principals to be proactive and warned that “principals who fear to take a stand, who hesitate to initiate structure lest they be accused of being authoritarian, are disadvantaged in leading their teachers; they are likely to lose respect” (p. 36).

Barnes and Kriger (1986) described the proactive activities of two superintendents they have studied. One has regularly scheduled meetings to discuss district problems; another superintendent meets with African-American and Anglo-American administrators to plan meetings for students, parents, and community members to prepare for an impending desegregation ruling in their district.

A major political role of a principal is the establishment of an effective community relations programme. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) described a triangular configuration for such programmes targets toward staff, students, and the public for the purposes of informing, gaining opinions, and involvement. In his triangle, the principal is depicted as providing leadership in establishing a school atmosphere, appearance, curriculum and co-curricular programme, and of involving faculty, students, parents, and community in a variety of ways including: weekly calendars; newsletters; letters to parents; school-wide events; parent meetings; students handbooks; staff handbooks; orientation of new teachers, students, and parents, as well as in-service for teachers and for parents.

Crownson and Morris (1990) reported that superintendents include methods for identifying emerging concerns and attitudes, they communicate with

different constituencies to “map out the terrain of opinions and preferences” (p.50). The strategy includes knowing the correct time an idea will be likely to gain acceptance.

English (1989) viewed the principal as a planner for community involvement in the school and concluded that without leadership by the principal, schools do not establish strong community relationships. Without good relationships based on the actual needs of students, schools do not get community support. She further suggested that there is a transactional relationship in school-community relationships.

Bartels (1979) identified several influencing factors related to the effectiveness of school-community relationships in inner-city schools. These include the principals’ role, school and district size, teacher attitudes, teacher behaviour, teacher integration, teacher transience, the instructional program, state and federal guidelines, resource allocations, parent attitudes, and socioeconomic factors.

Olsen and Sommer (1980) provided similar findings in that, when students are provided with a learning environment creatively designed to evoke a sense of commitment to learning, students become more involved and concerned about protecting the nice environment and resist the temptation to deface it.

Herbert (1998) minced no words by declaring that attractive, well-designed, and well-maintained facilities communicate a sense of respect for the activities housed within them. Therefore, the sense and appearance of a school affects children and is wholly intertwined with their attitudes and behaviour.

Leaders of change are proactive. They take the initiative, anticipate and recognize changes in their organizational environment, and begin to explore possible courses of action to respond to those changes. A leader continuously scans the environment noticing where change is needed. Leaders of educational change are proactive in their efforts to change and improve their schools and districts. They are always testing the limits in an effort to change things that no one else believes can be changed (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980).

They are proactive because they challenge the status quo of their organization to respond to changes that affect the organization's business. Often, these proactive school leaders are described as individuals who do not accept the rules, regulations, or traditions of their schools and districts to limit their change efforts (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980).

Educational leaders of change challenge the status quo of their school systems by questioning established procedures when they do not serve the needs of the students or their staff (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Crownson & Morris, 1990).

Leaders of change focus the organization away from maintaining the status quo to exploring various options of the organization's vision. Duignan's (1990) discussion of these leaders of change includes the skill to access the reality of the present and determine the gaps that exist. They guide the discussion of how continuing the organization's current way of operating will shortchange the organization and thus become advocates for a different vision.

Leaders of change recognize shifts in the environment and guide their organization to be responsive to those changes. They are aware of the realities of their environment and thus guide the organization to rethink the visions. This ability is described as organizational learning; “understanding the changes occurring in the external environment and then adapting beliefs and behaviour to be compatible with those changes” (p. 67). Leaders of educational change recognize paradigm shifts in areas such as curriculum issues, students’ needs, and state level policies (Barnes & Kriger, 1986). They also constantly scan their school or district community to notice where change is needed. They anticipate the changing needs of their students and take the initiative to identify the appropriate course of action.

Leaders of change recognize that the people in the organization are its greatest resource. Barnes and Kriger (1986) are of the opinion that to be able to lead change, the leader must believe without question that people are the most important asset of an organization. This characteristic has three dimensions. The first is the leader’s valuing the professional contributions of the staff, while the second is the leader’s ability to relate to people. The third dimension is fostering collaborative relationship.

Valuing people’s contributions to an organization differs from relating to people and building collaboration. The first acknowledges individuals’ skills and expertise, while the latter two involve interpersonal skills. Leaders of change not only include the contributions of employees in determining and realizing the vision but also have the interpersonal skills that help them relate with others and

develop collaborative relationships, foster environments and work processes to facilitate the organization's collective efforts, and address the needs of individuals as well as groups (Barnes & Kriger, 1986). Leaders of change trust the strength of others and value their efforts and contributions in the realization of the organization's vision.

Howell and Haggins (1990) have identified risk taking as one of the characteristics of successful change agents. With risk taking, they say, there must be a safety net and permission to fall, not necessarily fail. They have added that what others may perceive as failures are simply delays for a visionary principal. Pierce and Newstrom (2000) have articulated that self-confidence plays an important role in decision-making and in gaining others' trust. They have further said that if the leader is not sure of what decision to make, or expresses a high degree of doubt, then the followers are less likely to trust the leader and be committed to his vision.

Musaazi (1982) has postulated that Mary Parker Follet (1868 – 1933) is among the first people to recognize the importance of human factors in administration. He has the saying that the fundamental problem in all organizations is in developing and maintaining dynamic and harmonious relationships. According to him, despite Follet's work, the real breakthrough for the human relations approach to administration has occurred in the study experiment at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. The study has revealed that neither wage incentives alone nor change in physical working conditions (noise, light and amount of space) can explain the amount of

production in an organization. For Musaazi, administrators are expected to be sensitive to people, to develop social skills in working with people, as well as to be competent in technical aspects of their responsibilities.

According to Moorhead and Griffin (1995), Mary Parker Follet, believes that management should become more democratic in its dealings with employees. They have added that Follet has argued that organizations should strive harder to accommodate their employees' needs. Landy (1992) has reported that the roles of individuals, groups, and organizations are being either ignored altogether or given only minimal attention. Katzell and Austin (1992) confirmed that a few early writers and managers, however, recognized the importance of individual and social processes in organizations.

Psychologists Bennis and Nanus (1985) declared that power is a leader's currency, or the primary means through which the leader gets things done in the organization. A leader must want to gain the power to exercise influence over others. Also, power is an "expandable pie", not a fixed sum; effective leaders give power to others as a means of increasing their own power. They further asserted that effective leaders do not see power as something that is competed for but rather as something that can be created and distributed to followers without detracting from their own power.

Human relations and interpersonal communication skills are closely associated. Listening, caring, and trust are interrelated. Listening conveys a caring attitude, and caring is a building block for trust (Bulach, 1993). The ability to

build trust is an essential human relations skill that facilitates interpersonal communication.

Rebore (2001) identified six major foci for staff development of principals. These are instructional skills, management skills, human relations abilities, political and cultural awareness, leadership skills, and self-understanding. He concluded from an analysis of articles related to the principalship published in the NASSP Bulletin and the CCBC Notebook that the competencies needed by principals are those related to climate, public relations, staff personnel, instruction, planning, student personnel, and management.

In describing the tasks of principals, English (1989) identified ten specific roles: recruitment and selection of personnel for instruction; defining goals and objectives unique to the school; collecting, organizing, analyzing and interpreting data related to teacher performance; assigning instructional staff to optimize conditions for learning; relating the needs of students to the school system goals and legal requirements; recommending staff members for re-employment, promotion or dismissal; articulating goals and objectives for subunits within the school; establishing communication with the school constituency for the purpose of assessing needs and establishing broad instructional goals; communicate to the staff the feelings of the constituency; allocating time and space for instructional purposes.

Rosenblum, Seashore, and Rossmiller (1994) stressed the need for principals to be effective trainers as being important. Managers (1980) implied

that to be effective, principals must be knowledgeable about legal issues and added that the principal must possess effective people skills to be effective.

Barth (1990) identified the leadership role of a principal as idiosyncratic. He adds that it involves the working of individualization in the treatment of others, prioritizing problems, being patient, reducing fear, taking risks, and pursuing both interdependence and dependence.

Watson (1978) a major theorist in the management of educational change, examined the role of the principal in change efforts involving an innovation from outside the school. He concludes that the principal is a significant internal change agent and a crucial linkage agent for the school. The ability of a principal to help bring about change in schools is improved and strengthened by increasing contacts with educational systems and people external to the school.

Howell (1988) conducted a study and found that principals spend less than one-fifth of their work time on instruction-related activities and that the majority of their time is spent in administrative behaviour such as scheduling and student placement.

Hall and Hord (1987) identified 15 behaviours of principals that relate to their success as change facilitators. These are listed below:

1. They have a clear vision of short and long-range goals for the school.
2. They work intensely with brute persistence, to attain their vision.
3. Achievement and happiness of students is their first priority.
4. They have high expectations for students, teachers, and themselves.

5. They are actively involved in decision-making related to instructional and administrative affairs.
6. They attend to instructional objectives as well as instructional strategies and planning.
7. They collect information that keeps them well informed about the performance of their teachers.
8. They will involve teachers in decision-making but within the framework of established goals and expectations.
9. Directly or indirectly they provide for development of teachers' knowledge and skills.
10. They protect the school and faculty from unnecessary intrusion.
11. They will seek policy changes at the district level for the benefit of the school.
12. They give enthusiastic support for change.
13. They provide for the personal welfare of teachers.
14. They model the norms they want teachers to support.
15. They aggressively seek support for resources within and outside the school to foster goals of the school.

Townsend (1994) concluded that the principal's major duty is to help teachers be responsive to students needs regardless of the constraints.

Not only are principals managers of professional development in their schools, they are targets of professional development and must be aware of the need for them to model a positive professionally growing attitude. As part of a

holistic perspective of professional development, White (1995) suggested that the professional development needs for principals are somewhat different from those of teachers but are reflective of the same four major categories of development: Pre-service, curriculum related, jurisdiction related, and individual professional growth oriented.

Educational reforms either targeting the role of the principal or areas that have an influence on this role are increasingly common. Accompanying such interest in the principalship are concerns that principals are unlikely to be able to play the role demanded of them unless they have the appropriate knowledge, skills, attributes, and values required of reforming schools (Walker, Begley & Dimmock, 2000).

Hughes (1986) argued that beginning principals need a clear philosophy of education and knowledge of programming, personnel administration and budgeting. He noted that principals also need to have political skills.

In-service professional growth needs of principals centre on the curriculum of the school, the issues of the jurisdiction and their own professional interests. Responsibility for training principals once on the job lies both with the jurisdiction and with the principals themselves. Curriculum changes should be preceded by careful and systematic education of the principals relative to the nature of the change, the provision of the resources and the role they and their teachers are to play (Sergiovanni, 1995). Major changes in jurisdictional policy should be predicated upon their value to the individual, to the school, and to the jurisdiction.

The pre-service training provided for principals varies throughout Canada and the United States. In some provinces, New Brunswick for example, a principal's certificate is awarded upon completion of prescribed university courses at the post-graduate level. In Ontario, on the other hand, the Ministry of Education offers professional training courses for licensing purposes. In some jurisdictions, no training is required beyond basic teaching qualification for appointment to administrative posts. Although principals have historically been promoted from the rank of teachers, teaching ability alone is no longer deemed adequate training for the task (Weiss, 1984).

May (1973) discovered specific rewards, which could be utilized for secondary school administrators. The basis for his proposed study indicates that rewards similar to those desired by teachers would be suitable for principals.

Hall and Hord (1987) acknowledged that formal training of principals is a continuous process. They have recommended that universities have an obligation to develop and present pertinent workshops to practicing principals related to administrative technology and human relations skills. They established that continuous training is imperative. They recommended that a planned development programme for administrators is as important as one for teachers. The thrust of such a programme would be the identification of strengths and weaknesses and their remediation.

Hallinger and Heck (1998) in examining the nature of Saskatchewan school principals, concluded that a professionally alert principal with appropriate qualifications and experience, motivated to provide an excellence in education,

can have a profound impact on the programme of the schools. There is, however, little disagreement with the premise that additional education and experience of the appropriate nature, related to the role and responsibilities of principals, are significant in improving the quality of educational leadership in the schools.

Summary of Literature Review

This literature reviewed touched on theory of perception, factors that influence the formation of perception, theoretical perspectives of leadership, Blake Mouton managerial grid, contemporary approach to leadership, behaviour and behavioural change, empirical studies on leadership as well as fundamentals of effective leader behaviour. Perception is affected by a number of factors such as cultural values, personal attitudes, expectation and motivational states. Effective leadership is a series of behaviour that is designed to affect classroom instruction. Effective leadership is critical to the development and maintenance of an effective school or college. Behaviour is a way of conducting oneself or treatment shown towards others.

The implication of the issues covered by way of literature review helped the researcher to examine in detail the importance of subordinates' participation in decision-making process and the fundamentals of effective leaders' behaviour. It also afforded the researcher the opportunity to examine the various theories that describe how learning takes place to induce behavioural change. These theories are classical conditioning, operant conditioning and reinforcement in operant conditioning.

All in all, the current study comprehensively looks at perceptions held by tutors and students regarding leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education in the Central Region.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This study was intended to look at the perceptions of tutors and students about leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education in the Central Region of Ghana. In this chapter the research design, population, sample size, and sampling technique of the population are discussed. The chapter also looks at the instrument used, data collection procedure, and data analysis plan. The chapter also describes the pilot testing of instrument that was conducted before the main study.

Research Design

The study was a descriptive survey. Its main aim was to find out from tutors and students their perceptions of leadership behaviours. The 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 generalisations from the study of the sample. It is essentially cross-sectional (Best & Kahn, 1995).

Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) perceive the descriptive survey as a research design that attempts to describe existing situations without actually analysing 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 behaviour 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 Cooper and Schindler (2001), 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) have postulated that in descriptive survey, "how" questions address 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 inquires into private matters that people may not be completely truthful about. To offset these shortcomings, the wordings of the research instrument were subjected to scrutiny by my supervisors. These limitations notwithstanding, the researcher believed that this descriptive survey was the appropriate design for this study because:

1. It helped him make direct contact with tutors and students whose views were relevant for investigating perceptions about leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education.
2. It led to the drawing of useful and meaningful conclusions from the study.

Population

The target population for the study comprised all tutors and students in the colleges of education in the Central Region. Information provided by the Vice Principals of these colleges of education in a preliminary visit gave the data on the colleges in 2008/2009 academic year. Table 1 describes the number of colleges of education in the Central Region as well as the tutor, first, and second year student population.

Table 1

Colleges of Education in Central Region as well as Tutors and Students in the Colleges

Colleges of Education	Staff Population	Student Population
Foso College of Education	51	588
Komenda College of Education	42	530
Our Lady of Apostle College of Education, Cape Coast	61	532
Total	154	1650

Source: Field Data, 2009

Sample and Sampling Technique

Sampling involves the use of part of a larger population in a study. Ary, Jacob, and Razavich (1990) support the idea of Nwana (1981) when they said sampling is indispensable to the researcher. Usually, studies on sample produce quick answers, as a complete coverage may not offer substantial advantage over a sample survey. It also requires less labour since a small portion of the target

population is used. Sampling comes to our aid by enabling researchers to study a portion of the population rather than the entire population.

For the purpose of this study, which involved a large population size, a multi-stage sampling approach was used. Sarantakos (1998) asserts that this approach involves using more than one sampling technique to select the respondents. The researcher used both stratified random sampling technique and simple random sampling method to select tutor and student respondents respectively. The number of tutors and students selected from each of the selected colleges within the Central Region is presented in Table 2 of this chapter. The table is made up of the names of colleges and the number of tutors and students from each college of study.

Table 2
Selected Sample of Tutor and Student Population within the Colleges of Education in the Central Region

Name of colleges	Staff	Student
Foso College of Education	26	120
Komenda College of Education	24	108
Our Lady of Apostle College of Education, Cape Coast	27	102
Total	77	330

Source: Field Data, 2009

The total number of tutors in the colleges was 154 and that of the students was 1650. To ensure proportional and fair representation, the researcher chose half of the tutor population and one-fifth of the student population in each of the selected colleges. In the light of this, the sample for the study comprised 77 tutors and 330 students.

The overall total number of respondents for the study was four hundred and seven (407).

The determination of the sample size comes from the fact that the population for the study is quite homogeneous since all the tutors were tutors of colleges of education and all the students were students of the colleges of education all in the Central Region. According to Sarantakos (1998), in a homogeneous population with respect to the study object, a small sample may suffice. Within each college of education, the researcher stratified the tutors into male and female after which they were sampled using simple random sampling technique.

The students of the colleges were selected using simple random sampling technique. Here the researcher applied the lottery method by replacement to select the students. The names of the students in each of the colleges were written on pieces of papers of the same size and weight, and put in a bowl. It was reshuffled thoroughly and the students were then selected. When a name was picked and recorded it was put back in the bowl. When already recorded name was picked again it was put back without being recorded again. This was to allow equal chances for all.

Research Instrument

Instrument used in collecting data were questionnaires. The design was guided, to a large extent, by the materials acquired from the literature review. Items in the questionnaires were formulated using the research questions as a guide. The questionnaires were used to gather information from tutors and students in the colleges. (See Appendices A and B).

The questionnaires comprised close-ended items. The respondents were provided with a 4-point Likert 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 questionnaires were adopted because respondents for the study were literate. It was therefore assumed that they could read and understand the questions posed.

A summative model with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from one to four as described by Oppenheim (1966) was used to develop the questionnaires. Numbers were placed on the following as: Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2, Strongly Disagree = 1. According to Best and Kahn (1995), 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

The research instrument was pilot-tested in the Ashanti Region, precisely, at the Wesley College of Education to determine its validity and reliability before conducting the main study. The college was selected for the pilot-test because it shares similar characteristics with the colleges selected for the main study. In determining the reliability of the instruments, the researcher used the alpha coefficient approach frequently called the Cronbach alpha to calculate reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the questionnaires for tutors was .754 and that of the questionnaires for students was .787.

The researcher determined the validity of the instrument by consulting his supervisors who are competent and familiar with the purpose of the study to examine the items in order to judge whether they are adequate for measuring what they are suppose to measure and whether they are a representative sample of the behaviour domain under investigation. This then gave a reliable basis for using the instrument for the study. The instrument was re-structured where necessary for the final study.

In pilot testing the instrument, the researcher gathered the respondents and had them to respond to the items in the instrument individually and make comments about the whole study. Discussions were then made afterwards about the study in general. In a nut shell, the purpose of the pilot testing was to afford the researcher the opportunity to discover possible weaknesses, inadequacies, problems in all aspects of the research so that, they can be corrected before actual data collection of the main study took place.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher first obtained a letter of introduction from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast. This was sent to the Principals of the various colleges of education in the Central Region to formally ask for permission from their outfit in order to collect data for the study. The researcher personally visited the colleges in which the study was conducted and distributed the questionnaire to the respondents. At this stage, the researcher established the necessary rapport with the respondents and assured them of their confidentiality. Sample frame of those to be selected to respond to the questionnaires was checked and identification numbers were assigned to every respondent. This enabled the distribution of the questionnaires to be easy and faster. Questionnaires were gathered and collected immediately.

The rationale for the above approach was to ensure that all the target respondents were captured and all questionnaires retrieved.

Data Analysis Plan

Analysis of data was done with regard to the specific research questions posed for the study. In this regard, data analysis for each research question was done as follows. The researcher first of all edited the completed questionnaires to check for clarity of expression and accuracy. The researcher then grouped the responses by categorizing them. This was to ensure that the analysis of the data was done orderly. In analyzing the data, the researcher employed descriptive statistics of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16.0). The

questionnaires were analyzed taking cognizance of the fact that they were the basis for writing conclusions and recommendations. Frequency distribution tables and percentages were used for the analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The presentation and discussion are made in respect of the issues addressed by the research questions.

Research Question 1: What are tutors' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in Central Region?

This research question in essence, sought to find out how tutors felt about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education. To address this research question therefore, firstly, items in section B, thus questions 6 to 15 of the questionnaires for tutors were used. The responses to the questionnaires were categorized and put in the form of 'strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree'. Respondents were made to indicate by ticking the responses that spoke their minds. The responses of the tutors are depicted in Table 3.

Table 3 reveals that, majority of tutors 62 (80.5%) agreed that the principals had high desire for achievement. On the other hand 15 (19.5%) of the respondents disagreed. This finding affirms the assertions of Bass (1990), and Pierce and Newstrom (2000) that leaders have a relatively high desire for achievement, the need for achievement is an important motive among effective leaders, and even more important among successful entrepreneurs.

Table 3**Tutors' Perceptions about Leadership Behaviours of Principals**

Principals' Leadership Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have high desire for achievement	37	48.0	25	32.5	9	11.7	6	7.8
Very ambitious about their works or careers and have desire to get ahead	33	42.9	28	36.3	13	16.9	3	3.9
Can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems	14	18.2	34	44.1	18	23.4	11	14.3
Correct subordinates in privacy rather than in front of others	4	5.2	24	31.2	32	41.5	17	22.1
Allow student leaders to be selected by popular choice	24	31.2	36	46.7	11	14.3	6	7.8

Table 3 Continued

Principals' Leadership Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Take the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students	7	9.1	37	48.0	24	31.2	9	11.7
Assign staff to particular tasks	30	39.0	25	32.5	16	20.7	6	7.8
Delegate work to tutors	18	23.4	34	44.1	18	23.4	7	9.1
Communicate information to tutors through staff meetings	30	39.0	36	46.7	8	10.4	3	3.9
Communicate information directly to students during college gathering	33	42.9	34	44.1	5	6.5	5	6.5

On the issue of whether principals were ambitious about their careers and had the desire to get ahead, 61 (79.2%) of the tutors agreed that principals were ambitious while 16 (20.8%) disagreed that principals were ambitious. The assertions by Pierce and Newstrom (2000) have been confirmed. They asserted that leaders are ambitious about their work and careers and have a desire to get ahead. They said ambition impels leaders to set difficult, challenging goals for themselves and their organizations and that effective leaders are more ambitious than non leaders.

Out of the 77 tutor respondents 48 (62.3%) agreed that principals were approachable to subordinates who had personal problems while 29 (37.7%) disagreed that principals were approachable. Rodney et al., (as cited in Tiekugyansah, 2000) postulated that as a leader, the principal of the college should realize that there are individual problems. They said the problems and difficulties that members of staff encounter should be noticed and addressed promptly to ensure high productivity in the college. Harill (1990) who conducted a study that investigated competencies and skills needed by district level curriculum and instructional leaders, postulated that interpersonal communications, human relations, and management are the most important competency areas.

On the question of whether principals corrected subordinates in privacy, 28 (36.4%) of the respondents agreed that principals corrected them in privacy while 49 (63.6%) disagreed that principals corrected them in privacy.

Out of the 77 respondents who answered the question 60 (77.9%) of them agreed that principals allowed student leaders to be selected by popular choice. On this

issue 17 (22.1%) of the respondents on the other hand disagreed that principals allowed student leaders to be selected by popular choice. This finding substantiates the assertion by Mary Parker Follet (as cited in Moorhead & Griffin, 1995) that management should become more democratic in its dealings with employees.

In another development, 44 (57.1%) of tutor respondents agreed to the assertion that principals took the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students while 33 (42.9%) of them disagreed to it.

On the issue of whether principals assigned staff to particular tasks 55 (71.5%) of respondents agreed that principals assigned staff to particular task while 22 (28.5%) disagreed to the issue.

In a related development, a question was posed to elicit the views of tutors in relation to the delegation of work by principals to them. It came to light that 52 (67.5%) of the tutors agreed that principals delegated work to them. On the contrary, 25 (32.5%) of the respondents disagreed that principals delegated work to them. According to Sergiovanni (1992), one of the most important leadership behaviours a principal should display is identifying and encouraging other members of staff to perform leadership functions, whenever necessary or appropriate.

Additionally, 66 (85.7%) of the tutors agreed that principals communicated information to them through staff meetings. On the other hand, only 11 (14.3%) of the respondents disagreed.

From the follow up question, principals were noted to communicate information directly to students during colleges' gatherings. The table indicates the responses of tutors as follows: 67 (87.0%) agreed and 10 (13.0%) disagreed. Andrew and Soder (1987) described the effective leader as a principal performing at high levels in four areas viz. as a resource provider, an instructional resource, a communicator, and one who is visibly present in the institution. They said as a communicator, the principal models commitment to college goals, articulates vision toward instructional goals and the means for integrating instructional planning and goal attainment, and sets, and adheres to clear performance standards for instruction.

The majority of the tutors representing 54 (70.5%) agreed to nine, out of the ten questions posed. On the contrary, 49 (63.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals reprimanded them in front of others. Also, 33 (42.9%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not take the views of students before making decisions affecting the students. Furthermore, 29 (37.7%) of tutors revealed that principals were not approachable to tutors who had personal problems.

Research Question 2

What are students' perceptions about the leadership behaviours of principals of the colleges of education in the Central Region?

This section deals with how students felt about the leadership behaviours of principals in the colleges of education. To this end, 9 questions or items were designed in the research questionnaires for students in the three colleges of

education in the Central Region. The data gathered and analysed are presented in Table 4.

Table 4**Students' Perceptions about Leadership Behaviours of Principals**

Principals' Leadership Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have high desire for achievement	237	71.9	80	24.2	3	0.9	10	3.0
Very ambitious about their works or careers and have desire to get ahead	197	59.7	111	33.7	15	4.5	7	2.1
Can easily be approached by students with their personal problems	94	28.5	104	31.5	69	20.9	63	19.1
Correct students in privacy rather than in front of others	39	11.8	103	31.2	92	27.9	96	29.1
Allow student leaders to be selected by popular choice	149	45.2	114	34.5	30	9.1	37	11.2

Table 4 Continued

Principals' Leadership Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Take the views of students into consideration								
in arriving at final decisions affecting students	107	32.5	113	34.2	39	11.8	71	21.5
Assign students to particular tasks	103	31.2	175	53.1	39	11.8	13	3.9
Delegate work to student leaders	115	34.8	170	51.6	29	8.8	16	4.8
Communicate information directly to students								
during college gatherings	231	70.1	76	23.0	15	4.5	8	2.4

It can be inferred from Table 4 that, when students were asked to indicate whether or not principals had high desire for achievement, 317 (96.1%) of the respondents agreed that principals had high desire for achievement whilst 13 (3.9%) of them disagreed. This finding affirms the assertions of Bass (1990), and Pierce and Newstrom (2000) that leaders have a relatively high desire for achievement, the need for achievement is an important motive among effective leaders and even more important among successful entrepreneurs.

Table 4 also brought to light the fact that principals were very ambitious about their works or careers and had the desire to get ahead. The responses are 308 (93.4%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion while 22 (6.6%) of them disagreed to it. The assertions by Pierce and Newstrom (2000) have been confirmed again. They asserted that leaders are ambitious about their work and careers and have a desire to get ahead. They said ambition impels leaders to set difficult, challenging goals for themselves and their organizations, and that effective leaders are more ambitious than non leaders.

With respect to whether or not principals were approachable to students who had personal problems, the responses indicate that 198 (60.0%) of student respondents agreed that principals were approachable while 132 (40.0%) disagreed that principals were approachable. As Sass (1989) expounded, interpersonal communication skills, human relation skills, and instructional leadership are the most important skills for educational leaders.

On the issue of whether principals corrected students in privacy 142 (43.0%) of respondents agreed that principals did that. However, 188 (57.0%) disagreed that principals corrected them in privacy.

Out of the 330 student respondents, 263 (79.7%) of them agreed that principals allowed student leaders to be selected by popular choice. Those who disagreed to the assertion constituted 67 (20.3%). This finding confirms the assertion by Mary Parker Follet (as cited in Moorhead & Griffin, 1995) that management should become more democratic in its dealings with employees.

Students were asked to indicate whether principals took their views into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting them. In response 220 (66.7%) of the respondents agreed that principals took their views before arriving at final decisions affecting them. On the contrary, 110 (33.3%) disagreed that principals took their views before making final decision affecting them.

On the assertion that principals assigned students to particular tasks 278 (84.3%) of respondents agreed that principals assigned them particular tasks. Conversely, 52 (15.7%) of respondents disagreed to the assertion.

Delegation of work to student leaders by the principals attracted the following responses: 285 (86.4%) agree and 45 (13.6%) disagree. The results of this are in agreement with Sergiovanni (1992) that one of the most important leadership behaviours a principal should display is identifying and encouraging other members of staff to perform leadership functions, whenever necessary or appropriate.

To crown it all, the last question that was asked sought to find out from students whether principals communicated information directly to them during colleges' gatherings. In response to this question 307 (93.1%) of the respondents agreed that principals communicated information directly to them while 23 (6.9%) of them disagreed. This result confirms the assertion by Sass (1989) that interpersonal communication skills, human relation skills, and instructional leadership are the most important skills for educational leaders.

From the analysis, it can be concluded that majority of the students representing 257 (78.0%) agreed to eight, out of the nine items. On the other hand, 132 (40.0%) of the student respondents indicated that principals were not approachable. Also, 188 (57.0%) of the student respondents pointed out to the fact that principals rebuked them publicly. In addition, 110 (33.3%) of the students indicated that principals did not take their views before arriving at final decisions affecting them. These perceptions of students go to affirm the perceptions held by tutors under research question one.

Research Question 3

In what ways do the Administrative behaviours of the Principals affect the Management of the Colleges of Education?

In essence, this research question sought to find out the views of tutors and students about how administrative behaviours of principals affected the management of the colleges of education. Table 5 contains detailed information about how tutors perceived the administrative behaviours of principals.

Table 5**Tutors' Perceptions on Administrative Behaviours and Management of Colleges**

Principals' Administrative Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Prepare up-to-date job description for all staff`	12	15.5	33	42.9	25	32.5	7	9.1
Assign roles, responsibilities, and duties to staff	18	23.4	37	48.0	19	24.7	3	3.9
Arrange for the appointment of new staff	21	27.3	38	49.3	15	19.5	3	3.9
Induct or give orientation to new tutors	15	19.5	31	40.3	17	22.0	14	18.2
Induct or give orientation to new students	35	45.5	29	37.6	9	11.7	4	5.2
Communicate regularly by the most appropriate means, to staff about colleges' programmes	19	24.7	35	45.4	15	19.5	8	10.4
Ensure presence and punctuality of staff	31	40.3	35	45.4	9	11.7	2	2.6

Table 5 Continued

Principals' Administrative Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Analyse examination results	36	46.8	32	41.5	6	7.8	3	3.9
Review the performance of the college in all in-class and out-of-class activities	25	32.5	42	54.5	7	9.1	3	3.9
Set performance targets for the colleges as a whole	27	35.1	30	39.0	17	22.0	3	3.9

The data in Table 5 shows that 45 (58.4%) of the tutor respondents agreed that principals prepared up-to-date job description for all staff in the colleges of education in the Central Region. On the other hand, 32 (41.6%) of the tutors disagreed that principals prepared up-to-date job description for them. The response to this confirms the assertion by Shani and Lau (2000) that path-goal theory suggests that leaders motivate subordinates to achieve high performance by showing them the path to reach valued goals or results. They said the leader's role is to show a clear path and to help eliminate barriers to achievement of goals.

With the question of whether the principals assigned roles, responsibilities, and duties to staff, majority of the respondents 55 (71.4%) indicated they agreed, whilst 22 (28.6%) indicated they disagreed. Barnes and Kriger (1986) said leaders of change trust the strength of others and value their efforts and contributions in the realization of the organization's vision. As regards the arrangement for the appointment of new staff by principals, 59 (76.6%) out of total of 77 tutor respondents agreed to the statement. Only 18 (23.4%) respondents disagreed to the statement. According to English (1989) one of the ten specific tasks of principals is recruitment and selection of personnel for instruction.

On the issue of whether principals inducted or gave orientation to new tutors, the responses indicate that 46 (59.8%) agreed to the issue whereas 31 (40.2%) indicated they disagreed. Majority of the tutors 64 (83.1%) also agreed to the assertion that principals inducted or gave orientation to new students. Those

who disagreed to the assertion constituted 13 (16.9%). The results of these are in conformity with Blumberg and

Greenfield (1986) that one of the functions of an effective leader is orientation of new teachers, students, and parents.

The data in Table 4 also reveals that 54 (70.1%) of the respondents agreed that principals communicated regularly by the most appropriate means, to staff about colleges' programmes. Only 23 (29.9%) disagreed to the issue. This is in agreement with Leithwood (1994) that principals are responsible for informing teachers about new educational strategies, technologies and tools that apply to effective instruction.

In another development, tutors were asked whether principals ensured presence and punctuality of staff. The responses show that majority of respondents 66 (85.7%) indicated they agreed while 11 (14.3%) of the respondents disagreed.

With respect to analyses of examination results by principals, 68 (88.3%) of respondents agreed that principals analysed examination results whilst 9 (11.7%) of the respondents disagreed that principals analysed examination results.

Again, tutors were asked to indicate whether principals reviewed the performance of the college in all in-class and out-of-class activities. In response to this item 67 (87.0%) of the respondents agreed to the issue. Ten (13.0%) of the respondents, however, disagreed.

Furthermore, a question was posed to elicit the views of tutors in relation to whether principals set performance targets for the colleges as a whole. It came to light that 57 (74.1%) of respondents indicated agreed. On the contrary, 20 (25.9%) of respondents indicated they disagreed. This is in agreement with Shani

and Lau (2000) that one of the four leadership styles of a leader is achievement leadership style, where the leader is preoccupied with setting challenging goals for the work group.

In all, a majority of the tutors representing 58 (75.5%) agreed to the questions posed. On the other hand, 32 (41.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not prepare job description for them. Additionally, 31 (40.2%) of the tutor respondents pointed towards the fact that principals did not induct or give them (tutors) orientation.

In order to answer research question 3 more extensively, students were also asked questions on how they perceived the administrative behaviours of principals to be affecting management of colleges of education.

In all, 330 students responded to the questions and their responses are seen in Table 6.

Table 6**Students' Perceptions on Administrative Behaviours and Management of Colleges**

Principals' Administrative Behaviours	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Assign roles, responsibilities, and duties to students	125	37.9	153	46.4	37	11.2	15	4.5
Induct or give orientation to new students	250	75.8	62	18.8	8	2.4	10	3.0
Communicate regularly by the most appropriate means, to students about colleges' programmes	163	49.3	118	35.8	32	9.7	17	5.2
Ensure presence and punctuality of students	233	70.6	84	25.5	11	3.3	2	0.6
Conduct a full appraisal of all staff	149	45.2	150	45.4	21	6.4	10	3.0
Take stock and physically check the stores and equipment of the colleges	115	34.8	152	46.1	30	9.1	33	10.0
Analyse examination results	225	68.2	86	26.1	9	2.7	10	3.0
Review the performance of the colleges in all in-class and out-of-class activities	171	51.8	127	38.5	20	6.1	12	3.6
Set performance targets for the colleges as a whole	214	64.9	94	28.5	16	4.8	6	1.8

It can be inferred from Table 6 that when students were asked whether principals assigned roles, responsibilities, and duties to them, 278 (84.3%) of the respondents indicated agreed. However, 52 (15.7%) indicated disagreed. According to Barnes and Kriger (1986) leaders of change trust the strength of others and value their efforts and contributions in the realization of the organization's vision.

Majority of the student respondents 312 (94.6%) agreed to the assertion that principals inducted or gave orientation to new students while 18 (5.4%) of them disagreed to the assertion. This confirms the assertion of Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) that one of the functions of an effective leader is orientation of new teachers, students, and parents.

Additionally, 281 (85.1%) of the student respondents agreed that principals communicated regularly by most appropriate means to them about colleges' programmes while 49 (14.9%) of them disagreed to that assertion.

With the question of whether principals ensured presence and punctuality of students, the majority of the respondents 317 (96.1%) stated that they agreed, whilst 13 (3.9%) of the respondents disagreed.

Furthermore, 299 (90.6%) of the student respondents agreed to the assertion that principals conducted a full appraisal of all staff while 31 (9.4%) of the respondents disagreed to the assertion that principals conducted a full appraisal of all staff. English (1989) posited that one of the ten specific tasks of

principals is collecting, organizing, analysing, and interpreting data related to teacher performance.

Again, students were asked to indicate whether principals took stock and physically checked the stores and equipment of the colleges. In response to this item, 267 (80.9%) of the respondents agreed that principals took stock and physically checked the stores and equipment of the colleges while 63 (19.1%) of the respondents disagreed.

According to the table 311 (94.3%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that principals analysed examination results. On the other hand, 19 (5.7%) of them disagreed.

Out of the 330 student respondents who answered the question 298 (90.3%) of them agreed that principals reviewed the performance of the colleges in all in-class and out-of-class activities. On the contrary 32 (9.7%) of the respondents disagreed.

Responding to the question of whether principals set performance targets for the colleges as a whole, 308 (93.4%) of the respondents agreed that principals set performance targets for the colleges. On the other hand 22 (6.6%) of respondents disagreed. The result of this is also in tune with the opinions of Shani and Lau (2000) that one of the four leadership styles of a leader is achievement leadership style, where the leader is preoccupied with setting challenging goals for the work group.

Conclusion can be drawn that, the majority of the students representing 297 (89.9%) agreed to the questions posed. The implication is that the students felt that principals of the colleges of education exhibited good, appropriate, and effective administrative behaviours, which had impacted positively on the management of their institutions.

Research Question 4

To what extent do principals involve tutors in the management of the colleges of education in the Central Region?

The purpose of this research question is to bring to light whether or not principals involved tutors in the management of the colleges of education. Table 7 shows full details about this.

Table 7**Extent to which Principals Involve Tutors in the Management of Colleges of Education**

Extent to which principals involve tutors	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Involve staff in decision-making process	12	15.5	31	40.3	21	27.3	13	16.9
Accept and implement suggestions made by tutors	10	13.0	27	35.1	28	36.4	12	15.5
Convene regular meetings with the staff	25	32.5	36	46.7	13	16.9	3	3.9
Lay bare college matters at staff meetings for discussion and adoption	16	20.8	36	46.7	17	22.1	8	10.4
Welcome tutors' opinions on effecting changes	8	10.4	31	40.2	27	35.1	11	14.3
Give tutors freedom to select appropriate textbooks	16	20.8	40	51.9	8	10.4	13	16.9
Empower tutors to choose their own teaching methods	19	24.7	47	61.0	6	7.8	5	6.5
Allow tutors to make classroom disciplinary policies	13	16.9	45	58.4	14	18.2	5	6.5

Table 7 Continued

Extent to which principals involve tutors	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Allow tutors to participate in planning new projects for the college	8	10.4	38	49.3	20	26.0	11	14.3
Involve tutors in planning colleges' budget	3	3.9	15	19.5	29	37.6	30	39.0

As shown in Table 7, 43 (55.8%) of the respondents agreed to the statement that principals involved staff in decision-making process. On the other hand, 34 (44.2%) of respondents disagreed. This has confirmed a study by Johnston and Germinario (1985) which indicated that an administrator's ability to utilize teachers efficiently in the school's decision-making process might favourably influence their effective orientation toward the administrator and ultimately facilitate the achievements of organizational goals through informal means. They added that teacher involvement in the college's decision-making process can be viewed as a key link to various organizational and interpersonal phenomena.

In response to the question of whether principals accepted and implemented suggestions made by tutors, 37 (48.1%) of respondents agreed that principals accepted and implemented suggestions made by them while majority of the tutor respondents 40 (51.9%) disagreed. This is contrary to the stand of Shani and Lau (2000) that one of the leadership styles of path-goal theory is participative leadership which emphasizes consultation with subordinates before decisions are made.

Moreover, 61 (79.2%) of the respondents agreed to the statement that principals convened regular meetings with the staff while 16 (20.8%) of them disagreed to the statement.

On the question of whether principals laid bare colleges' matters at staff meetings for discussions and adoption, 52 (67.5%) of respondents agreed that principals laid bare colleges' matters at staff meetings for discussions and

adoption. However, 25 (32.5%) of respondents disagreed. The response to this confirms the identification of Shani and Lau (2000) that as a leader, he or she should exhibit participative leadership style, which emphasizes consultation with subordinates before decisions are made.

Furthermore, 39 (50.6%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that principals welcomed tutors opinions on effecting changes. Those who disagreed to the assertion constituted 38 (49.4%).

Out of the 77 tutor respondents, 56 (72.7%) of them agreed that principals gave tutors freedom to select appropriate textbooks. On the other hand, 21 (27.3%) disagreed that principals gave them freedom to select appropriate textbooks.

Regarding the statement that principals had empowered tutors to choose their own teaching methods, 66 (85.7%) of the respondents agreed that principals had empowered them to choose their own teaching methods. On the contrary, 11 (14.3%) of the respondents were not of that school of thought.

On the issue of whether principals allowed tutors to make classroom disciplinary policies, 58 (75.3%) of respondents agreed that principals allowed them to make classroom disciplinary policies. On the other hand, 19 (24.7%) disagreed to the issue. From Table 7, 46 (59.7%) of the tutors agreed that principals allowed them to participate in planning new projects for the colleges. However, 31 (40.3%) of them disagreed to the statement. Palmer (1995) studied the relationship between leadership styles and leadership effectiveness. He concluded that principals who use the leadership styles of selling and participating

are perceived to be more effective than those using telling or delegating leadership style.

Concerning principals involving tutors in planning colleges' budgets, 18 (23.4%) of the respondents agreed that principals involved them in planning colleges' budgets while 59 (76.6%) disagreed that principals involved them in planning colleges' budgets. This finding runs contrary to the assertion by Duignan (1990) that the level of participation in financial decision making needs to be extended to the classroom teacher; otherwise school site financial management could be just another form of centralized control, with the principal at the "centre".

Generally, it is clear that the majority 48 (61.8%) of the tutors felt that principals of the colleges of education involved them in the management of the colleges. On the contrary, 34 (44.2%) of the tutors revealed that principals did not involve them in decision-making process. Also, 40 (51.9%) of tutor respondents indicated that principals neither accepted nor implemented their suggestions. Additionally, 38 (49.4%) of the tutors declared that principals had ignored their opinions on effecting changes. Furthermore, 31 (40.3%) of the tutor respondents asserted that principals had never ensured their participation in planning new projects for the colleges. Moreover, majority 59 (76.6%) of the tutors stated that principals did not involve them in planning colleges' budget.

Research Question 5

What attempts have Principals of Colleges of Education in the Central Region made to effect Desirable Changes in their Institutions?

This research question in essence, sought to find out the views of both tutor and student respondents about attempts made by principals of colleges of education to effect desirable changes in their various institutions. The detailed responses from both tutor and student respondents are contained in Table 8 and Table 9 respectively.

Table 8**Tutors' Perceptions on Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes in the Colleges**

Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competences of students	19	24.7	41	53.2	13	16.9	4	5.2
Have provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the colleges	7	9.1	51	66.2	16	20.8	3	3.9
Have provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members in the colleges	4	5.2	24	31.2	33	42.8	16	20.8
Have provided appropriate resources, which will maximize students' achievements	8	10.4	39	50.6	26	33.8	4	5.2
Have established close ties between the colleges and the communities	7	9.0	31	40.3	31	40.3	8	10.4

Table 8 continued

Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities	21	27.3	34	44.2	12	15.5	10	13.0
Have established a congenial climate for learning	14	18.2	40	51.9	15	19.5	8	10.4
Have established the use of appropriate instructional strategies	13	16.9	44	57.1	14	18.2	6	7.8
Have introduced valid and reliable performance indicators	10	13.0	42	54.5	20	26.0	5	6.5
Have injected new ideas into co-curricular activities (e.g., sports)	14	18.2	31	40.2	22	28.6	10	13.0

From Table 8, it comes to light that, when tutors were asked whether principals initiated steps to bring about improvement in academic and professional competences of students, 60 (77.9%) of respondents indicated agree whilst 17 (22.1%) of them indicated disagree.

Again, 58 (75.3%) of the tutors agreed to the statement that principals provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the colleges. On the contrary, 19 (24.7%) of them disagreed to the statement. This perception of the majority of tutors is in tune with Barnes and Kriger (1986)'s assertion that leaders of educational change anticipate the changing needs of their students and take the initiative to identify the appropriate course of action.

Also, tutors were asked to indicate whether principals had provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members of the colleges. In response, 28 (36.4%) of the respondents agreed that principals had provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members of the colleges while the majority of the respondents 49 (63.6%) disagreed. According to Gorton and Snowden (1993) the bureaucracy in the educational system makes it difficult for the principal to address the difficulties that confront staff members.

In addition, 47 (61.0%) of the respondents agreed to the assertion that principals had provided appropriate resources which will maximized students achievement. Conversely, 30 (39.0%) of the respondents disagreed to the assertion. The result of this item is in tune with the opinions of Andrews and Soder (1987) that the effective leader is a principal who performs at high levels in four areas: viz. as a resource provider, an instructional resource, a communicator,

and one who is visibly present in the institution. They continued that as a resource provider, the principal takes action to marshal personnel and resources within the institution, district, and community to achieve the vision and the goals of the college. These resources may be seen as materials, information, or opportunities, with the principal acting as a broker.

A minority forming 38 (49.3%) of tutor respondents agreed that principals had established close ties between the colleges and the communities, while 39 (50.7%) disagreed that principals had established close ties between the colleges and the communities. The results of this are in disagreement with English (1989) that the principal is a planner for community involvement in the school and that without leadership by the principal, schools do not establish strong community relationships. He further asserted that without good relationships based upon the actual needs of students, schools do not get community support.

Further, 55 (71.5%) of the respondents agreed to the statement that principals had initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities. Those who disagreed to the statement constituted 22 (28.5%). This therefore affirms the assertion of Geering (1980) that principals are pivotal to the success of the schools and therefore they should ensure maintenance of the physical facilities of the schools.

With the assertion that principals had established congenial climates for learning, 54 (70.1%) of the tutors agreed while 23 (29.9%) of them disagreed. This is in tandem with Olsen and Sommer (1980) that when students are provided with a learning environment creatively designed to evoke a sense of commitment

to learning, students become more involved and concerned about protecting the nice environment, and resist the temptation to deface it.

Regarding the statement that principals had established the use of appropriate instructional strategies, 57 (74.0%) of the respondents agreed while 20 (26.0%) of them disagreed. The results go to confirm the stand of Foriska (1994) that instructional leaders must influence others to pair appropriate instructional practices with their best knowledge of the subject matter.

A chunk forming 52 (67.5%) of the respondents agreed that principals had introduced valid and reliable performance indicators, while 25 (32.5%) disagreed that principals had introduced valid and reliable performance indicators.

Concerning the injection of new ideas into co-curricular activities by principals, majority of the respondents 45 (58.4%) agreed whilst 32 (41.6%) disagreed.

It is clear from the fore gone discussions that, majority 50 (64.2%) of the tutors responded favourably to eight, out of the ten items. On the other hand, 49 (63.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not assess their needs. Further, 39 (50.7%) of tutor respondents declared that principals had not established healthy school community relations. Moreover, 32 (41.6%) of tutors asserted that principals had not infused new ideas into co-curricular activities.

To buttress what tutor respondents earlier on said in connection with addressing research question 5, section D of the questionnaires for students was used to seek students' views as well. Table 9 displays vividly the responses.

Table 9**Students' Perceptions on Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes in the Colleges**

Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competences of students	185	56.1	112	33.9	22	6.7	11	3.3
Have provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the colleges	113	34.2	151	45.8	43	13.0	23	7.0
Have provided appropriate resources, which will maximize students' achievements	105	31.8	158	47.9	47	14.2	20	6.1
Have established close ties between the colleges and the communities	63	19.1	154	46.7	71	21.5	42	12.7
Have initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities	128	38.8	155	47.0	37	11.2	10	3.0
Have established a congenial climate for learning	134	40.6	161	48.8	28	8.5	7	2.1

Table 9 continued

Principals' Attempts to Effect Changes	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Have established the use of instructional strategies	119	36.1	168	50.9	36	10.9	7	2.1
Have introduced valid and reliable performance indicators	85	25.8	185	56.1	47	14.2	13	3.9
Have injected new ideas into co-curricular activities (e.g., sports)	133	40.4	146	44.2	40	12.1	11	3.3

As shown in Table 9, 297 (90.0%) of the student respondents agreed that principals had initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competence of them. Those who disagreed constituted 33 (10.0%).

On the issue of whether principals had provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the colleges, 264 (80.0%) of the student respondents agreed to the issue while 66 (20.0%) of them disagreed. This confirms the assertions of Hausman, Crow, and Kriger (2000) that good principals fulfill their roles in ways that focus on what is best for students.

Again, 263 (79.7%) of the respondents agreed that principals provided appropriate resources, which will maximize their achievements while 67 (20.3%) of them disagreed. The result of this item is in tune with the opinions of Hall and Hord (1987) that successful principals as change facilitators aggressively seek support for resources within and outside the school to foster goals of the school. For Foriska (1994), effective leadership can be seen as critical to the development and maintenance of an effective school or college. Effective principals must supply teachers with resources and incentives to keep their focus on students.

Moreover, 217 (65.8%) of students agreed that principals had established close ties between the colleges and the communities while 113 (34.2%) of the respondents disagreed. According to Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) a major political role of a principal is the establishment of an effective community relations programme. They described a triangular configuration for such programmes targeted toward staff, students, and the publics for the purposes of informing, gaining opinions, and involvement.

Regarding the statement that principals had initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities, 283 (85.8%) of the respondents agreed that principals had initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities. On the other hand, 47 (14.2%) of the students disagreed that principals had initiated rehabilitation and repair of colleges' facilities. Herbert (1998) believed that attractive, well-designed, and well-maintained facilities communicate a sense of respect for the activities housed within them.

In addition, 295 (89.4%) of the respondents agreed that principals had established congenial climates for learning while 35 (10.6%) of the respondents disagreed that principals had established congenial climates for learning. This study confirms the earlier assertions by Olsen and Sommer (1980) that when students are provided with a learning environment creatively designed to evoke a sense of commitment to learning, students become more involved and concerned about protecting the nice environment, and resist the temptation to deface it.

Concerning the establishment of the use of appropriate instructional strategies by principals, 287 (87.0%) of the respondents agreed that principals had established the use of appropriate instructional strategies while 43 (13.0%) of respondents disagreed that principals had established the use of appropriate instructional strategies. Foriska (1994) as earlier on indicated also agreed that instructional leaders must influence others to pair appropriate instructional practices with their best knowledge of the subject matter.

Likewise, 270 (81.9%) of the student respondents agreed to the statement that principals had introduced valid and reliable performance indicators. Those who disagreed to the statement constituted 60 (18.1%).

Finally, 279 (84.6%) of the students agreed that principals had injected new ideas into co-curricular activities. However, 51 (15.4%) of them disagreed that principals had injected new ideas into co-curricular activities.

In a nutshell, it is clear that a majority 273 (82.7%) of the student respondents were in agreement that principals had made stride in effecting desirable changes in their institutions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The study which was a descriptive survey was aimed at investigating the perceptions of tutors and students regarding the leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education in the Central Region. The study specifically sought to establish the perceptions which tutors and students held concerning the leadership behaviours of their principals, how administrative behaviours of principals affected the management of the colleges of education, the extent to which principals involved tutors in the management of the institutions and the attempts principals made to effect changes in the various colleges of education in the Central Region.

The respondents were tutors and students in the various public colleges of education in the Central Region. A total of 77 tutors and 330 students selected from the three colleges were used for the study. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select tutor respondents while simple random sampling technique was used to select the student respondents.

Questionnaires developed by the researcher with the assistance of his supervisors were the data collection instrument. The instrument was designed in sections and sought to find responses to the five research questions. The

instrument was pilot tested in Wesley College of Education in Kumasi, Ashanti Region of Ghana. Questionnaires were hand delivered by the researcher and there was 100% return rate. Descriptive statistics, frequencies, and percentages were used to analyse the research questions.

Major Findings

The major findings of the study are as follows:

1. Majority, 54 (70.5%) of tutors indicated that the principals promoted good human relations, delegation of authority, and practiced good communication skills. On the contrary, 49 (63.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals castigated at them in front of others. Also, 33 (42.9%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not take the views of students before making decisions affecting the students. Furthermore, 29 (37.7%) of tutors revealed that principals were aloof to those who had personal problems.
2. Furthermore, majority 257 (78.0%) of the students were satisfied with the leadership behaviours of their principals. On the other hand, 132 (40.0%) of the students indicated that principals were not approachable. Also, 188 (57.0%) of the students pointed out that principals rebuked them publicly. In addition, 110 (33.3%) of the students indicated that principals did not seek their views before arriving at final decisions affecting them. These perceptions of students go to affirm the perceptions held by tutors under research question one.

3. Moreover, majority 58 (75.5%) of the tutors believed that the administrative behaviours of principals had placed the management of the colleges of education on a sound footing. Furthermore, majority 297 (89.9%) of the students felt that principals of the colleges of education exhibited good, appropriate, and effective administrative behaviours, which had impacted positively on the management of their institutions. Conversely, 32 (41.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not prepare job description for them. Additionally, 31 (40.2%) of the tutors specified that principals did not induct or give them (tutors) orientation.
4. Although, majority 48 (61.8%) of the tutors felt that principals of the colleges of education involved them in the management of the colleges, 34 (44.2%) of them revealed that principals did not involve them in decision-making process. Also, 40 (51.9%) of the tutors indicated that principals neither accepted nor implemented their suggestions. Additionally, 38 (49.4%) of the tutors declared that principals ignored their opinions on effecting changes. More so, 31 (40.3%) of the tutors asserted that principals did not ensure their participation in planning new projects for the colleges. Another area in which principals were not acting in accordance with the expectations of the tutors was in the area of planning of the colleges' budget as majority, 59 (76.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not involve them in planning the colleges' budget.

5. What is more, 50 (64.2%) of the tutors and 273 (82.7%) of the students were in agreement that principals had made stride in effecting desirable changes in their institutions. On the other hand, 49 (63.6%) of the tutors indicated that principals did not assess their (tutors) needs. Further, 39 (50.7%) of the tutors declared that principals had not established healthy school community relationships. Moreover, 32 (41.6%) of tutors indicated that principals had not infused new ideas into co-curricular activities.

Conclusions

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the findings. First, the main conclusion of the study is that, principals of colleges of education in the Central Region exhibited effective and sound leadership behaviours. However, their human relations were questionable. They reprimanded both tutors and students in public. Secondly, principals possessed sound and effectual administrative behaviours but they neither prepared job descriptions for all staff nor organised orientation for new tutors. Though principals were effective leaders of change and therefore took the initiative in effecting desirable changes in their institutions, they were not concerned about the needs of staff members. Moreover, principals did not establish effective school community relationships.

Recommendations

Following the research findings and conclusions, the following recommendations have been made:

1. For principals' leadership behaviours to be well embraced by tutors and students in the colleges of education in the Central Region, principals must improve upon their human relations. They need to correct subordinates in privacy and be approachable to both tutors and students who have personal problems.
2. Principals must consult and take the views of students into consideration in their quest to reach final decisions affecting students. This will warrant the students' willingness to abide by decisions taken by the colleges and reduce the tendencies of demonstrations on the various campuses of colleges of education in the region.
3. Principals must prepare clear job descriptions for all staff members in the colleges for them to be lucid of their duties and responsibilities in the colleges.
4. As a matter of necessity, principals must induct or give orientation to new tutors to enable them have fair knowledge about the colleges before the commencement of their work.
5. Principals must involve staff in decision-making processes of the colleges of education. They must accept and implement their suggestions as well. This will boost staff morale and ensure multiplicity of ideas.

6. Principals must allow tutors to participate in planning new projects for the colleges. In addition, principals must welcome tutors' opinions in effecting changes in the colleges.
7. As a matter of urgency, principals must involve tutors in planning colleges' budget. This will augment tutors' knowledge in the financial administration of the colleges.
8. Principals must assess the needs of staff members in the colleges. This will help reduce the challenges facing the staff members for a holistic attainment of the set objectives of colleges.
9. Principals must liaise with the physical education tutors to introduce new inventions like sporting activities into co-curricular activities. This will lend a hand to the students exercising themselves and preparing a number of them for sporting activities of the nation.
10. Finally, there is a need for principals to establish healthy and congenial school community relationships. This will guarantee the colleges gaining support vis-à-vis lending support to the communities.

Suggestions for Future Research

1. It is suggested that, future researchers should modify and widen the scope of the study to cover the whole country in order to bring out information that will help reveal the generalisability of the findings.
2. Again, future researchers should use interview guide in addition to the structured questionnaire to draw out sufficient information required from

respondents to augment opinions expressed on the questionnaire to increase the reliability of the research work.

3. Finally, it is suggested that, future researchers of school management should include the financial management of principals of colleges of education.

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APPENDICES

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

Dear Sir/ Madam.

A research study is being conducted into the perceptions of tutors and students about leadership behaviours of principals of colleges of education in Central Region of Ghana.

I would be very grateful if you could please sincerely spare some time to respond to the questionnaire. Please your responses will be treated in the highest confidentiality. Thank you.

Indicate your answer to the following questions where applicable by ticking (✓) the appropriate answer or by completing the spaces provided.

SECTION B

**TUTORS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS
OF PRINCIPALS**

Please, use the scale below to indicate your perception about the leadership behaviours of principal of your college of education. Tick (√) the one that is appropriate for each item.

Interpretation of scale

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

TUTORS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS.	1	2	3	4
6. Has a high desire for achievement.				
7. Very ambitious about his/her work/careers and has a desire to get ahead.				
8. Can easily be approached by subordinates with their personal problems.				
9. Corrects subordinates in privacy rather than in front of others.				
10. Allows student leaders to be selected by popular choice.				
11. Takes the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students.				
12. Assigns staff to particular tasks				
13. Delegates work to tutors				
14. Communicates information to tutors through staff meetings.				
15. Communicates information directly to students during college gatherings.				

SECTION C

HOW PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOURS AFFECT MANAGEMENT OF THE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Please use the scale below to indicate your feelings about how the administrative behaviours of your principal affect management of your institution. Tick (√) the one that is appropriate for each item.

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOURS AND MANAGEMENT OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION.	1	2	3	4
16. Prepares up-to-date job description for all staff.				
17. Assigns roles, responsibilities and duties to staff.				
18. Arranges for the appointment of new staff.				
19. Inducts/gives orientation to new tutors.				
20. Inducts/gives orientation to new students.				
21. Communicates regularly by the most appropriate means, to staff about college's programmes.				
22. Ensures presence and punctuality of staff.				
23. Analyses examination results.				
24. Reviews the performance of the college in all in- class and out-of-class activities.				
25. Sets performance targets for the college as a whole.				

SECTION D

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS AND TUTORS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION.

Use the scale to indicate your perception by ticking (√) the number you find appropriate.

TUTORS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	1	2	3	4
26. Involves staff in decision-making process.				
27. Accepts and implements suggestions made by tutors.				
28. Convenes regular meetings with the staff.				
29. Lays bare college matters at staff meetings for discussions and adoption.				
30. Welcomes tutors' opinions on effecting changes.				
31. Gives tutors freedom to select appropriate textbooks.				
32. Empowers tutors to choose their own teaching methods.				
33. Allows tutors to make classroom disciplinary policies.				
34. Allows tutors to participate in planning new projects for the college.				
35. Involves tutors in planning college's budget.				

SECTION E

THE ATTEMPT MADE BY PRINCIPALS TO BRING ABOUT DESIRABLE CHANGE IN THE 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 (√) the one that is appropriate for each item.

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

PRINCIPAL'S ATTEMPT TO BRING ABOUT DESIRABLE CHANGE IN THE COLLEGE	1	2	3	4
36. Has initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competence of students.				
37. Has provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the college.				
38. Has provided leadership in assessing the needs of staff members in the college.				
39. Has provided appropriate resources, which will maximize students' achievement.				
40. Has established close ties between the college and the community.				
41. Has initiated rehabilitation and repair of college facilities.				
42. Has established a congenial climate for learning.				
43. Has established the use of appropriate instructional strategies.				
44. Has introduced valid and reliable performance indicators.				
45. Has injected new ideas into co-curricula activities (e.g., sports).				

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Please respond to the following items by ticking (√). Your identity will be made confidential.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

(1) Name of College

(2) Sex: Male () Female ()

SECTION B

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS

Please tick (√) the number on the scale following each statement to show how you feel about the leadership behaviours of your principal.

Interpretation of scale

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS	1	2	3	4
3. Has a high desire for achievement.				
4. Very ambitious about his/her/ work/careers and has a desire to get ahead.				
5. Can easily be approached by students with their personal problems.				
6. Corrects students in privacy rather than in front of others.				
7. Allows student leaders to be selected by popular choice.				
8. Takes the views of students into consideration in arriving at final decisions affecting students.				
9. Assigns students to particular tasks.				
10. Delegates work to student leaders.				
11. Communicates information directly to students during college gatherings.				

SECTION C

HOW ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOURS OF PRINCIPALS AFFECT MANAGEMENT OF THE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Please use the scale below to indicate your feelings about how the administrative behaviours of your principal affect management of your institution. Tick (√) the one that is appropriate for each item.

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOURS AND MANAGEMENT OF INSTITUTIONS.	1	2	3	4
12. Assigns roles, responsibilities and duties to students.				
13. Inducts/gives orientation to new students				
14. Communicates regularly by the most appropriate means, to students about college's programmes.				
15. Ensures presence and punctuality of students.				
20. Conducts a full appraisal of all staff.				
21. Takes stock and physically checks the stores and equipment of the college.				
22. Analyses examination results.				
23. Reviews the performance of the college in all in- class and out-of-class activities.				
24. Sets performance targets for the college as a whole.				

SECTION D

THE ATTEMPT MADE BY PRINCIPALS TO BRING ABOUT DESIRABLE CHANGE IN THE 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 (√) the one that is appropriate for each item.

1= Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

PRINCIPAL'S ATTEMPT TO BRING ABOUT DESIRABLE CHANGE IN THE COLLEGE	1	2	3	4
25. Has initiated steps that will bring about improvement in academic and professional competence of students.				
26. Has provided leadership in assessing the needs of students in the college.				
27. Has provided appropriate resources, which will maximize students' achievement.				
28. Has established close ties between the college and the community				
29. Has initiated rehabilitation and repair of college facilities				
29. Has established a congenial climate for learning.				
30. Has established the use of appropriate instructional strategies				
31. Has introduced valid and reliable performance indicators.				
32. Has injected new ideas into co-curricula activities (e.g., sports).				



**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
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Our Ref: EP/144.8/V.2/68

July 26, 2009

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LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, **Ernest Amoah Nyarne** is a graduate student of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University of Cape Coast. He requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement of M. Phil degree programme.

We should be grateful if you would kindly allow him to collect the information from your outfit.

Kindly give the necessary assistance that he requires to collect the information.

While anticipating your co-operation, we thank you for any help that you may be able to give.

Mr. Y.M. Anhwere
Asst. Registrar
For Director