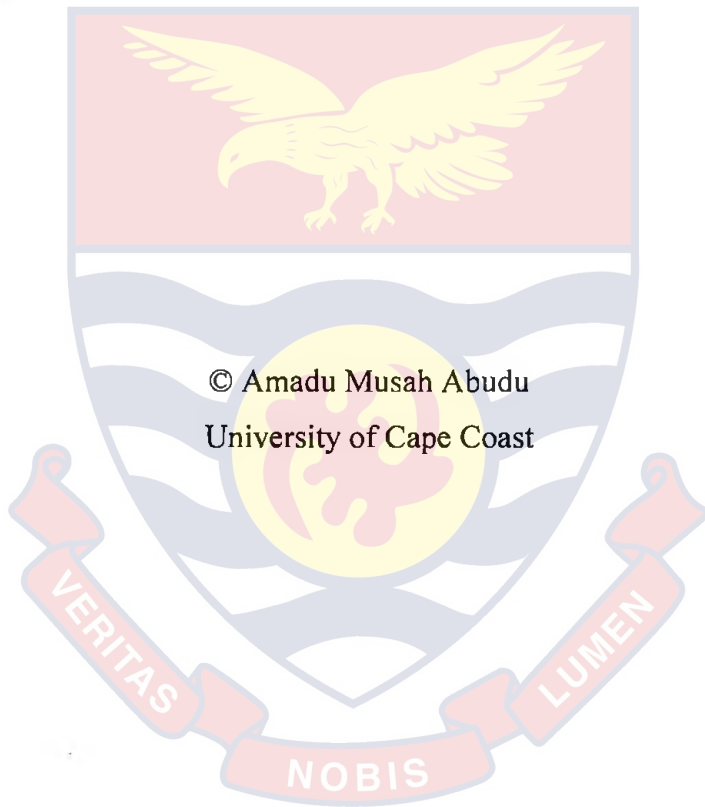


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES OF HEADS OF SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS AND STUDENT ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN THE
NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA



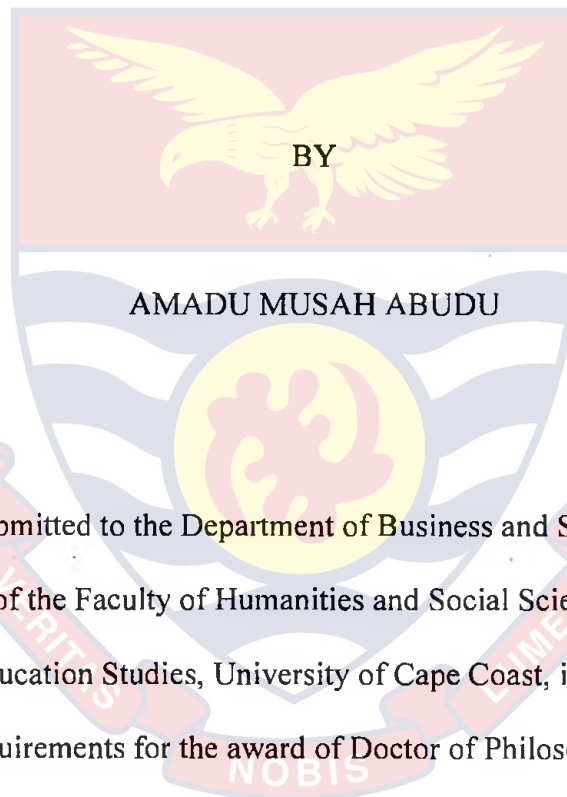
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CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
HEADS AND STUDENT ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN THE
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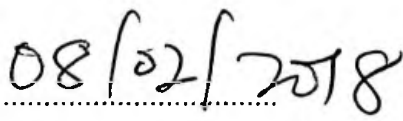
Thesis submitted to the Department of Business and Social Sciences
Education of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education,
College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in
Curriculum and Teaching

JANUARY 2018

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

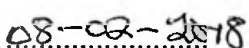
I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:  Date: 

Name: Amadu Musah Abudu

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: 

Name: Prof. Cosmas Cobbold

Co-Supervisor's Signature:  Date: 

Name: Dr. Albert L. Dare

ABSTRACT

The study explored the effects of the curriculum leadership roles of heads of senior high schools on their students' academic performance within the Northern Region of Ghana. The study is nested in the pragmatic worldview and therefore, the strategies of inquiry included quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research design was, thus, a sequential explanatory mixed method using the cross-sectional survey. The stratified random and census were used to select a sample size of 482, constituting 467 teachers and 15 heads of schools respectively. However, 445 of teacher respondents submitted completed questionnaire. Questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussions were used in the collection of data. The inferential statistics such as Kruskal Wallis test, Spearman's Rank Order correlation and binary logistic regression were used to measure the differences amongst the school categories and the relationship and effects of curriculum leadership roles on students' academic performance respectively. The qualitative data collected were analysed thematically to present an in-depth view of the results of the quantitative analysis. It was found out that, out of the eight predictors of high academic performance, only four emerged significant which are planning of activities, monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery, monitoring of students learning and creating conducive learning environment. Thus, the study concludes that the roles played by heads of schools vary from one school Category to another with the highest level of involvement being in Category 3 SHSs and the lowest in Category 1 SHSs. The study recommends that all heads of schools should build teams that will be interested in promoting collaborative teaching and learning necessary to motivate both teachers and students to work hard for better results.

KEY WORDS

Academic performance

Curriculum enactment

Curriculum leadership roles

Learning environment

Monitoring of lesson delivery

Student learning



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I am also grateful to my Dean, the Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University for Development Studies, Prof. A. A. Apusigah, who followed with keen interest the progress of my study and offered me the needed encouragement and support. I wish to acknowledge, with gratitude, my indebtedness to Mr. Moses Naiim Fuseini (a PhD student of UCC) and Mr. Abudu Dawuda (a Lecturer at Bolgatanga Polytechnic) who kindly read through the work and offered invaluable suggestions. I am deeply indebted to all the teachers and heads of schools of senior high schools in the Northern Region of Ghana, who responded to my research instruments and had made it possible for me to collect the required data.

Thanks, go to my mum, Hajia Salamata Bakeri, for her tireless effort and hard work, which have made me what I am today. My heartfelt gratitude goes to my dear wives: Mariam and Faiza and children: Bilal, Abdul Wadood, Elham, Ayisha and Munira for their support, patience and encouragement and also for enduring my long absence from home. May the Almighty Allah bless and give back all that they have lost. However, I bear responsibility for any flaws and inconsistencies in this piece of work. May Allah richly bless all.

DEDICATION

To my family whose love and care have made it possible for me to go through
this programme

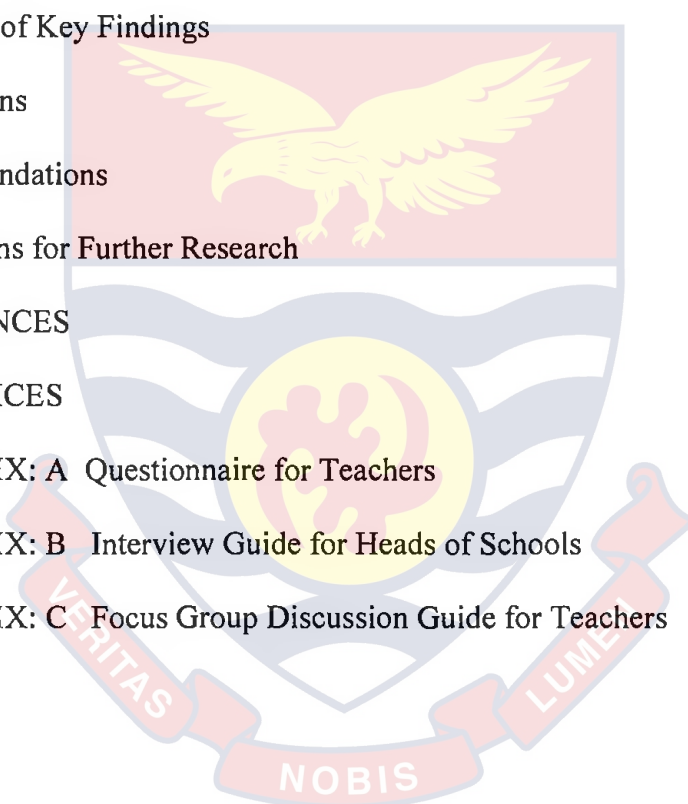


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LIST OF ACRONYMS

GES	Ghana Education Service
GETfund	Ghana Education Trust Fund
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
ORF	Oral Reading Fluency
PTA	Parents-Teachers Association
SHSs	Senior High Schools
UDS	University for Development Studies
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
US	United States
WAEC	West Africa Examination Council
WASSCE	West African Secondary School Certificate Examination

The logo of the University of Cape Coast is a watermark in the background. It features a shield with a yellow eagle at the top, a yellow sun with a red face in the center, and a red banner at the bottom with the Latin motto "VERITAS NOBIS LUMEN".

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Leadership in schools has been a major cause for concern, not only in Ghanaian society, but the world at large. This is so because school leaders are metaphorically viewed as anchors, as they are totally responsible for the success of their schools (Heaven & Bourne, 2016). In the school system, there are different levels of leadership, but the head of a school plays a dominant role, one that is inextricably linked to the quality of the enactment of curriculum in the classroom by teachers and the consequential effects on the academic performance of students. Heads of schools also influence students' learning by helping to promote a vision and goal and by ensuring that resources and processes are in place to enable teachers to perform at their optimal levels.

As such, the heads of schools are held accountable for the success or failure of the school they manage. The success or failure of any school is intertwined with the roles the head of that school plays. The failure of a school is never levied against teacher(s) and this has always been the case in school administration (Heaven & Bourne, 2016). This is equally true when there is success in an educational institution, suggesting that the head of a school has an overarching role of the institution. Hence, if a school is excelling academically, it may be inferred that the head of the school has embraced all aspects of curriculum leadership and is in control of the management of that school. However, few studies have been done in that area to assess the heads of schools' ability to effect high academic performance of students. This raises certain philosophical issues such as the roles heads of schools play in the enactment of curriculum in the classroom, hence, my motivation to do this study.

Background to the Study

Leadership is a high priority issue (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006) of concern to stakeholders of any organisation. This is because it is the leader who provides the direction regarding what is to be done, how it should be done and eventually, the expected outcomes. According to Bramlett (2010), leadership is the ability to develop a vision that motivates others to move with a passion. Grimmet (1996) argued that a leader is one who has the capacity to influence others to use their expertise and skills to move an organisation toward established goals as well as assist individuals in adjusting to an organisation's environment.

Leadership is also seen as the process of encouraging and helping others to work enthusiastically towards the achievement of the objectives of an organisation (Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo, 2012). Ng'ethe et al. further stated that the human factor of a leader builds a group together and motivates them towards goals by transforming the group's potential into realities. In a similar manner, Bhengu (2005) has defined leadership as a process of influencing the activities of an organised group towards goal getting and goal achievement. Great leaders possess an ability to engage others in a shared meaning, a distinctive and compelling voice, a sense of integrity, and an adaptive capacity (Hallinger, 2003).

In an educational institution, leadership rests on the bosom of the head of a school who plays the role of leading and managing the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. Udoh (2002) contended that the academic performance of students in any educational set up lies mainly with how competent the head of a school is in managing the human, material and financial

resources at his/her disposal. In curriculum enactment, heads of institutions of learning are regarded as curriculum leaders. Handler (2010) perceived a curriculum leader as a person who has not only a comprehensive understanding of the pragmatics of curricular design and instructional practice, but also a global understanding of education as a societal system to be able to lead the instructional process. By extension, curriculum leadership is a process of encouraging and helping teachers and learners to work enthusiastically toward the realisation of educational outcomes.

Heads of schools as curriculum leaders are expected to influence the behaviours of teachers and students among other stakeholders, to achieve the objectives and goals of their schools. It is therefore the role of the head of a school to lead and manage the school curriculum for effective teaching and learning to bring about high academic performance of students (Musungu & Nasongo, 2008). Corollary to this, Cole (2002) and Maicibi, (2003) have intimated that a school with all kinds of facilities and teachers without a well-informed leader to manage the affairs of the school will not yield good results.

Cole (2002) emphasised that even if an institution has all the financial resources to excel, it may perform dismally if the leadership does not motivate the rest to accomplish their task effectively. Maicibi (2003) concluded that if heads of schools fail to play their roles in leading and managing curriculum enactment, student performance cannot be realised, though the school may have all the needed instructional materials and financial resources.

Accordingly, Dunklee (2000) also indicated that the differences in student behaviour and academic outcomes are influenced *inter alia* by the head. This is so because the activities of the school are determined by what the head

does. He or she influences everyone else's behaviour: his or her values are contagious, his or her good sense of ethics instils respect and trust in the system (Dunklee, 2000). Buttressing this claim, Ramsey (1999) contended that in an organisation like the school, students and teachers tend to live up to the image of the head because no school is high performing without an effective and efficient head.

On the basis of this, Tshabalala and Khosa (2014) argued that people and for that matter parents, place a very high premium on curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools as these culminate in the quality of teaching and learning as well as student success. Consequently, parents will not send their wards to schools perceived to be performing poorly. Rather, they will seek for schools known for their high quality of teaching and learning. Quality learning therefore is about how students can use the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired in all spheres of the economy. However, quality learning does not come about like manna from heaven. It is brought about deliberately through effective leadership (Tshabalala & Khosa, 2014).

In this regard, it is important that students are connected to a curriculum that provides opportunities for them to be able to learn what is taught, how it is taught, and how it applies to the world at large. The promotion of healthy development of all students, as well as enabling all students to reach their full potential is a priority for schools in developing countries and across the world for which the head of school is entirely responsible (Departments of Education of New Brunswick, 2005). United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] (2009) posited that students' academic performance

is as a result of quality leadership which requires leaders to acquire new knowledge, competencies and attitudes to be able to play their roles effectively.

To this end, heads of SHSs in Ghana play key roles in the delivery of quality instruction in the classroom with repercussions on student performance. According to Ghana Education Service [GES] (2010), one of the responsibilities of heads of SHSs involves ensuring that the school has qualified teaching staff and adequate teaching and learning materials to be able to enact the school curriculum efficiently and effectively for the achievement of the desired goals of education. The head of a SHS is also responsible for making sure that appropriate instructional strategies are in place that support effective learning for all students (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007). To attain such a goal, the head of SHS needs to manifest curriculum leadership by having a working knowledge of effective instructional strategies and understanding the needs of their teachers and students to be able to lead the instructional process effectively. To sum up the roles, Oyedeji and Fasasi (2006) intimated that the head of a school is responsible for all that happens in the school.

As the heads of schools perform their curriculum leadership roles, it is appropriate that such roles are monitored to determine whether or not they have an impact on students' academic performance. The curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools include curriculum planning, monitoring curriculum enactment, promoting teacher professional development and providing support services to students for effective learning (Leithwood, Karen, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). Thus, the head of the school has the responsibility to conduct regular monitoring of curricular activities measured against established

indicators. The monitoring of curriculum activities by the heads of schools will ensure that teachers sharpen their pedagogical skills and improve their delivery methodologies to meet the level of the learners and to enable them to maximise their gains from the learning experiences (Chikumbu & Makamure, 2000). This is an indication that the execution of monitoring has the potential of leading to better coverage and quality of the curriculum enacted in the classroom. Thus, it signifies that a solid foundation has been laid for students to be able to learn to achieve high academic performance.

When heads of SHSs play their curriculum leadership roles well, it would have positive influence on teachers' development and practice and ultimately impact on students' academic performance. Effective teaching requires that the teacher integrates his/her content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge to produce multifaceted and dynamic classroom environment for all students of varying degrees of difference (The Principal's Responsibilities in Supporting Quality Instruction, 2015). This will eventually lead to each student achieving the desired outcomes. Thus, the achievement of the desired outcomes by all students partly depends on how teachers are led by their heads in enacting the curriculum in the classroom (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). This, the head of a school can do by providing professional development programmes for teachers in the form of in-service training and workshops to upgrade their competencies. These in-service training and workshops will help teachers position themselves well in the delivery of knowledge and skills to students.

Effective learning by students and their consequent academic performance also depend on the support services that the heads of schools provide through the execution of their curriculum leadership roles. These

support services include the provision of committed and dedicated teachers, adequate teaching and learning materials, conducive classroom environment and time for independent study. For instance, Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003), found a substantial relationship between the support services the head of a school provides for students and students' achievement. Similarly, Leithwood (2007) argued that the head of a school is the most significant factor in relation to student academic outcomes in schools through the provision of support services. Thus, for effective teaching and learning to take place, the head of a school must provide support services to teachers and students to guide the teaching and learning process because of its repercussion on students' academic performance (Katitia, 2010).

This suggest that the head of a school must provide students an environment where every student can experience academic success. It is also the role of a head of a school to lead teachers in the planning of curriculum activities. Whatever resources that teachers need for their lessons must be provided by the head of a school. The head of a school also needs to support teachers in planning what to teach and how to teach and to ensure that co-curriculum activities have space in the timetable such that they do not impede classroom activities. These curriculum leadership roles, when effectively played, will translate into high students' academic performance.

As the head of a school leads teachers in the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom, they might encounter some challenges. These challenges might have some effects on the way heads of schools lead the instructional process and that might have circumstantial effect on students' academic performance.

The underlying reason for the interest in the effect of curriculum leadership roles of a head of a school on students' academic performance is the desire of policy makers in the world over to reduce the persistent disparities in students' achievement among educational institutions, and their belief that school leaders play a vital role in doing so (Organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development (OECD), 2005). It is in the light of all these that I became interested in finding out how effective heads of SHSs in the Northern Region of Ghana play their curriculum leadership roles in leading the enactment of curriculum in the classroom for high academic performance of students.

Statement of the Problem

The indispensable role that education plays in national development (Namukwaya & Kibirige, 2014; UNESCO, 2014) has made the quest for quality education a major issue in the developing countries and the world at large. The quality of education, however, tends to be evaluated in terms of the number of students passing national examinations (Eshiwani, 1993). In Ghana and in the area of this study (i.e., Northern Region), the academic performance of students has not been good. For instance, records from the West African Examination Council (WAEC) indicate unstable performance of students at the West African Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE). Table 1 shows the performance of students in the four core subjects. Students need grades A1-C6 in these subjects (Integrated Science and Social Studies can be interchanged depending on the student's programme) plus similar grades in three elective subjects for admission into a tertiary institution.

Table 1: West African Senior School Certificate Examination Performance Statistics for the Core Subjects

SUBJECTS	2014		2015		2016		
	GRADES A1-C6		GRADES A1-C6		GRADES A1-C6		
	Northern Region	National	Northern Region	National	Northern Region	National	
English Language	No	3,171	108,633	4,551	135,186	5,315	145,869
	%	17.8	45.2	19.5	50.29%	20.9	53.19
Integrated Science	No	2,000	68,965	2,398	63,520	5,567	132,953
	%	11.2	28.7	10.2	23.63%	22	48.48
Mathematics (Core)	No	2,001	77,882	1,796	67,983	3,110	90,034
	%	11.2	32.4	7.7	25.29%	12.4	32.83
Social Studies	No	6,846	137,714	5,674	139,352	7,371	150,669
	%	38.6	57.4	24.3	51.84%	29.1	54.93

Source: West African Examination Council, Headquarters, Accra

The data in Table 1 show that in all the three years and in all the subjects, the performance of students in Northern Region falls below that of the National. Also, available data show that the government of Ghana is investing a huge chunk of its scarce resources including teaching and learning materials in SHSs as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Government Subsidy-Releases/Students Enrolment

Academic Year	Annual Enrolment	Percentage increase in Enrolment	Releases (GHC)	Percentage increase in Release
2009/2010	493,000	NA	20,747,590.03	NA
2010/2011	727,637	47.6	44,627,457.60	115
2011/2012	747,788	2.8	58,838,589.90	31.8
2012/2013	754,349	0.9	79,185,113.16	34.5
2013/2014	825,635	9.5	112,110,004.70	41.6

Source: Ghana Education Service Headquarters, Accra

Table 2 shows that government investment in SHSs has continued to increase relative to enrolment after a sharp decline in 2011/12. Furthermore, all SHSs in Ghana have qualified and adequate teaching staff to enact the curriculum in the classroom (Ghana Education Service [GES], 2010). Again, government continues to organise workshops and seminars for the leadership of SHSs to improve their competencies in the management of their schools (GES, 2010) for high academic performance of students. These efforts of government must be complemented by other stakeholders such as heads, teachers and students to bring about high academic performance of students. It is in the light of this that Atkinson (cited in Sindhvad, 2009) intimated that:

The head is increasingly expected to create a climate that is conducive for teaching and learning; work towards improving student performance and be accountable for results; support and supervise teachers' work in instruction and classroom management; supervise the use of the curriculum and its localisation to ensure its relevance to the school; and ensure effective staff development programmes are operational in the school and that teachers improve their professional competence (p. 2).

Thus, the head of a school plays a crucial role in developing the ethos of achievement in the school system in line with the general goals of the nation. It is also the role of the head of a school to harmonise the sum total activities of the school and the efforts of teachers and students to ensure that targets of the enacted curriculum are set and met. To achieve this, the head of a school needs to have a good knowledge of best educational practices and management that will manifest in the academic performance of students.

Yet, evidence on the ground suggests that not much has been achieved as most SHSs in Ghana, particularly the study area (Northern Ghana) record mass failure of senior high school students in public examinations conducted by the West Africa Examination Council (WAEC) (see Table 1) over the years. Furthermore, the “growing complaints by parents, heads of tertiary educational institutions and employers of graduates of this level of education indicate that secondary school graduates are poorly prepared for the challenges ahead” (Fasasi, 2014, p.165). This brings the capacity of heads of schools to lead instructional delivery into question. Duke, Tucker, Salmonowicz and Levy (2006) observed that the lack of effective curriculum leadership in schools lowers students' achievement because the absence of quality leadership often

results in ill-adapted school organisation and programmes. Duke et al. (2006) added that lack of effective leadership in schools also leads to unstable and difficult staffing, and students' negative attitudes to academic work. As such, the consequences of failed curriculum leadership are grave. The mass media and the citizenry at large also tend to criticize SHSs leaders for poor academic performance of students and the deteriorating state of leadership and management of SHSs (Mphahlel & Mhlahuli, 2015). This is because the public outcry revolves around how effective heads of SHSs play their roles as curriculum leaders. Since the dream of every head of a school is to get his/her school ranked among the best in national examinations results (Chitiavi, 2002), the head of a school needs to be present in all academic activities of the school.

In spite of the relevance of heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles in the enactment of the school curriculum, Blase and Blase (2000) asserted that only few studies have focused on heads of schools' everyday curriculum leadership roles and their impact on learning. Similarly, Short (1985) opined that curriculum enactment is a task that is not satisfactorily achieved. Many researchers (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982; Duke as cited in Flath, 1989; Edmonds, 1979; Kroezeas cited in Flath, 1989) stressed the importance of the curriculum leadership roles of the head of a school, however, the consensus in the literature regarding this issue is that it is seldom practiced (Flath, 1989). Stronge (1988) concluded that 62.2% of the elementary principals' time is focused on school management issues, whereas only 6.2% of their time is focused on curriculum issues. He adds that, "a typical head performs an enormous number of tasks each day - but only 11% relate to curriculum leadership" (p. 32). Berlin, Kavanagh and Jensen (1988) concluded that if

schools are to progress, "the head cannot allow daily duties to interfere with the leadership role in curriculum" (p. 49).

Some studies on academic performance of students have basically tied such performance to socioeconomic status, parents' educational level, single parenting, student attitudes to learning, school environmental factors, housing and residential experience (Abudu, & Fuseini, 2013; Abdu-Raheem, 2015). Other studies on curriculum leadership in school link it to teachers' performance (Bimpeh, 2012; Sigilai & Bett, 2013; Machumu & Kaitila, 2014). Most studies also examined principal decision-making and the forces both for and against their capacity to adopt a collaborative leadership style for the implementation of school curriculum (Stark, 2002; Burns, Bass, Avolio & Leithwood, 2006; Williams, 2006; Parkes, 2013). Yet, others investigated the theoretical underpinnings of the field of educational leadership and management, assessed different leadership models, and discussed the evidence of their relative effectiveness in developing successful schools (Bush, 2007; Oghuvbu, 2011).

A thorough examination of these studies reveals that researchers have not linked the leadership roles of heads in the enactment of the school curriculum to the academic performance of their students. This gives the impression that little attention is given to the head of a school's curriculum leadership roles as relevant determinants of academic performance of students. Yet, the role of the head of a school is to promote academic performance (Musungu & Nasongo, 2008).

Even though the theoretical reviews placed the outcomes of students' academic performance solely on heads of schools, it is not clear whether the curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools have effects on students'

academic performance. For instance, In Africa, Verspoor (2006) research on what determines education quality in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and identified the following: classroom factors (time, grouping procedures, instructional strategies), school factors (leadership, emphasis on academic achievement and staff development) enable and reinforce, system factors (vision, standards, resources, relevant curriculum, incentives) provide direction, and community factors (home environment, support for education) ensure local relevance and ownership. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA, 2006) noted that in addition to these quality-affecting factors, improvements in education quality and better learning achievements of students in SSA will ultimately be determined in classrooms by motivated teachers who have the skills and resources to respond effectively to students' learning needs. ADEA (2006) continued to say that effective schools are schools that create a supportive environment for such teachers and for classrooms where all students can learn and acquire the knowledge, skills and the attitudes to be able to perform well in their final examination. Therefore, as noted by Verspoor (2006), moving towards an in-depth understanding of how schools in Africa can be helped on the path towards effectiveness is thus a central element of the continuing quest for high academic performance of students.

In view of this, this study is underpinned by a very simple question: How do the heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles and how does the performance of their roles influence teaching to impact on students' academic performance in SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana? Particularly, in the context of Ghana where public SHS are grouped into three; Categories 1, 2 and 3 (GES, 2013) according to performance, it is important to know whether curriculum

leadership roles have effects on the academic performance of students in these categorisations. This present study was designed to address these issues, thereby filling the gaps in the literature.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs on students' academic performance. The primary mode for conducting this study was a two-phase sequential mixed method. In the first phase, questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data from teachers of SHSs in the Northern Region of Ghana. Information from the first phase was explored further in a second phase using qualitative methods of collecting data.

In this latter phase, interviews with the heads of schools and selected teachers, and focus group discussions with some teachers as well as observations on how heads of schools play their roles, were used to explore major issues that had been identified in the quantitative results such as the various curriculum leadership roles and their influence on academic performance of students. The reason for this two-phased approach was to provide a holistic picture and in-depth understanding on how heads play their curriculum leadership roles and their effects on students' academic performance.

Research Questions

The analysis of the collected data from questionnaire, interview transcripts, observational field notes, and other resources was aimed at providing an answer to the broad question: "How do the curriculum leadership

roles of heads of SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana affect students' academic performance?"

The specific research questions were:

1. What roles do heads of SHSs play in teachers' planning of activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom?
2. What support services do heads of SHSs provide for students to enhance their academic performance?
3. How do heads of schools promote the professional development of teachers?
4. How do heads of SHSs monitor curriculum enactment in the classroom to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction?
5. How do the curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana affect students' academic performance?
6. What are the major challenges that the heads of SHSs encounter in enacting the school curriculum in their schools?

Hypotheses

The study tested the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference in the frequency of execution of curriculum planning roles of heads for the three school categories.
2. There is no significant relationship between student support services and students' academic performance.
3. There is no significant difference in the monitoring of classroom activities by heads on students' academic performance among the three school categories.

4. There is no significant difference in curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students among the various school categories.

These four hypotheses formulated were tested at .05 level of significance, using two-tailed test.

Significance of the Study

The outcome of the study has the potential to benefit a wide spectrum of policy makers, educational planners and administrators, the public as well as to contribute to curriculum leadership theory. The study unearthed the need for curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHS in the enactment of school curriculum. Thus, it contributes to knowledge in the area of curriculum leadership. The point of departure of the results of the present study is the move away from the position where it is assumed that the head only supervises the enactment of curriculum in the classroom to the reality that the head should lead the process of enacting the curriculum in the classroom. Thus, the study not only adds to but may also whip up interest in the field of curriculum leadership.

Moreover, the results of the study include information on how heads are involved in planning activities for curriculum enactment. This may guide educational planners on how to re-orientate the perceptions of heads towards curriculum enactment at the classroom level. The policy makers may also use the findings of the study as a basis to provide opportunity for heads to understand the need to be involved in the lesson planning process.

Again, the study brought to the fore the support services that heads offer to students in their attempt to use the knowledge acquired in the classroom for their everyday life. This may be useful to educational planners and policy

makers who wish to identify areas where support in terms of training and resources is needed to ensure the achievement of the desired objectives of the school curriculum.

Furthermore, the results of the study unfolded how heads of schools promote the professional development of teachers. Thus, this will enable institutions, policy makers and educational planners to reallocate resources to aspects of human development that are lacking in the teacher for the promotion of effective teaching and learning.

In addition, the data generated by this study may enable educational planners to determine the effectiveness of heads in monitoring the enactment of school curriculum. This may provide a basis for educational planners to organise training workshops for heads to build their capacity for enacting the school curriculum for effective teaching and learning.

The study also has implications on the theory of curriculum leadership. The findings of the study revealed ways that heads of SHSs in Northern Ghana play their curriculum leadership roles to enhance students' academic performance. It has revealed that when heads of schools are involved in the enactment of curriculum in the classroom, it enhances effective teaching and better academic performance by the students. The study used a sequential mixed methods approach based on the literature gap identified. In the study, quantitative data were collected using questionnaire, and based on the findings, interview, observation and focus group discussion were used to collect qualitative data for the purpose of triangulation and further explanation. This may whip up the interest of researchers in the use of the mixed method approach in research.

Finally, the study unveiled the difficulties heads encounter in enacting the school curriculum and how adequately they were prepared towards the enactment process. This may be useful to programme designers for further planning and improvement. Thus, curriculum decision making and planning at the Ghana Education Service (GES) headquarters may be improved.

Delimitation

The study focused on curriculum leadership roles that heads of public SHSs play in the enactment of the curriculum. The heads of SHSs perform several roles but this study was delimited to those roles that are solely related to curriculum enactment context and to determine the effects these roles have on students' academic performance. The curriculum leadership roles are: planning curriculum activities, providing support service to students, professional development of teachers and monitoring of the enactment of the curriculum. I chose these roles because they directly affect the academic performance of students. It is also my conviction that when heads of SHSs play these curriculum leadership roles effectively and efficiently, high academic performance of students will be realised.

Geographically, the study focused on Northern Region of Ghana. The Northern Region was selected because the students' performance in the Region was below the national performance as indicated in Table 1.

Limitations

The study had a number of limitations. First, the study used cross-sectional survey, which describes how heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles in the enactment of curriculum in the classroom at a particular point in time. The findings emanating from this cross-sectional survey only

describe what heads of schools do at the time of collecting data and may not necessarily represent the true picture of what they do every day. To mitigate this shortfall, I decided to have informal discussion with some teachers and observation on how heads of schools perform their curriculum leadership roles. The interaction centred on what their heads of schools do daily.

Second, there are various variables that contribute to students' academic performance. This study isolated and investigated the curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools as a variable that influence students' academic performance. However, the study did not control home variables (e.g, socioeconomic status of parents) in its prediction of academic performance using curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools. That is, extraneous variables have not been controlled in this study. As a result, the findings of this study may not exactly bring out the exact contribution of the curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools to academic performance of students. To mitigate this, the study took into consideration the views of teachers and heads of schools to measure the contribution of curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools in students' academic performance.

Third, the use of sequential explanatory mixed design also has some challenges. This is so because those teachers who participated in the administration of the questionnaire and were to participate in the focus group discussion may dominate in the discussion. This may constraint the others who did not participate in the questionnaire to speak their mind but to endorse what the former might have said. This was controlled by sometimes directing the questions to those who never participated in the filling of the questionnaire.

Definition of Terms

SHS Education in Ghana

According to Ghana Education Service [GES] (2010), secondary education was to reinforce the knowledge and skills acquired at the basic level, cater for development of different talents and skills and to inculcate in students the longing for self-improvement. At the beginning of the 2007/2008 academic year, the New Educational Reform commenced, changing the name from senior secondary schools (SSSs) to senior high schools (SHSs). The duration was also changed from 3 years to 4 years. After the change of government in 2009, the duration was reversed to 3 years.

According to the Ministry of Education (2014), basic education shall now be 11 years, made up of: 2 years of kindergarten, 6 years of primary school and 3 years of junior high school (JHS). At the end of JHS, students take the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). It is the level from which qualified candidates are selected and placed into different streams at the SHS, comprising general education, technical, vocational and agricultural and training (TVET) or enter into an apprenticeship scheme with some support from the Government. SHSs offer four core subjects: English language, Mathematics, Integrated Science and Social Studies; and one of the following course programmes: Agriculture, Business, Technical, Vocational, (Home Economics or Visual Arts), or General (Arts or Science). At the end of the three-year SHS course, students will be required to write the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (WASSCE). The results of WASSCE determine whether or not students can enter university.

Curriculum Enactment

According to Nolet and McLaughlin (2000), curriculum enactment “is the operationalization of the intended curriculum and reflects the decisions a teacher makes during implementation (p.12).” Since what happens in the classroom is not only teacher’s activities alone, Porter and Smithson (2001) viewed curriculum enactment as how teachers and students engage and interact with curricular content in the classroom. Synder, Bolin and Zumwalt (1992), expanded the definition of enacted curriculum to encompass a co-construction of educational experiences by teachers and students. Synder et al. (1992) suggested that curriculum enactment is a transactional process where teachers and students interact, construct, and make meaning of the curriculum and educational experiences within context. In this work, curriculum enactment is therefore the interaction between teachers and learners in or outside classroom-engineered activities through which educational goals are translated into content, materials, and methods to bring about desired learning outcomes in learners.

Curriculum Leadership

Leithwood (1994) defines curriculum leadership as a series of behaviours designed to affect classroom instruction. Such behaviours include heads of schools informing teachers about new educational strategies and tools for effective instruction and assisting teachers in critiquing these strategies and tools to determine their applicability in the classroom (Leithwood, 1994; Whitaker, 1998). Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) define six dimensions of curriculum leadership: (a) identifying and articulating a vision, (b) fostering the acceptance of group goals (c) providing individualized support (d) providing

intellectual stimulation, (e) providing appropriate modelling/mentoring, and (f) holding high performance expectations; while Andrews and Soder (1987) describe a curriculum leader as a resource provider, an instructional resource, a communicator, and one visibly present in the school. Curriculum leadership, therefore means leading and managing the school curriculum for effective teaching and learning to bring about desired changes in learners.

School Categories

Public Senior High Schools in Ghana are grouped into Categories: Category 1, 2, and 3 schools. According to GES (2010), Category 1 represents schools which are not endowed with facilities and academic performance is below average. Category 2 are schools which are averagely endowed with facilities and their academic performance is also average. Category 3 are schools with high academic performance and well-endowed facilities.

Academic Performance

The academic performance of a school in this study refers to the number of students who obtained six credits in three core subjects (English Language, Core Mathematics and either Integrated Science or Social Studies) and three electives. Where the proportion of the students in a school who obtained six credits in WASSCE is more than 50% of the total number of students who sat for the WASSCE in the school, then the school is regarded as high academic performing school. If the proportion is lower than 50% then it is referred to as low academic performing school. On the other hand, if it is 50% then it is referred to an average academic performing school.

Organisation of the Study

This thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter One provides a general introduction to the study. It deals with the background of the research, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study as well as research questions and hypotheses. Also included in the chapter are the significance delimitation, limitation and definition of terms of the study.

Chapter Two covers the theoretical and conceptual issues guiding the study and the related empirical studies. It is divided into two sections. The theoretical framework and related conceptual issues are discussed in the first section. The second section focuses on the roles that heads of the schools are expected to play in the enactment of the curriculum. It is on the basis of these roles that the study assumes its identity. The last part of this section deals with empirical studies which show the effects of heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles on students' academic performance. This chapter ends with a summary of the literature reviewed and its implication for the current study.

The third chapter covers the design and procedures employed for the study. The sample and instrumentation are clearly described in this chapter. The last section of the chapter deals with procedures adopted for gathering and analysing the data.

The fourth chapter presents and discusses the results of the study. The final chapter presents a summary of the findings and conclusions. Recommendations for policy and practice based on the research findings are offered, and suggestions for further study are also made.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The success of what is done in the school is attributable to the head of a school (Lydia & Nasongo, 2009). This is because the head of a school is the pivot around which many aspects of school life revolve, being the person in charge of every detail of running the school, be it academic or administrative. Consequently, schools can make a difference in student achievement and the heads of schools' leadership is one factor determining that difference. As Konchar (1988) explains:

The school is as great as the head, because everything in the school, the plant, the staff, the curriculum methods and techniques of teaching... human relationships, bear the impress of his or her personality'. Schools do not become great because of magnificent buildings but because of magnificent heads (p. 13).

It is therefore important that the performance of students in a school is appraised against the performance of the person who leads it. In this chapter, literature has been reviewed under the following sub-topics:

1. Theoretical Framework
2. Conceptual Discussion
3. Roles of a Curriculum Leader
4. Heads of Schools' Curriculum Leadership Roles and Students' Academic Performance.
5. Challenges Heads of schools Encounter in Enacting the School Curriculum in their Schools.

6. Related Empirical Studies.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws its identity from two theories: theory X and theory Y advanced by McGregor and community of learning theory by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger.

Theory X postulates that students and teachers are lazy and will always avoid responsibility. To achieve high performance, the head of a school needs to manage classroom instructions through coercion, control and even threaten them (Okumbe, 1998). In this leadership style, such a leader can be described as an autocratic leader. The heads of schools who exhibit autocratic leadership style always have their way in all decision making with minimum involvement of teachers and students if any. However, teachers who are not comfortable with such leadership style are likely to leave the school. Though decision making will be fast, it kills the initiatives of teachers and students.

The management of classroom instruction also requires the head of a school to be deeply involved in classroom instruction, which includes supervising how teachers teach and monitoring students' learning. Similarly, Nike (2014) has identified the roles of the head of a school as consisting of supervising, monitoring, assessing, evaluating and disseminating current information on educational issues and modern teaching techniques to teachers to motivate them to work to improve upon the academic performance of students. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) have explained that leadership has two functions: providing direction and exercising influence. Leaders mobilize and work with others to achieve shared goals. This definition of leadership,

according to Leithwood and Riehl (2003), has the following important implications:

- i. Leaders do not merely impose goals on followers but work with others to create a shared sense of purpose and direction.
- ii. Leaders primarily work through and with other people. They also help to establish the conditions that enable others to be effective. Thus, leadership effects on school goals are indirect as well as direct.
- iii. Leadership is a function more than a role. Although leadership is often invested in or expected of persons in positions of formal authority, leadership encompasses a set of functions that may be performed by many different persons in different roles throughout a school.

As curriculum leaders, heads of schools are expected to influence the behaviours of students and teachers among other stakeholders, and in reciprocal raise the standard of students' performance to greater heights (Barasa & Ngugi, 1990). The head of a school also leads improvement of the school climate by ensuring that there is a high standard of excellence, with high expectations that the school community and for that matter all stakeholders in educating students shall uphold.

Theory Y postulates that teachers and students are human beings and therefore the role of a head is to provide an enabling environment that enable teachers and students to realise the potential they are endowed with. Hallinger (2003) conceptualises that the head of school should define the school's mission and promote a positive school learning climate for all stakeholders. According to Hallinger (2003), defining the school's mission includes working with teachers to ensure that the school has clear and measurable goals that are clearly

communicated throughout the school community. These goals are primarily concerned with the academic progress of the students. The heads of schools should be able to manage and deploy school resources efficiently, guide curriculum implementation and change, and create professional ethos within the schools by involving teachers and other stakeholders in decision-making (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1997).

The democratic leadership style is akin to Theory Y. When heads of schools exhibit this type of leadership style, teachers and students are motivated to contribute in decision making for the school. Though this leadership style may delay in decision making, it worthwhile since teachers and students take ownership of whatever has been agreed upon. The implication is that the heads of schools who exhibit such leadership style is able to provide a very conducive platform where the head, teachers and students share ideas about how academic excellence can be achieved.

McGregor's theories were adopted for this study because academic performance of students depends on how heads lead and manage curriculum enactment in the classroom. In this regard, Pricket, Wallman, Petrie, White, and Cline (1993) posit that the curriculum leadership of the head of a school plays a pivotal role in "student achievement as well as the overall success of the teaching and learning process, goal setting, managing instruction, their manner in which they supervise and evaluate the teaching and providing teacher development programmes for success" (p.104).

The shortfall of theory X and theory Y is that there is no empirical evidence to show that a leader who applies any of them or both can bring about high productivity or otherwise in an organisation. Also, since both theories deal

with human beings whose behaviour cannot be predicted, no amount of coercion nor cajoling can bring about high productivity. Besides, the theories did not indicate how a leader should apply each one of them nor at what stage in the administration of an organisation must any of them be applied.

Nevertheless, leading and managing curriculum enactment in the classroom requires the head of a school to put in place rules and regulations governing the enactment process and to ensure full compliance by both teachers and students. In the same vein, the head of a school needs to create a conducive environment for both teachers and students to play their respective roles towards academic performance of students. The implication is that if the head of a school provides a stimulating environment with the necessary teaching and learning materials and lead in the teaching and learning process, high academic performance of students is likely to be achieved. Hence this study fits appropriately in the realm of McGregor's theory.

The concept of community of learning theory on the other hand is based on a broader social learning theory for thinking about how learning takes place in its social dimensions. Community of learning theory explains how stakeholders (head, teachers and students) interact in the teaching and learning process to achieve high educational standards. This theory was developed by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger while studying apprenticeship as a learning model. Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger argue that a community of practice has three characteristics; domain, community and practice. Domain according to them means the shared interest while community is the people who share the same interest and the practice entails what each person does to achieve the shared interest.

Thus, in a school as a system, the head of a school, the teachers and the students constitute the community and what each category does is the practice and their collective shared interest is students' academic performance. Therefore, students' academic performance is a shared responsibility amongst stakeholders (head, teachers and students) who should perform their respective roles well to achieve the desired outcome of education. Accordingly, the core role of the head of a school in the community of learning is to provide professional leadership and management for the teachers and students to influence their behaviours for students to achieve high academic performance (Sigilai, 2013).

For the heads of schools to play their roles effectively and efficiently, they must possess certain qualities. Hoy and Miskel (1991) identify six of these qualities that a curriculum leader must possess. They are capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, humour and status. Piotrowski and Rock (1963) on the other hand identify some characteristics of successful heads of schools that could be applied to effective curriculum leadership. Some of the characteristics that Piotrowski and Rock (1963) intimate are (a) ability to work at a "mad pace", (b) ability to meet all people from all walks of life, (c) interest in events in the personal lives of people, (d) capacity to deal with both concrete and abstract problems, and (e) assistance in decision-making and humility in advice.

Robbins (1980) recognises that in a school, as in any system, the inability of the heads of schools to play their role as required has an impact on all other subsystem components. Saleemi (1997), in agreement with Robbins (1980), argued that heads of schools, teachers and students must work in harmony to achieve the overall goals. When the question on what heads of

schools do when they engage in collaborative curriculum enactment, Leithwood and Jantzas cited in Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Terry Orr and Cohen (2007) intimate that the most critical areas of focus include (a) setting direction by developing a consensus around vision, goals, and direction; (b) helping individual teachers through support, modelling and supervision; (c) redesigning the organisation to foster collaboration and engage families and community; and (d) managing the organisation by strategically allocating resources and support.

A review by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) (also cited in Darling-Hammond, et. al, 2007) adds to this list of development of collective teacher capacity and engagement. Finally, in considering the kind of “transformational leadership” that fundamentally changes school organisations, Silins, Mulford and Zarins (2002) add to factors such as setting a vision, providing support to teachers, and establishing a supportive culture, the importance of establishing a participatory decision-making structure that encourages intellectual stimulation and holds high performance expectations for teachers and students. Silins et al. (2002) found that these factors are strong predictors of organisational learning and that they also directly affect teacher outcomes, such as teacher motivation and sense of empowerment and eventually influence students’ academic performance.

The community of learning believes that when all these stakeholders play their roles well, students will perform well in national examinations. This, Hoban (2002) and Cassidy et al. (2008) explain that high academic performance is as a result of collaborative efforts of stakeholders in education who are able to provide cross-fertilisation of roles through both interaction and participation. The current study sought to determine the roles that heads of schools play in

this context and their effects on students' academic performance. Thus, this study also fits appropriately into community of learning theory.

The selection of these theories is based on the belief that, the roles that heads of schools play invariably affect quality of teaching and learning and eventually leads to high academic performance. Thus, classroom instruction is a shared endeavour, with heads, teachers and students learning and leading interdependently so that the school achieves its goals (Marks & Printy, 2003; Printy, 2008). When heads create the opportunities and conditions (e.g. professional learning opportunities, setting compelling intellectual challenges, promoting teachers' leadership capacities, and making multiple and frequent connections to teachers work in their classrooms) for teachers to interact with them, the chance that teaching in classroom improves is greater (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Printy, 2008). In this community of learning, the heads play a critical role in influencing how teachers learn to improve their instructional techniques and how students learn so as to bring about desirable academic performance (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). As such, when teachers and students pull in the same direction as the head, good things happen for students.

The community of learning theory looks at what people with the same interest do collectively to achieve the set down objectives. What is missing in this theory is that the roles individuals in the community of interest play are not clearly indicated, except the intimation that such roles are complementary. McGregor's theories require heads of schools to either coerce or motivate others depending upon the orientation to bring about high academic performance. He fails to indicate the specific roles heads play in any of the situations.

I have therefore combined these theories and filtered out the roles that heads of SHSs play in the classroom context in an effort to determine the effects these roles have on students' performance.

Conceptual Framework

Within the theoretical framework for the study are certain concepts that drive the study. These are presented in Figure 1 and discussed thereafter.

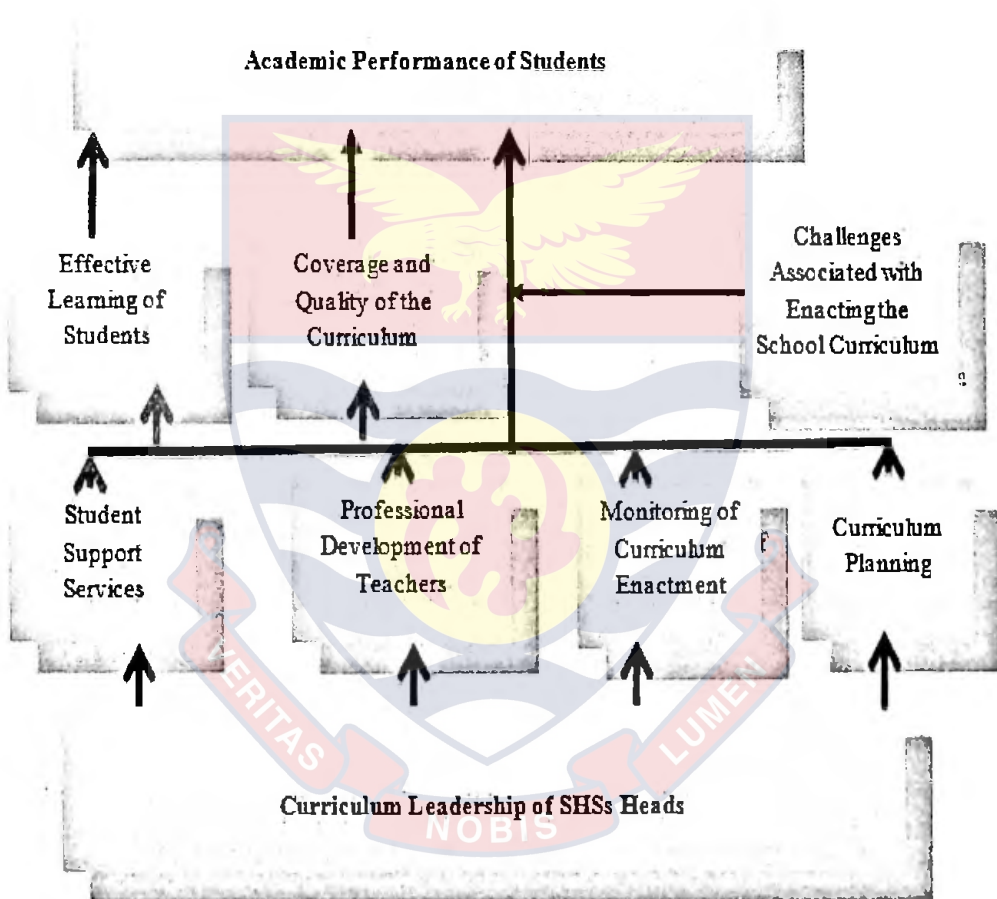


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Author's construct (2017)

As indicated in Figure 1, curriculum leadership of the head takes a four-prong approach. That is, the curriculum leadership of the heads may take the form of student support services, professional development of teachers, curriculum planning and/or monitoring of curriculum enactment. This

relationship is depicted through the flow of the arrows to those elements from this present theme. It can be deduced from the conceptual framework that the execution of these roles by the head could be done simultaneously or in turns. The performance of these roles by the head either effectively or not will have a consequence on their students' academic performance.

As indicated in Figure 1, curriculum planning has a nexus with monitoring of curriculum enactment, coverage and quality of the curriculum, challenges associated with enacting the school curriculum and improved academic performance. In terms of the linkage between curriculum planning and monitoring of curriculum enactment, it means that when the head teacher leads in the planning of the curriculum, they put in measures to monitor its enactment. This they do to make sure that they maintain or achieve coverage and quality of the curriculum. The execution of these roles is to promote students' academic performance. However, in the performance of these functions, they encounter certain challenges. These challenges may serve as obstacles to the heads of schools' ability to influence students' academic performance through the execution of their curriculum leadership functions.

On the issue of monitoring of curriculum enactment, observation from Figure 1 is that it directly links to coverage of the curriculum, quality teaching and challenges associated with enacting the school curriculum. The motive for monitoring of the curriculum enactment is to ensure coverage of the curriculum and quality teaching. In the performance of the monitoring of the curriculum enactment by the heads of SHSs they are faced with certain challenges and these challenges may limit their ability to ensure that the coverage and quality of the curriculum is achieved.

Concerning student support services as shown in Figure 1, three arrows radiate from it to effective learning of students, coverage of the curriculum and challenges associated with enacting the school curriculum. In terms of the connection of student support services impacting on effective learning of students, it illustrates that support services that the heads of the SHSs provide for the students are geared towards creating environment conducive for effective learning of students in school. Nonetheless, in the performance of the role of providing support services to their students, the heads meet certain challenges that could derail all their efforts to create a good learning environment for their students.

From Figure 1, professional development of teachers leads to coverage and quality of the curriculum, effective learning of students, challenges associated with enacting the school curriculum and academic performance of students. An arrow links professional development of teachers to coverage and quality of curriculum. Furthermore, with respect to the relationship between professional development of teachers and effective learning of students, it signifies that professional teacher development leads to effective learning of students. Again, the nexus between professional development of teachers and academic performance of students implies that teachers' professional development directly impinges on students' level of academic performance. In executing teachers' professional development, it is not without challenges and these challenges may tend to limit the positive impact teacher professional development comes with.

In terms of effective learning of students as indicated in Figure 1, it is associated with academic performance of students. This relationship means that

effective learning of students influences the academic performance of students. This indicates that when students are not learning effectively, it could lead the students to poor academic performance, and the vice versa holds true. For coverage of the curriculum and quality teaching, it is shown in Figure 1 that it is linked to academic performance of students. This illustrates that the coverage of the curriculum and quality teaching influence the extent of academic performance of students. Invariably, where there is good coverage and quality teaching, it is expected to translate into better academic performance of students. On the contrary, where coverage and quality teaching is nothing to write home about, it is expected that it will negatively affect the academic performance of students.

With respect to challenges associated with enacting the school curriculum, it directly influences the academic performance of students. In a situation where the challenges seem unsurmountable, then, it means that will lead to poor academic performance of students. On the other hand, where the challenges are minimal and within manageable levels, academic performance of students will not suffer negatively. In connection with the academic performance of students, it is clear that a network of factors individually or acting in a group lead to this phenomenon. This illustrates that academic performance is the dependent variable while all the curriculum leadership roles are the independent variables.

Roles of a Curriculum Leader

Planning activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom

For any school curriculum to achieve the desired outcomes, there is the need for stakeholders to undertake vigorous planning of activities for the

enactment of curriculum in the classroom. Curriculum planning requires decision making, which is, choosing from among alternative strategies of enacting the curriculum (Lee & Dimmock, 1999). Olibie (2013), in a related opinion, sees curriculum planning as a process of formulating and selecting curriculum objectives and content as well as the actions to achieve them. In essence, planning activities for the enactment of a curriculum in the classroom refers to drawing a scheme of work from the syllabuses, preparing lesson plans, preparing appropriate teaching and learning materials, identifying and selecting appropriate teaching and learning strategies and making the content simplified for all categories of learners to participate effectively in the classroom interaction.

A vast literature is available in relation to the role of heads of schools in schools' curriculum planning (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Blase & Blase, 2000; Quinn, 2002; Southworth, 2002, Jazzar & Algozzine, 2006). These authors tried to denote the significance of the influence a head of a school can exert on instructional improvement through curriculum planning. According to Hallinger and Heck (1998), the involvement of heads of SHSs in curriculum planning activities will strengthen teachers' capacity to prepare a motivating lesson plans for students in order to be able to fulfil the anticipated goals of the school. Cardino (1990), in support of this assertion, demands that heads of schools display commitment to improving teaching and learning through their active involvement in planning curriculum activities.

The argument in favour of heads' curriculum leadership assumes that students' achievement of curriculum objectives depends, in part, on the nature and quality of instruction they encounter in the classroom (Carr as cited in

Olibie, 2013). However, Olibie (2013) argues that the quality of instruction is itself highly dependent upon multiple critical system components – such as the quality of the teacher, the soundness of the curriculum, the appropriateness of the teaching methods and so on. In turn, Olibie (2013) further argues that the strength of these system components depends upon the degree to which there exists a quality curriculum leadership that is capable of providing continuing resources and processes that can upgrade the quality and effectiveness of the key system components that are needed for good instruction. A lack of leadership capacity might be a factor in the failure of education institutions to systemically achieve the objectives of the curriculum (Olibie, 2013).

Consequently, the head of a school needs to plan ahead (in conjunction with the teachers and in conjunction with the parents) the activities to be undertaken during the school year (Jaiyeoba, 2004). The head of a school must give attention to both instructional and non-instructional tasks through planning and delivery of the curriculum in the classroom. Evans (1999) made the point that heads of schools who are not guided by efficient planning ‘... resort to a thoroughly “bureaucratised way of school administration” and as a result, school administration becomes an occupation that is not defined by expectations’ (p.11).

Some researchers have pointed out that heads of schools’ leadership in curriculum enactment takes three forms, namely: directly, indirectly and reciprocally (Hallinger & Heck, 1999; National College for School Leadership, n.d.; UNESCO, 2009). According to Hallinger and Heck (1999), learning-centred leaders directly influence school outcomes, some leaders affect outcomes indirectly through other variables and finally, leaders influence

reciprocally. This is when the leader affects teachers, teachers affect the leaders, and through these processes, students' outcomes are affected.

In the case of National College for School Leadership (n.d.), they note that although all three forms of influence can be seen in the work of heads, it is the indirect effects which are the largest and most common. The reason why indirect effects are the largest is because heads of schools' work with and through teachers. They do this through various processes that can be summarised as three interrelated strategies: modelling, monitoring and dialoguing. However, Bendikson, Robinson and Hattie (2012) have stated that heads of schools' instructional leadership can be direct (focused on improving teaching) or indirect (focused on creating the conditions for optimal teaching and learning). They add that in secondary schools, heads of schools are more likely to focus on indirect instructional leadership than they are in primary schools, because heads of secondary schools' work through heads of department.

First, in terms of direct instructional planning roles, it surfaced that heads of schools perform this role by supplying teachers with teaching and learning materials, going through teachers' schemes of work and lesson plans and ensuring that teachers use appropriate teaching strategies to influence students' learning and subsequently students' performance (Cuban, 1985; Garner & Bradley, 1991; Grimmitt, 1996). In this regard, Cuban (1985) said that the very origin of the position of heads of schools were teaching and helping teachers improve their instruction. This, however, is beginning to disappear as only a few heads of schools continue to take over classes when a substitute fails to show up or to teach a demonstration lesson.

Vidoni and Grasseti (2008) noted that heads of schools' engagement in curriculum planning takes the form of time spent on instructional issues entailing teaching, supervising teachers, and instructional leadership (i.e., giving demonstration lessons, discussing educational objectives with teachers, and initiating curriculum revision). Garner and Bradley (1991) have adduced that during the instructional process the heads of schools play an assisting role by helping teachers to select instructional materials and equipment as well as to construct evaluative instruments. Olembo (1992) also suggested that the provision of quality education requires that heads of schools be involved in reducing the subject matter and educational objectives into viable instructional materials within the classroom. On his part, Nike (2014), argued that the roles of the head of a school include coordinating curricular activities such as scheme of work, lesson notes, and continuous assessment towards achieving high academic performance. These activities go to support the fact that heads of schools participate directly in curriculum enactment in the classroom. Nonetheless, the literature fails to tell us the level of their participation in these activities.

Regarding the indirect role heads of schools engage in curriculum planning, the literature shows that they do that through creating an environment conducive for teaching and learning. For instance, the Wallace Foundation (2012) has indicated that shaping a vision of academic success for all students, creating a climate hospitable to education, cultivating leadership in others, improving instruction and managing people, data and processes to foster school improvement are tasks performed by school heads. In a similar vein, Robinson (2007) pointed out that curriculum leadership entails establishing goals and

expectations, strategic resourcing, planning, coordinating and evaluating teaching and the curriculum, promoting and participating in teacher learning and development, and ensuring an orderly and supportive environment.

Furthermore, in-service training provision came up as one of the ways through which the heads of schools participate in curriculum planning (Trump, 1981; Garner & Bradley, 1991; Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Grimmitt, 1996; New Leaders for New Schools, 2010). In connection with this, Trump (1981) indicated that heads of schools should make sure that in-service programmes address areas of teachers' concern. This should be done by sending the teachers to workshops and professional meetings. Again, orientation and assistance programmes should be organised for new and beginning teachers.

Blasé and Blasé (1999), on the other hand, reported that heads of schools execute the curriculum leadership roles by talking with teachers to promote reflection, making suggestions, giving feedback, modelling, promoting professional growth, supporting collaboration among teachers, developing coaching relationships among teachers, encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes and implementing action research to inform instructional decision making. Grimmitt (1996) re-echoes the need for curriculum leaders to be in touch with teachers by helping them to frame their inquiry and connecting their action with students' learning. Other researchers have shown that heads of schools participated in curriculum enactment by encouraging teachers to be creative and to apply technology when teaching (Hoffman, 1996; Meltzer & Sherman, 1997; Farnham, 2000). This indicates that through in-service training of teachers, the heads of schools are able to participate in the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom.

Moreover, heads of schools participate indirectly in enacting the curriculum through defining and communicating the mission of the school to teachers, students, and to parents (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Parker & Day, 1997). This implies that the head of a school defines and develops school goals, objectives, and standards (Wildy & Dimmock, 1993) which is supposed to reflect in activities carried out in the classrooms. Again, they maximise and protect academic learning time by enforcing school policies that minimise interruptions of scheduled classes (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Heck, 1992; Blasé & Blasé, 1999). They do this with the motive of improving teaching and learning in the school.

Other roles that heads of schools play in planning activities for curriculum enactment include gathering and dispersing information, scheduling classes, grouping of students, completing reports, and dealing with conflict between varied participants (Cuban, 1985; Trump, 1981). In a like way, Vidoni and Grasseti (2008) noted that the head of a school spends time on non-instructional issues consisting of internal administrative tasks, representing the school in the community, representing the school in official meetings, talking with parents, counselling and disciplining students, and responding to education officials' requests. The heads of schools do this to pave the way for the school to run effectively. The literature on effective schools also shows that effective heads of schools are more powerful over making decisions regarding curriculum and instruction planning than those in ineffective schools (Leithwood, Strauss & Anderson, 2007).

One can decipher from the various arguments made by the researchers that when the head of a school is actively involved in the planning of curriculum

activities there is the likelihood that the desired outcomes of student learning can be achieved. The active involvement of heads of schools in curriculum planning as alluded to may take the form of the head of a school taking part in drawing the scheme of work; supervising the preparation of lesson plans to ensure that student learn at minimal level; providing appropriate resource materials; helping teachers to adopt flexible strategies to cater for all categories of learners; and helping to create classroom environment conducive for learning. However, what the literature is silent on is the extent to which heads of schools engage in these activities. This is what this study sought to address.

Provision of students' support services

The position of a head of a SHS is very strategic and has a lot of responsibilities. One of the key roles the head of a school plays in the enactment of curriculum is to provide support services to students that would contribute to excellent performance of students. The head of a school plays a vital role in students' development by establishing an effective guidance and counselling department in the school based on students' needs. The head of a school, through counselling relationship, assists each student to understand oneself in relation to the social and psychological world in which the student lives. The student therefore, is able to accept oneself, develop personal decision-making competences and resolve personal problems (Wango & Mungai, 2007). The counselling unit has the responsibility of educating the students on how to increase their self-awareness, promote decision making process and enhance rational thinking. Wango & Mungai (2007) observed that the heads of schools support the training of teacher counsellors through sponsoring them to attend seminars and workshops and individual teacher counsellors are going for further

studies to acquire the counselling skills. This would equip the teacher counsellors to better provide services to students.

The head of a school can also provide support service to students by creating an enabling environment that would promote teaching and learning in the school. The head of a school needs to ensure that facilities in the school are in good condition for students. The students need adequate security in the school as it would give them peace of mind to concentrate on their studies. As Wawwru and Orodho (2014) posited, the head of a school should provide the best school climate to entice students to complete schooling by making school free from violence, threats, intimidations, hatred, and witch-hunting and develop rich co-curriculum, remedial interventions for slow learners to avoid repetition, frustration and dropout. The head of a school should be seen as a developer through the development of academic and co-curriculum programmes that are attractive and competitive to occupy all students while at school.

Effective supervision and monitoring of the activities of students in the school would ensure an excellent performance of students. It is the duty of the head of a school to institute proper supervision and monitoring mechanisms in the school. The head of a school should take up their roles as quality assurance officers in their schools and ensure that there is adequate departmental supervision (Mobegi, Ondigi & Oburu, 2010). Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) observed that the heads of schools' use of quality improvement measures influenced results of schools. Their study revealed that the high performing schools strongly put into consideration frequent testing and giving of feedback, remedial teaching, and controlled entry mark for students joining the school and provision of learning resources as measures to improve students' performance.

The policies, rules and regulations of the schools should be clearly communicated to the students. This would help them to conduct their activities within the confines of the rules and regulations of the school. School discipline is a system of arranging conditions for healthy learning (Okumbe, 2001). Other support services that Okumbe (2001) required heads of schools to offer to students include stakeholders (teachers, examiners and resource persons) and the creation of a conducive learning environment. According to Okumbe, these services when provided will influence students' ways of learning and eventually lead to high academic performance. It is the responsibility of the head of a school with the help of other stakeholders to establish policies and programmes, institute rules and regulations of the school and communicate these to students.

Promotion of teachers' professional development

Another related role that the head of a school plays that has influence on students' outcomes is the professional development of teachers. Staff development is not just for beginning teachers but even for those who are experienced. According to Petrie and McGee (2012), professional development programme for teachers is recognised as a key vehicle that has consequential effect on how teachers teach and, in turn, influence student achievement. One can also look at teacher professional development as a systematic manner of introducing teachers to innovative strategies of enacting the school curriculum. The head of a school is expected to take the lead in determining which staff development is most beneficial and how it should best be implemented.

Heads of schools are therefore assigned the roles of maintaining and developing teachers in their respective schools, through a number of teacher professional development support services they may provide. These teacher

professional development support services may include induction programmes, delegation of duties, motivational activities and training and workshop programmes (Knezevich, 1984). If heads of schools lack the competencies in terms of providing these services, then there is the likelihood that the expected performance of teachers would not be achieved which will intend affect the academic performance of students negatively. This is because teachers' competencies and capacities have a far-reaching consequence on students' academic performance.

The most effective head of a school is the one who can motivate and sustain teachers to put up their best even under deplorable conditions (Rebore, 2001). To buttress this assertion, researchers are of the view that though it is teacher performance that directly affects student performance, quality of leadership matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of their teaching (Cheng, 2002; Evans, 1999; Sergiovanni, 2001).

The implication is that if selfless and hardworking teachers are given all the necessary support by their heads of schools all other things held constant it is expected that they would perform to the best of their capabilities so as to influence the academic performance of students. The Ministry of Education (MoE) in conjunction with the Ghana Education Service (GES) has policies on teacher professional development programmes to support teachers in their field of work (Hammond & Dzovor, 2007). For successful implementation of new curricula, staff development is essential. Professional staff development is a domain associated with the role head of a school plays (Mullican & Ainsworth, 1979).

It is on this basis that Range (1977) and Garner and Bradley (1991) called upon heads of schools to assist in the professional development of their teaching staff. This has become necessary because of the need to improve academic performance in schools as the performances in many schools are on the decline (Garner & Bradley, 1991). Teacher professional development should be seen as an ongoing process of helping teachers to acquire new knowledge, skills and competencies to be able to meet the technological advancement of the society. In-service education and training is an aspect of teacher professional development that entails a system of life-long learning whereby teachers continuously improve their skills, knowledge and attitudes while on their teaching task (Farrel, Kerry & Kerry, 1995; Oldroyd, Elsner & Poster, 1996).

Elmore (2001), Firestone (1996), Guskey (2000) and Dean (1991) suggested that teacher development programmes are the process by which teachers learn to be more effective and efficient. These programmes focus on the improvement of learners' experiences through teacher enhancement of their knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. These authors suggest further that the essential purpose of teacher development programmes is to improve the whole school system and not just the individuals thereof. Professional development should be seen as a process by which teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop their knowledge, skills and attitudes (Day, 1999; Dean, 1991).

Empirical evidence shows that heads of schools put in mechanisms to support teachers' professional development (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; New

Leaders for New Schools, 2010). For example, in promoting professional growth, heads of schools use the following strategies: supporting collaborative efforts among teachers; developing coaching relationships among teachers; encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes; and implementing action research to inform instructional decision-making (Blasé & Blasé, 1999;). Similarly, Leithwood and Riehl (2003) and New Leaders for New Schools (2010) have noted that effective school leaders establish conditions that support teachers' professional growth, offer intellectual stimulation and challenge their staff to examine assumptions about their work, and provide information and resources to help people see discrepancies between current and desired practices.

These researchers have not clarified the definition of effective school leaders. To attribute effective school leaders to only those who provide professional development programmes to teachers without considering a basket of roles relating to curriculum enactment remain vague. This is so because heads of schools have their priorities such as creating a good environment for students to learn, monitoring and supervising teachers to ensure quality teaching and they can also perform credibly well in one or more of their roles. The ability of the head of a school to perform efficiently and effectively in one area does not make the head of a school an effective leader.

Robinson (2007) argued that the more leadership is focused on teaching and learning and the professional development of teachers, the greater its impact. This is because teachers shape curriculum enactment in the classrooms (Milner, 2003). In addition, Remillard (1997) suggested that teachers play a more direct role in enacting the curriculum as they make the final decision about

what to teach. Furthermore, Timperley and Robinson (2000) indicated that teachers might need assistance to take a new and different approach to tackling the variety of demands placed on them in the classroom. This means that no teacher can claim to be a master of all knowledge and skills, hence, will require further professional development from the head of a school.

In this light, Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliot and Cravens (2007) reported that learning-centred heads of schools help teachers use data to identify individual students who need remedial assistance, tailor instruction to individual students' needs, identify and correct gaps in the curriculum, improve the involvement of parents in student learning, and assign students to classes or groups. Furthermore, effective leaders use data to help teachers identify areas where they need to strengthen content knowledge or teaching skills.

According to Putnam and Borko (1997), teachers require changes in their knowledge, beliefs, and practice to achieve goals such as helping students to construct understanding, develop expertise, and encourage the use of higher cognitive skills. This is where the heads' roles come in handy. In this regard, Tal, Krajcik and Blumenfeld (2006) noted that this effort is not just a case of learning new strategies or techniques but changing the overall perception of teaching and acquiring a new set of beliefs that direct future practice. They add that in professional-development efforts, teachers are to understand and focus on the central ideas by suggesting and applying various adaptations to the relevant settings.

The need to give support services to teachers is recognised as the only way to maintain and sustain teachers in the teaching profession (Owolabi & Edzii, 2000). To retain the services of high quality teachers, the needs of

teachers should be one of the top most priorities for all heads of schools. Accordingly, Alhassan (2014) emphasised that “teachers’ ability to translate instructional plans and strategies into reality and stimulate student learning will depend only on how supportive the head of a school is which would further reflect in their students’ performance” (p. 28). This suggests that heads of schools have to be more focused on the provision of support services for teacher professional development in their school which should include: induction programmes; decision making programmes; delegation of duties; supervision; motivation and staff development (Knezevich, 1984).

Rebore (1982) identified induction as a process designed to acquaint the newly recruited individual with the school system and the relationships he/she should develop to be a successful teacher. He recognized three levels of induction: the personal adjustment level; the information level; and the motivational level. At the personal adjustment level Rebore expects the new teacher to know, and to be known to, all categories of members of the school to enable him/her to interact effectively with them. The dimension of information level requires the newly recruited teacher to be provided with all information concerning the school and the community in which he/she is to teach. The aspect of this information that the new teacher needs to have are pupils’ attitude to all school’s activities including studies and class assignment; discipline; class size; and location of resource materials. Rebore further explained that the motivation level allows the new teacher to be made aware of the benefits he/she is entitled to, chances of in-service training as well as clubs and societies that he/she might want to join. Again, the new teacher needs to know the hazards of teaching.

According to Rebore (2001), heads of schools often neglect or loosely organise induction programmes for teachers. Induction programmes for new teachers is a crucial task for heads of schools because teachers who are new to the school environment encounter a variety of problems like adjusting to the school environment, understanding the school regulations, how to procure instructional materials, whom to contact when in need, what text books are recommended as well as what instructional strategies are recommended. In another breadth, Rebore (2001) opined that, potentially capable teachers have resigned their positions as teachers due to unpleasant and frustrating initial experiences in schools that lack effective and comprehensive orientation programmes. The lack of induction for new teachers in an institution can lead to frustration and abysmal performance on their part which will eventual influence students' performance at final examination.

Some studies have found that heads of schools' leadership roles have a positive impact on teachers' professional development (Shabaan & Qureshi, 2006; Wallace Foundation, 2012). The study by Wallace Foundation (2012) showed a strong relationship between the head of a school's leadership and the professional development of teachers, though this had an indirect effect on student' academic performance. Also, Shabaan and Qureshi (2006) reported that the experiences of carrying out leadership tasks through their involvement in the process of planning and developing different activities for teacher development had positive impact on teachers' work. It emerged that the teachers' classroom practices had improved. In addition, teachers displayed higher motivation towards work.

However, the mere fact that teachers are motivated to teach, and in fact if they teach well, may not translate into desired students' outcome. Other factors such as the motivation of the student, the learning environment and how heads of schools support the professional development of teachers in general have equal effect on student outcomes. One therefore must be conscious in making definite conclusion -cause-effect on academic performance.

Akudolu and Olibie (2009) found inadequate provision of curriculum and instructional support to teachers by the head. The stark realities of teacher professional development are accentuated by a study done by Menlo and Poppleton (1990). The study which clearly showed the necessity for teachers to be professionally developed was based on the conviction that the quality of teachers influences the quality of the learners' experience and achievement in a positive way. According to Mestry, Hendricks and Bisschoff (2009), the political discourse in South Africa is that the quality of teachers is judged by measuring students' achievement.

The professional teacher development programmes are essentially to improve 'the quality of teacher performance and this will consequently improve the overall performance of the education system and more particularly students' outcomes, which makes the debate about school type, school-by-school performance, and class size, among others, look irrelevant' (Mestry, Hendricks & Bisschoff, 2009, p. 475). According to Bradley (1991), Sybouts and Wendel (1994) and Craft (2000), the reasons for professional development is to improve the professional knowledge and understanding and job performance skills of teachers which will contribute positively to the development of the school and student success. The main purpose of teacher professional development is to

promote student learning and achievement, and this is supported by Joyce's (1993) statement that teacher development programmes should be about student academic performance and professional growth.

The literature is silent as to whether the heads of schools have the capacity to execute activities that would contribute to their teachers' professional development. In particular, the literature does not say whether all teachers' in a school's professional competences be developed at a go or must it be in batches. Furthermore, the studies reviewed did not show the extent to which the professional development of teachers affects students' academic performance. Again, the literature is mute on which professional competences of the teachers are to be given priority in the process.

Monitoring of curriculum enactment to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction

Emphasising the importance of monitoring, Yang (2014) opined that heads of schools need to monitor more when the teachers are not very reliable or when the classes have bad performance. Yang claimed that monitoring can significantly explain some of the variations between students among schools in WASSCE test scores in 2011. It is on this basis that De Grauwe (2001) asked national authorities to hold heads of schools accountable for any laxity in the monitoring of the enactment of school curriculum.

Many researchers believe that monitoring of the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom has the potential of improving classroom practices and contributing to student success through the professional growth and improvement of teachers (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Musaazi, 1985; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Levine and Lezotte (1990), concurred this assertion and indicate

that personal monitoring of school progress by the head of a school has been shown as a predictor of students' achievement. It is in the light of this that most researchers are of the view that heads of schools who routinely visit and observe the interactions between the teacher and the learner in the classroom, participate in team planning of curricular activities, and pay close attention to student performance within their school will eventually lead to high academic performance of students (Elmore, 2000; Fink & Resnick, 2001; McCallum, 1999). Furthermore, it has been argued that when the head of a school personally interacts with his/her teachers in relation with how best to enact the curriculum to ensure quality teaching and coverage of the syllabus it can affect positive change in students' behaviours (Deal & Peterson, 1990).

Murphy (1990) found that effective heads of schools utilise several monitoring strategies, including (a) using assessment to inform instruction; (b) communicating information on student data to all stakeholders; (c) constantly evaluating the instructional quality and coverage; and (d) monitoring the academic progress of students. Effective heads of schools have also been shown to routinely use school- and student-level data to guide programmatic and instructional decisions (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Reynolds & Stringfield, 1996; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001). In a study, Heck (1992) discovered that effective heads of schools use test results to monitor programme improvement as a mechanism to focus on systematic accountability. Moreover, heads of schools check and mark lesson plans of teachers to ensure that adequate and quality activities and content are presented to students and they also supervise and evaluate instructional activities of teachers through observation of teaching and learning in the classroom (Wedman, 1982; Wildy & Dimmock,

1993; Parker & Day, 1997; McAdams, 1998; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Hatta, 2009; Boggan, 2014).

Boggan (2014) found in a study that monitoring and evaluation is one of the most important leadership practices. For Marzano et al. (2005), out of 21 identified leadership responsibilities, monitoring and evaluation emerged a statistically significant factor. Hatta (2009) pointed out that the monitoring of student progress, maintaining high visibility and enforcing academic standards are some of the roles played by the head of a school. Similarly, Musungu and Nasongo (2008) indicated that the head of a school's instructional role included regular checking of teachers' professional records, regular class supervision, and management plan for carrying out curriculum goals.

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), monitoring is viewed as a collaborative effort among heads, teachers and students who engage in dialogue for the purpose of improving instruction which logically will result in bringing about improvement in students' learning and eventually leading to high academic performance by students. To achieve the objectives of monitoring, heads of schools should generally be engaged in advising and supporting teachers (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002) and also inspecting, controlling and evaluating teachers' lesson delivery to ensure quality instruction and coverage of the curriculum.

In a related way, Blasé and Blasé (1999) suggested that teachers do their best work when they are motivated and monitored. They noted that effective instructional leadership impacts positively on teacher motivation, satisfaction, self-esteem, efficacy, and teachers' sense of security and their feelings of support. The heads of schools monitoring of academic activities also include

observing and checking teachers' and students' work, maintaining students' discipline, helping in eradicating cheating in examinations among students, supervising classroom interaction between teachers and students and ensuring that all departments have enough teachers and hold regular meetings.

Nike (2014) explained that the way the head of a school manages school activities may influence how teachers teach, how much students learn and the overall performance of students. This is because all important decisions in the school are made with the consent of the heads. Mwamuye, Mulambe, Cherutoch (2012) found out that monitoring of teachers' activities is associated with performance. Hallinger and Heck (1997) noted that the heads of schools set the academic tone, evaluate and help improve the skills of the teachers and staff under them. They further stated that heads of schools visit the classrooms, observe teaching methods, review instructional objectives and examine learning materials for quality of instruction and coverage of the curriculum in the classroom. Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004) concurred by stating that heads' structuring of teachers' working conditions have both direct and indirect effects on teaching and student achievement. They suggested that heads of schools should devote more time to the coordination and control of instruction, perform more observations of teachers' work; discuss with teachers the problems associated with their work and be more supportive of teachers' efforts in improve students' achievement.

Monitoring also entails that the head of a school identifies the needs of teachers and help them achieve their own performance goals. According to Gross and Herriott (1965), when heads of schools encourage and acknowledge

teachers' good work it will have a positive impact on teacher morale leading to increased teacher effort and subsequently on student performance.

A study conducted by Eshiwani (1983) found that schools, which performed consistently well, tended to have sound and efficient leadership. Eshiwani attributed poor results of students to the armchair heads of schools who do not know what goes on in the classroom. Eshiwani further asserted that heads of schools are instrumental in students' performance for they monitor closely all the activities which take place in the classroom, organise the learning process for their students, and mobilize and motivate the teachers.

Yet, there is no empirical evidence about the relationship between monitoring and performance in Ghanaian public schools. Generally, the claim that schools which performed consistently well, tend to have sound and efficient leadership is based on anecdotes and assumptions. But since Eshiwani did not directly investigate this relationship, we remain unable to judge the validity of this tentative explanation. That is, there remain insufficient empirical evidence to assess this claim and as such this study.

School Head Curriculum Leadership Roles and Student Learning

According to Portin, Alejano, Knapp and Marzolf (2006), the most unifying concern for schools today is for all students to experience academic success. Accordingly, there has been a sea of change in thinking about the relationship between students' academic success and curriculum leadership of heads of educational institutions; thus, putting in place a new reference point for heads of schools' work: the "core activity" of teaching and learning (Portin, Alejano, Knapp & Marzolf, 2006). Leithwood and Riehl (2003) described this trend:

The current educational reform context suggests that leadership should be directed specifically toward key outcome goals ... Leadership as focused on and accountable for learning is the genesis of such phrases as “leading for learning”, “learning-focused leadership,” or “learner-centred” accountability.... This explicitly learning-focused goal for leadership does not narrow school leaders’ purview to the instructional system per se (as did earlier notions of instructional leadership). Rather it assumes that leaders will direct their attention to ensuring that all components and actions within the educational system support the learning of students (p. 8).

The impact of curriculum leadership of heads of schools on student learning in schools has been explored from many angles. The consensus is that leadership does make a difference in the learning of students in schools, and extensive meta-analyses by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003), provided grounding for responsible claims that leadership does make a difference in student learning. Bush (2007) corroborated this assertion when he alluded that quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes and that schools require effective leaders and managers to enable them to provide the best possible education for their learners.

According to Lydiah and Nasongo (2009), the heads of schools’ role is to promote academic performance. The success of what is done in the school is attributed to the head of a school. They further stated that the head of a school is the pivot around which many aspects of the school revolve, being the person in charge of every detail of running the school, be it academic or administrative. ‘Schools can make a difference to student achievement and the head of a

school's leadership is one factor determining that success' (Lydia & Nasongo, 2009, p. 84). It is therefore important that the performance of a school is appraised against the performance of the person who leads it.

The controversy is whether the impact of curriculum leadership on students' academic performance is direct or indirect. Leithwood et al. (2004) recently claim, "Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (p. 5). They further argued that while the evidence shows small but significant effects of leadership actions on student learning across the spectrum of schools, existing research also shows demonstrable effects of curriculum leadership to be considerably greater in schools that are in more difficult circumstances. Indeed, there are virtually no documented instances of troubled schools being turned around without intervention by a powerful leader (Leithwood et al., 2004). Many other factors may contribute to such turnarounds, but leadership is the catalyst.

According to Weindling (1990), in the United Kingdom most heads of schools spend an average of 20% of their time in a week on teaching. This signals that their efforts would have a direct impact on students' learning. Leadership however accounts for only three to five per cent of the variation in student learning across schools; this is about one quarter of the total variation (10 to 20%) explained by all school-level variables (Creemers & Reezigt, 1996). No matter how small the curriculum leadership of heads of schools play in explaining students learning, it is important because they control whatever happens in the school and so their efforts require recognition.

On the issue of heads of schools' role in student learning, New Leaders for New Schools (2010) noted that leaders ensure students learning through the development, implementation, and evaluation of rigorous curricula tied to both state and college-readiness standards. It adds that such leaders implement consistent quality classroom routines and instructional strategies to improve student achievement as well as recruit effective teachers. It is in the light of this that Chitiavi (2002), opined that the dream of all heads of schools, especially non-tertiary, is to get their schools placed among the best in national examination results. Accordingly, Lydiah, and Nasongo (2009) intimated that when results are eventually released, schools with good investments reap good results over which they celebrate jubilantly.

A closer investigation reveals that good performance does not just happen; it is a result of good teaching and overall effective headship. The quality of leadership makes the difference between the success and failure of a school (Millette, 1988). Millette (1988) further explained that research and inspection clarify the extent to which the quality of leadership is crucial to improvement. In highly effective schools, as well as schools which have reversed a trend of poor performance and declining achievement, it is the heads of schools who set the pace, leading and motivating pupils and staff to perform to their highest potential (Lydiah & Nasongo, 2009). It is therefore arguable that schools can make a difference to students' achievement, and heads' curriculum leadership is one of the factors which contribute to success or failure. In support of this Ofsted (2009) opined that 'it is no longer acceptable to use a child's background as an excuse for under achievement. The challenge for schools is to make a difference' (p. 6).

Many studies have linked academic performance of students to the head's curriculum leadership (Bush, 2007; Hoadley, Christie & Ward, 2009; Sammons, Gu, Day & Ko, 2011; Imhangbe, 2012; Suraya & Yunus, 2012). In connection with this, Sammons et al. (2011) indicated that leadership influences directly and indirectly on a range of school and classroom processes that affect academic performance of students. In a like manner, Imhangbe (2012) noted that the head of a school curriculum leadership constitutes an important and critical factor that influences students' learning and their academic achievement. Similarly, Suraya and Yunus (2012) discovered that the role of the head of a school is critical in determining the high-academic performance of students in examinations.

For Hoadley et al. (2009), they indicated that globally, there is a growing emphasis on the importance of effective school management and leadership in contributing to good student achievement outcomes. In the same vein, Bush (2007), pointed out that there is great interest in curriculum leadership in the early part of the 21st century because of the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes. Contrarily, Heck et al. (1990), acknowledged that the head of a school behaviours aimed at improving student achievement do not have the same direct impact on learners as do instruction by the classroom teacher. Siens and Ebmeier (1996) concur and found that while heads of schools have strong, direct effects on intermediate school variables, such as teacher attitudes, they have little direct effect on student outcomes. Quinn (2002) concluded that since heads of schools are removed from the classroom, they can only influence student achievement indirectly by working through teachers.

Hallinger and Heck (1998), stated that the most theoretically and empirically robust models used to study curriculum leadership effects show that heads of schools can influence student achievement when efforts are aimed toward influencing internal school processes. These internal processes range from school policies and norms (e.g. academic expectations, school mission, student opportunity to learn, instructional organization, academic learning time) to the practices of teachers. A number of studies reveal school goals (or sustaining a school wide purpose focusing on student learning) as a significant factor of school headship (Brewer, 1993; Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Glasman & Fuller, 1992; Goldring & Pasternak, 1994; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Heck et al., 1990; Leithwood, 1994; Silins, 1994). Leithwood et al. (2004) stated that heads' structuring of teachers' working conditions have both direct and indirect effects on teaching and student achievement.

The literature suggests that heads of schools of effective schools are those who devote more time to the coordination and control of instruction, perform more observations of teachers' work; discuss work problems with teachers; are more supportive of teachers' efforts to improve (especially by distributing instructional materials or promoting in-service training activities); and are more active in setting up teacher evaluation procedures. The literature also suggests that heads of schools of effective schools show a higher quality of human relations. Heads of schools recognise the needs of teachers and help them achieve their own performance goals. They also encourage and acknowledge teachers' good work. Gross and Herriott (1965), reported that highly effective heads of schools have a positive impact on teacher morale, leading to increased teacher effort, which has a positive impact on student performance.

Some researchers have approached the effects of heads of schools' leadership on academic performance by focusing on how they influence teaching and learning in schools. For example, Robinson (2007) reported that school leadership promoting learning tends to have a large effect on students' outcome. The pattern of relative impact suggests that the more leadership is centred on the core business of teaching and learning the greater its impact on student academic performance.

Robinson (2007) indicated that goal setting, like all the leadership dimensions has indirect effects on students by focusing and coordinating the work of the school community. In addition, in schools with higher achievement or higher achievement gains, academic goal focus is both a property of leadership and a quality of school organisation. In their study of Israeli community schools, Goldring and Pasternak (1994) found that academic excellence was not one of the top five goals in either low or high performing schools, but the latter still gave it significantly more importance than the former. Witziers, Bosker and Krüger (2003) reported that while the overall impact of leadership on students was negligible, they discovered that the direction-setting role of the leader had more impact that is direct on student outcomes. The critical issue here is to find out to what degree direction setting role influence students' academic performance.

Furthermore, strategic resourcing conducted by school leadership contributes to academic performance of students. In this regard, Robinson, Hohepa and Lloyd (2009) argued that unless heads of schools are engaged in direct teaching there is likely to be a long causal chain between the actions of heads of schools and student outcomes. Based on this, heads of schools' role

impact indirectly on student outcomes by creating conditions under which teachers who have a much more direct influence are able to be effective (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Witziers et al., 2003). For example, Robinson et. al. (2009) indicate that if heads of schools develop a budget that includes the purchase of reading materials that they believe will help students enjoy reading, they create a condition (better resources) that may indirectly influence student learning. This indirectness makes it difficult to draw a causal link between leadership and student outcomes.

In the case of Leithwood and Riehl (2003), they say that large-scale quantitative studies of schooling conclude that the effects of leadership on student learning are small but educationally significant. Leithwood and Riehl add that albeit leadership explains only about three to five per cent of the variation in student learning across schools, this effect is nearly one quarter of the total effect of all school factors. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) also found that leadership effects appear to be mostly indirect. That is, leaders influence student learning by helping to promote vision and goals, and by ensuring that resources and processes are in place to enable teachers to teach well.

New Leaders for New Schools (2010) thought otherwise by pointing out that a head of school's effectiveness is central to raising student achievement. They found that nearly 60% of a school's total impact on student achievement is attributable to head of a school and teacher effectiveness. Moreover, a comprehensive review of the research on school leadership found that the quality of the head of a school alone accounts for 25% of a school's impact on student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005). On the other hand, Hallinger, Bickman and Davis (1996) found out that a head's instructional leadership do

not have a direct impact on student achievement. The results indicated that a head of a school can have an indirect effect on school effectiveness through actions that shape the school's learning climate.

Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Terry, Orr and Cohen (2007) in support of the indirect influence that curriculum leadership has on students' academic performance indicated that the overall effect operates through at least two mediating pathways: first, through the selection, support, and development of teachers and teaching processes, and second, through processes that affect the organizational conditions of the school. According to them the processes that affect organizational conditions operate at the school level, including building the school community, developing school procedures and plans and classroom level, through developing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

More so, head of a school's specialisation is attributed to the academic performance of students. With respect to this, Vidoni and Grassetti (2008), reported that head of a school specialization (i.e., in management or in leadership) has small direct effect on student achievement. They further noted that high concentrations of school leadership are especially valuable for students of lower socioeconomic status while high concentrations of school management are most valuable for the students of higher socioeconomic status. In Benson's (2011) study, no significant association between heads of schools' training and secondary school performance in Mubende, Uganda emerged.

Other researchers have investigated the relationship between leadership styles and students' academic performance. The consensus is that leadership style exhibited by the head of a school tends to influence academic performance of their students. New Leaders for New Schools (2010), claimed that successful

heads of schools are those who carved out new role for themselves as instructional leaders and human capital managers. Schools require good leaders to organize the process of teaching and learning to ensure that the mission of the school is achieved (Lydia & Nasongo, 2009). The main duty of the curriculum leader is to ensure the achievement of the established school's mission through creating a good learning environment for the students (Lezotte, 2001; New Leaders for New Schools, 2010).

Goldring et al. (2007) stated that the core challenge facing America's schools, especially urban schools, is improving student achievement and decreasing the achievement gap. To Goldring et al., such improvement ultimately depends on improving teaching practice, which is a key responsibility of the school head. Furthermore, it is the head of a school's role to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals for student learning and academic progress (Goldring et al., 2007). Setting clear goals for student achievement is central to effective leadership, as it guides the daily practices and decisions of all stakeholders. In addition, school leadership, especially head of a school instructional and transformational leadership, is widely perceived as critical in promoting these in-school processes and conditions (Lieberman, Falk & Alexander, 1994; Louis, Marks & Kruse, 1996; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sheppard, 1996).

To summarise the relationship between curriculum leadership and student outcome, Vidoni and Grassetti (2008) intimated that strong curriculum leadership is essential for a school to be successful. They further indicated, however, that defined narrowly, only in terms of curriculum and classroom instruction, curriculum leadership is unlikely to result in increased student

learning or other desirable outcomes. Rather, the growth in valued school outcomes, comes more from organisational management for instructional improvement than it does from heads' time observing classrooms or directly coaching teachers. They concluded that school leaders influence classroom teaching, and consequently student learning, by staffing schools with highly effective teachers and supporting those teachers with effective teaching and learning environments, rather than by focusing too narrowly on their own contributions to classroom instruction.

Challenges Heads of Schools Encounter in Enacting the School Curriculum in their Schools

Heads of SHSs have a great deal of immediate contact with the real world of adolescents and their families. Day by day they come face to face with a demanding real-world mix of well-adjusted students from stable and productive home environments as well as with abused and abusing teenagers, drug dealers, seriously mentally ill young people, teenage drunks, and snifters on rampage (Sawyer, 2011). While they have daily contact with the political, cultural, artistic and sporting leaders of the future, they also deal day to day with the intricacies of the drains, toilet blocks, safety issues outside their control and surrounding dangers to students in the bush, on busy roads and from criminals. The head of a school of schools can also have deficits in their professional development. This means that they may not have the right experience to execute the curriculum in the class. For example, Zame, Hope and Respress (2008) found out that Ghana faces a leadership challenge related to head of a school of schools' professional development. In enacting the curriculum heads of schools meet funding challenges. Okoroma and Robert-Okah (2007) study revealed that

inadequate funding; inadequate school facilities, work overload and poor conditions of service generated administrative stress for heads. For instance, in Kenya, head of a school of schools has a lot of paper work to do (Katitia, 2010).

More so, lack of adequate leadership skills is what the head of a school of schools meet in the discharge of their duties. Flath (1989) and Fullan (1991) have noted that the less emphasis on instructional leadership is due to lack of in-depth training in leadership in general and community's perceptions of the role of the head of a school as that of a manager. According to Okumber (1987), the likelihood is to tackle instructional issues from the perspectives of their experience when they were teachers. The problem is that where the head of a school has never been a teacher (very rare), then the problem will persist, as they will have no any previous experiences to fall back on.

Empirical Review

This section concentrates on the empirical studies that are related to this study. A similar study to the current study was conducted by Heaven and Bourne (2016). The aim of the research was to: evaluate the role of instructional leadership on academic performance of students; assess how instructional leadership influence on teachers' instructions; evaluate instructional leadership and typology of school, and explore instructional leadership in secondary educational institutions in St. Andrew, Jamaica. The researchers employed mixed methodology: Survey research and phenomenological research methodologies were employed to investigate the phenomenon.

Heaven and Bourne (2016) sampled 100 teachers and administrators at two secondary educational institutions in Kingston and St. Andrew. The quantitative data of the study were recorded, retrieved, and analysed using the

Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences for Windows (Version 21.0). The qualitative data were analyzed using thematic identifications and narrations. A p-value of 5% was used to establish statistical associations. The majority of the respondents were females (69%), non-senior teachers (68%), and have been teaching for 4-10 years (43%).

The results of their study revealed that a positively weak statistical correlation existed between the performance of students and instructional leadership, with only 1.4% of the variance in academic performance students can be accounted for by instructional leaderships. Their conclusion was that the discourse of instructional leadership accounting for high academic achievement of students does not exist in this study. They therefore recommend that a platform for further examination of the issue from the perspective of instructional leadership and other variables be carried out. This study only investigated the role heads of schools play in teachers' performance of their duties and the linkage to students academic performance. The limitation of this study was that it tested only the indirect effects of the roles of heads of schools on the academic performance of their students. The difference between this study and the current study is that, while the current study tested both direct and indirect roles the heads of schools play in the academic performance of their students Heaven and Bourne (2016) study was on the indirect.

Sindhvad (2009) carried out a study on the extent to which Filipino school heads of schools thought they were capable of supporting teachers' classroom instruction through supervision, professional development, and classroom resources; and the extent they thought these instructional supports were effective in influencing students' academic performance. Sindhvad

administered questionnaire to 364 heads of schools. He used linear regression to analysis the data collected.

The results showed that Filipino heads of schools' capacity to support teachers through instructional supervision and professional development was dependent on their beliefs as to whether these instructional supports could make a difference in classroom instruction, their level of control, time they spent on instructional leadership and their degree of job satisfaction. It also revealed that heads of schools' capacity to support teachers through classroom resources was only dependent on their level of control over them and their beliefs as to whether they could make a difference in classroom instruction. Again, heads' beliefs as to whether instructional supports could make a difference in classroom instruction was the most significant factor related to heads' sense of capacity for providing instructional supervision and professional development, while their level of control was the most significant factor related to heads' sense of capacity for providing classroom resources. Results also showed that heads' beliefs as to whether instructional supports were effective in supporting teachers' classroom instruction were dependent upon how effective they think they are as heads of schools and how capable they think their teachers are guiding students to achieve high academic performance.

Sindhvad also used MANOVA to investigate the difference between heads of schools' belief and their capacity to support teachers to influence students' academic performance. The results revealed that no differences exist between demographic and contextual factors among heads' beliefs and their capacity to support teachers and their beliefs about the effectiveness of instructional supervision, professional development, and classroom resources

and their antecedent effect on academic performance. The study also showed that seventy-five percent of heads of schools attributed the influence their capacities have on teacher delivery to the hands-on training they received.

This study was based on the perceptions of heads of schools about how their support to teachers could improve classroom instructions. The study is silent about the antecedent relationship between this role and the academic performance of students. The data collected was based on the views of the heads of schools without triangulating them with those of other important stakeholders like teachers. As such, the study lacks credibility. This is a serious limitation. To mitigate this limitation, the current study validated the responses of the heads of school with those of the teachers.

A study conducted by Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) on the role of the head of a school in academic achievement in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations (KCSE) in Vihiga District in Western Province also showed the need for heads of schools to monitor academic activities. The study was occasioned by the continued poor performance by most secondary schools in Vihiga District. A sample of 396 respondents were selected for the study.

The researchers employed descriptive analysis to establish opinions and knowledge about the role of the head teacher in academic achievement. The researchers stratified the secondary schools into high performing with a mean score of 6.00 and above in KCSE examinations, average performing with a mean score of 5.00 to 5.9 in KCSE examinations and low performing schools with a mean score of 4.9 and below in KCSE examinations (of 2000 to 2003). Saturated sampling method was used to select the high and average performing schools, while stratified random sampling method was used to select the poor

performing schools. A sample of 44 schools was selected based on the above stratification. The principals of the 44 sampled schools participated in the study. Similarly, 8 teachers from each school were sampled to participate. In total, there were 396 respondents for the study. The researchers used questionnaires, interviews and document analysis guide to collect data. Descriptive statistical techniques were used to analyse various items of the questionnaire. These included averages, percentages, frequencies and totals.

The findings of the study showed that heads of schools used quality improvement measures, teamwork and ensured that the teachers were well established with organisational skills that influenced academic achievement. The study also revealed that the heads of schools were also involved in academic activities by observing and checking the students' and teachers' work, Shiundu and Omulando (1992) collaborated this study when they emphasised that on a daily basis, heads of schools have the responsibility to ensure that teachers implement the official curriculum and that learning activities take place. In this study, the researchers have not been able to relate the performance of these roles by the heads of schools to students' academic performance.

A Kenyan study by Musungu and Nasongo (2008) on the curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools also revealed that they supervised teachers' work by inspecting records such as schemes of work, lesson books, records of work covered, class attendance records and clock in/clock out book. This research established that heads of schools' frequency of internal supervision contributed towards better performance. This involved proper tuition and revision, thorough supervision of teachers and pupils' work, proper testing

policy, syllabus coverage, teacher induction courses, team building as well as monitoring students' discipline.

These studies only revealed the roles heads of schools play in the enactment of curriculum in the classroom. These studies were occasioned by the continued poor performance by most secondary schools in Kenya. For Musungu and Nasongo to conclude that the heads of schools' frequency of internal supervision contributed towards better performance is not convincing. This is because there was no evidence of better academic performance let alone to link this to the roles heads of schools play.

Hattie (2009) who studied extensively on the relational effect on students' academic performance, rather concluded that the roles that effective teachers and students play have a direct effect on students' academic performance than those performed by curriculum leaders. Notwithstanding this assertion, Hattie's meta-analysis showed that the curriculum leadership role of the head of a school through monitoring and supervising the interaction between teachers and students in the classroom has far reaching consequences on students' academic performance. Hattie sees the head of a school, teacher and students playing collaborative roles and their respective roles cumulatively result in high academic performance. Hattie however, maintained that teacher effects, teacher-student relationships and responsibilities act as catalysts of change that boost the efforts of the head of a school in improving teaching and learning and sustaining academic performance.

Hattie (2003), whose work complements those who see the indirect role of heads of schools in influencing students' academic performance, reviewed researches on teachers' influence on students' learning and achievement in

developed countries such as the U.S. and New Zealand and concluded that excellent teachers are “... the single most powerful influence on achievement” (p. 4). His meta-analysis has shown that, “besides the student’s own personal prior knowledge, which accounted for ‘... 50% of the variance of achievement’, it was the expert teacher’s input, ‘... about 30% of the variance’ that makes the difference in student learning and achievement” (pp. 1-2). Hattie further reported that the head of a school and the school, like the peers and the home, had only 5-10% of the student’s achievement variance.

In contrast to his own study, Hattie nevertheless acknowledged, to some extent the curriculum leadership role of the head of a school in influencing students’ achievement. Hattie stated that the effective head of a school is the one who creates “... a climate of psychological safety to learn ... a focus of discussion on student learning ...” (2003, p. 5). Thus, Hattie believed that the effective head of a school is the one whose leadership influences a healthy school climate; including cultural responsiveness for enhancing efficient teaching through the expert teacher and harnessing the students’ prior knowledge for effective learning and achievement. From Hattie (2003) own study, one cannot ignore the direct effect of the roles of heads of schools on student performance because of the contradictions.

Notwithstanding Hattie’s conclusions regarding the significant role that expert teachers play in students’ learning and achievement, one may submit that without the head’s efficient instructional and managerial leadership, even the most gifted expert teacher on staff may be unable to effectively teach students. Furthermore, in some developing countries where traditional and local attitudes and customs show little respect for education norms and regulations, the head’s

committed instructional and managerial leadership becomes crucial for any effective teaching and learning to take place. Thus, the role of the expert teacher in such situations may no longer be “... the single most powerful influence on achievement” (Hattie, 2003, p. 4) as stoutly defended by Hattie but an integral part of the school leadership efforts for improving learning.

Given that Hattie’s (2003) sample was drawn mainly from OECD countries, this may make the finding less relevant to schooling in some less-developed African countries, such as Ghana. Simply, the strong emphasis on the role of teachers can be put in perspective with that of the heads of schools in order to demonstrate the intrinsic link between both actors. One cannot be successful without the other. The OECD expressed this clearly when it remarked that good teachers are in fact, the number one factor for excellence in student achievement but next comes high-quality leadership (OECD, 2005).

A study by Nyagaka and Odongo (2013), revealed similar results. The purpose of their study was to determine the leadership styles of the head of a school and their impact on the students’ academic performance in KCSE secondary schools in Nyamaiya Division, Nyamira District. The study was conducted in six secondary schools within Nyamaiya Division, Nyamira District from a population of 15 schools, hence 6 heads of schools, 72 teachers from a population of 180, and 680 students from a population of 1700 formed the sample size. The interest of the researcher to choose and study these schools was strongly prompted by their continued poor performance in KCSE. Data was collected using the questionnaires and interview schedules.

The study used descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequency, which were used concurrently with the Chi-Square test in the analysis. The

major findings showed a significant relationship between initiative structures of the heads of schools towards improving leadership style which has impact on academic performance. It further showed no significant relationship between consideration behaviour of the heads of schools regarding day to day issues which have impact on academic performance; and finally, there was a strong relationship between participatory traits of the heads of schools and the management structures of the schools which have impact on the students' academic performance. Similar findings have appeared from various Kenyan studies, all of which revealed that, poor performance in secondary school examinations is a function of poor administration and leadership practices (Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Githua & Nyabwa, 2008).

Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008), on the other hand, conducted a meta-analysis on the impact of different types of leadership on students' academic and non-academic outcomes. The methodology involved an analysis of findings from 27 published studies of the relationship between leadership and student outcomes. The first meta-analysis, including 22 of the 27 studies, involved a comparison of the effects of transformational and instructional leadership on student outcomes.

The second meta-analysis involved a comparison of the effects of five inductively derived sets of leadership practices on student outcomes. Twelve of the studies contributed to this second analysis. The first meta-analysis indicated that the average effect of instructional leadership on student outcomes was three to four times that of transformational leadership. Inspection of the survey items used to measure school leadership revealed five sets of leadership practices or dimensions: establishing goals and expectations; resourcing strategically;

planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum; promoting and participating in teacher learning and development and ensuring an orderly and supportive environment.

The second meta-analysis revealed strong average effects for the leadership dimension involving promoting and participating in teacher learning and development and moderate effects for the dimensions concerned with goal setting and planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum. The comparisons between transformational and instructional leadership and between the five leadership dimensions suggested that the more leaders focus their relationships, their work, and their learning on the core business of teaching and learning, the greater their influence on student outcomes. In like manner, Leithwood et al. (2004) compiled and analysed available evidence on the role of leadership in improving learning and came to the conclusion that leadership not only matters: it is second only to teaching among school-related factors in its impact on student learning, and that the impact of leadership tends to be greatest in schools where the learning needs of students are most acute.

Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam and Brown (2014) conducted a study in United States of America to compare the impact transformational and instructional leadership theories have on student achievement and determine which specific leadership practices are associated with increased student achievement. The sample for this study consisted of 590 teachers in 37 elementary schools in the Intermountain West of the United States.

The study required teachers to rate their heads' leadership style according to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Transformational Leadership) and the Head of a school Instructional Management Rating Scale

(Instructional leadership). Student achievement was measured by a criterion referenced test. Hypotheses were tested using regression analysis. It emerged from the study that instructional leadership explained more of the variance in student achievement than did transformational leadership. The authors also discovered that heads' leadership style tended to have a meaningful impact on student achievement beyond the impact of school context and head of a school demographics.

Nettles and Petscher (2006) studied the direct effects of heads of schools on achievement in Florida schools receiving federal Reading First Grants. This study examined the relationship between the head's role in the implementation of effective reading programs and the reading achievement of first grade students. Data used in this study to address the research questions and hypotheses consisted of (a) 388 Reading First head of a school responses to the Head of a school Implementation Questionnaire (PIQ), a validated instrument used to measure the levels of reading program implementation in Reading First schools, and (b) the student reading achievement of more than 34,000 first-grade students as measured by the four quarterly Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) assessments for the 2004-05 academic year.

In this study, a three-level hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) growth curve model was used to determine the amount of student-level variance that could be explained by the five dimensions measured by the PIQ. The instrument included five dimensions that assessed the quality of head of a school implementation of effective reading programs. Four were retained for analysis

(Professional Development, Leadership, Assessment, and Intervention), based on statistical validation.

Level 1 of this model tested the growth of ORF scores over time for each of the four assessments at the individual level. Level 2 modelled selected student-level variables, including gender, socioeconomic status-as determined by free and reduced lunch eligibility-ethnicity, whether students had limited English proficiency, and disability status. Level 3 modelled variables associated with the head. Specifically, heads' responses on the dimensions of the PIQ were used to define and categorise head of a school behaviour in relation to the implementation of effective reading programs. At the conclusion of this study, Nettles and Petscher (2006) identified some significant relationships between the implementation practices of Florida Reading First heads of schools and student reading achievement.

In a meta-analysis of 70 contemporary classroom and leadership studies, Waters et al. (2003), investigated whether the quality of leadership had a significant relationship to student achievement and what specific leadership responsibilities and practices had the greatest impact. They concluded that school leadership is an important variable, as it correlates positively with student achievement. The researchers identified 21 key areas of leadership that correlate positively with student achievement. These key areas are culture; order; discipline; resources; knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment; involvement in curriculum, focus; visibility; contingent rewards; communication; outreach; input; affirmation; relationship; change agent role; optimizer role; ideals and beliefs; monitoring and evaluation; flexibility; situational awareness; and intellectual stimulation.

Waters et al. (2003) also stated that effective heads of schools have a comprehensive knowledge of leadership strategies and have developed an awareness of when to use them. Further, they understand how to balance school culture, the student population, and the community to promote increased student achievement. Two variables were identified as determining factors in whether head of a school effects on student achievement are positive or negative: correctly identifying the focus for improvement and understanding how closely the proposed change matches existing values, norms and values.

Conceptual and methodological challenges notwithstanding, previous research has identified a measurable impact of effective head of a school leadership on individual student achievement. Head of a school effects have been shown to be primarily indirect, as they are typically mediated by other variables more proximal to the student level. Moreover, student achievement effect sizes in relation to head of a school leadership have proven to be small. These proportions of student-level variance are however practically (and statistically) significant. The importance of these findings is amplified when considered in the light of the relatively small proportion of individual student achievement variance that can be attributed to endogenous variables.

Olibie (2013) conducted a study on the curriculum planning practices and challenges of secondary school heads of schools in Anambra State in an era of knowledge and learning management. Two research questions guided the study. The descriptive survey design was used. The entire population of 268 heads of schools was studied; hence, there was no sampling. A Questionnaire titled “Heads’ Curriculum Planning Practices and Challenges Survey” containing 21 items was validated, tested for reliability and used as the data

collection instrument. Mean scores were used in answering the research questions.

Concerning the findings, the author found in the study that some perceived challenges encountered by heads of schools in curriculum planning include: inadequate allocation of resources and funds for school curricular and co-curricular activities, inadequate allocation of resources and funds for curricular and co-curricular activities, urgent and often competing curriculum policies, inadequate training on curriculum innovations and lack of heads' competence in curriculum planning. Others are inability to understand vision related to curriculum change, lack of statistical skills to carefully analyse students' achievement in order to review curriculum and plan necessary future improvements.

These findings tow a similar line with Mkpa (2010) who reported that inadequate resource allocation, incompetence and unavailability of policy documents presented challenges to heads of schools in Nigeria. Without policy document, heads of schools will not be sure of their expected administrative practices. For heads of schools to effectively carry out their administrative practices, they need to be well informed, and they must have clearly defined and documented policies guiding them. Another problem perceived by the heads of schools is inadequate training on curriculum innovations. This finding is in agreement with Onyia (2004), who observed that development of secondary school staff leaves much to be desired as staff are not often sponsored to expose to workshops, symposia and seminars, to keep them abreast of curriculum innovations.

Yang (2014) conducted a study on the effect of management practices of heads of SHSs on student and school performance in Ghana. Yang randomly selected 135 out of 600 SHSs in Ghana. He used a questionnaire to collect data from headteachers. The author applied factor analysis to identify different dimension of management practices and relate this with variation in test scores.

While measures of management quality were endogenous, the study revealed that management practices, such as monitoring, Human Resource Management (HRM), external inspections and internal strategies are correlated with student achievement. Students from better managed schools perform more successfully in the test and are more likely to pass the test. However, no firm conclusion can be drawn on the school level performance. The result also shows that head teacher characteristics, school qualities, teacher qualities and student characteristics can affect student test scores to some extent.

A similar study was conducted by Dambudzo (2013). The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school leadership characteristics and school effectiveness in Harare and Mashonaland East Regions Secondary Schools. Dambudzo used the survey method and collected data using questionnaires for heads of schools. The 'O'-level examination results for Harare and Seke District Schools were used as measures of school effectiveness. The population comprised of seventy-one and thirteen Harare and Seke District Secondary School heads respectively. The sample selected was thirty-one heads from schools with 'O' level examination pass rates above and below the national average 20.3%.

A multi-level analysis procedure was used with the school as the unit of analysis. The following results emerged from the study: schools where the

leadership allowed teachers greater autonomy, encouraged collaboration, recognised achievement, maintained discipline and took interest in what went on in the school and assisted teachers in solving teaching problems consistently were largely more effective. The study concluded that leadership was a critical factor for school effectiveness.

Tshabalala and Khosa (2014) conducted a study to establish the role played by the head of schools in delivery quality education in Zimbabwean secondary schools. The study adopted the descriptive survey design. The target population included all secondary school teachers in the Nkayi North West Circuit which had a teacher population of 80 teachers. The data were collected through a questionnaire which had both close-ended and open-ended questions. Descriptive statistical analysis was used to interpret the data.

The study revealed that heads did not encourage attendance by pupils to all lessons, there was inadequate provision of stationery and learning equipment and that supervision of learning was not adequately done by the heads. The study also revealed that heads were not results focused in their operations. The recommendation of the study was that heads of schools should be equipped with skills and knowledge in the field of leadership and management so that they promote quality education in their schools. It was also recommended that heads of schools should prioritised supervision of instruction and provision of adequate teaching/learning materials so that students' academic performance could be improved.

A three-year research project was commissioned by the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) in conjunction with the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) in England and began in January 2006.

It involved collaboration between teams drawn from different Universities and used a mixed methods approach to explore the relationships between school leadership and pupil learning outcomes. The study focused on schools that were identified to have significantly raised pupil attainment levels over a relatively short three-year period (2003-2005). Through a combination of statistical analysis of national data sets on pupils' attainment, Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Leithwood, Gu, Brown, Ahtaridou and Kington (2009) identified three groups of schools, all of which had made sustained improvements in academic outcomes but from different starting points. Low start, Moderate start and High start.

Day et al. (2009) used questionnaires and interviews to collect data from heads and key staff of the selected schools. They combined the data collected with twenty detailed case studies to determine that change for improvement is not a linear process through the identification of direct and indirect relationships between the work of effective heads, changes in school and classroom processes and conditions and improvements in pupil outcomes.

The research demonstrates that heads in more effective schools are successful in improving pupil outcomes through who they are - their values, virtues dispositions, attributes and competences. The general finding of the study is that there are statistically significant empirical and qualitatively robust associations between heads' educational values, qualities and their strategic actions and improvement in school conditions leading to improvements in pupil outcomes.

Summary and Implications of Literature Review

The review of related literature showed that the curriculum leadership roles of head of a school in the enactment of the curriculum take three forms: directly, indirectly and reciprocally. The first is that the roles of heads of schools play influence directly school outcomes. This is where the head of a school is personally involved in the planning of curriculum activities, monitoring teaching and learning, sometimes teaching and the support given to students. The second is that heads of schools' influence school outcomes indirectly. Here, heads of schools affect school outcomes through other variables. These variables include provision of adequate teaching and learning materials, sponsoring or organising in-service training programmes for teachers and creating conducive environment that support students' learning. The indirect effects seem to be the largest, in that, leaders work with and through others. The third is that leaders influence reciprocally. This is when the leader affects teachers, teachers affect the leaders, and through these processes, outcomes are affected.

From the various studies, some conceptual contradictions emerged. While most studies claim that the roles heads of schools play in curriculum enactment have indirect effect on students' academic performance, few studies affirm the direct effect. Also, some of the studies which concur with the indirect effect sometimes contradict their own findings. What is unclear in the literature is whether the impact that the heads of schools have on academic performance is direct or indirect. This is where this study comes in.

In connection with heads of schools' involvement in curriculum planning, what the literature points out is just the roles (i.e., direct or indirect)

that the heads of schools perform. The literature also indicates the various roles the heads of schools play in curriculum planning. The gap in the literature is that it does not indicate the regularity at which the head of school performs these roles in planning activities for curriculum enactment in the classroom.

Concerning heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles and teachers' professional development, some grey areas surfaced from the literature. On this issue, the literature is silent as to whether the heads of schools have the capacity to execute activities that would contribute to their teachers' professional development. Again, the literature is mute on which professional competences of the teachers should the head of a school give priority in the process.

The various researchers have dealt extensively with how heads of schools monitor the teaching and learning process, illuminating its various components. The extent to which the head of a school does the monitoring is not clearly stated in these studies. Again, these studies were not conclusive as to whether or not the monitoring of activities roles played by the heads of schools in the studies have direct effect on students' academic performance.

Finally, relating to heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles and students' learning, the empirical reviews showed some data gaps. First, the literature linking heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles to students learning does not indicate which curriculum leadership roles have highest impact on students' learning. The above stated gaps in the literature informed the choice of the topic for this study, the issues investigated and the overall design for the study.

In conclusion, the studies reviewed investigated either the indirect or the direct role heads of schools play in the academic performance of their students.

None of them conducted investigations on both direct and indirect roles heads of schools play in the academic performance of their students. The various studies also could not identify the specific roles heads of schools play which have impacted on their students' academic performance. Most the studies also used the perceptions of heads of schools about how their support to teachers could improve classroom instructions. The data collected were based on the views of the heads of schools without triangulating them with those of other important stakeholders like teachers.

The current study is different from the existing studies in different ways. First, my study validated the responses of the heads of school with those of the teachers. Second, my study also tested both direct and indirect effects of curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools on students' academic performance. Third, my study used both quantitative and qualitative data to describe the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools on academic performance of students. Fourth, my study also looked at the frequency at which heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles and the effects on students' academic performance.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This study explored the effects of the curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs in the Northern Region of Ghana on students' academic performance. To measure the effects of curriculum leadership roles on students' academic performance, a mixed methods research design, through a sequential explanatory approach, in the spirit of pragmatism, was employed. The first part of this chapter describes the research design and the method of inquiry, while the second part describes the population of the study, sample size as well as the sampling technique. The research instruments including procedure in scoring the items, pilot testing, test for reliability, data collection and analysis, are described in the last sections of the chapter.

Research Design

Philosophical paradigms lay the bedrock for the conduct of social science research. The most significant philosophical paradigms underpinning empirical social research encapsulate positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism (Kumar, 1999; Sarantakos, 2005; Scotland, 2012; Uddin & Hamiduzzaman, 2009). These philosophical standpoints in social research influence a researcher's ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods in a research endeavour. This signifies that they are the building blocks of social science research. Hence, they serve as the drivers of the entire research process.

The positivist thought contains a realist or objective ontology (Creswell, 2008; Oppong, 2014; Sarantakos, 2005). That is, reality is objective and external to the individual. The core ontological proposition of the

experimentalists is that reality is a concrete structure that lends itself to measurement in an objective manner. Within the positivists' epistemology, knowledge is only obtainable via sensory experiences and that positivism holds an empiricist epistemology (Sarantakos, 2005; Uddin & Hamiduzzaman, 2009). This suggests that knowledge is only reachable through observation of phenomena. Breen and Darlaston-Jones (2008) report that positivism proclaims, knowledge is objective, value free and is acquired out of the use of the scientific method.

Research in a positivist paradigm uses a quantitative research approach (Sarantakos, 2005). The study designs adopted by positivists include survey, experimental and quasi-experimental designs (Breen & Darlaston-Jones, 2008; Creswell, 2003; Krauss, 2005). Positivists collect data using observation, questionnaire and interview schedule (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Creswell, 2003; Neuman, 2007). Under positivism, analysis of data normally encapsulates the use of statistical methods such as descriptive statistics, parametric and non-parametric methods (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Neuman, 2007). Merits of positivism paradigm are its ability to study relationships, facilitation of generalisation, replicability of studies and presentation of value free findings (Neuman, 2007; Sarantakos, 2005). Its weakness is that it fails to distinguish between appearance and essence of social events (Sarantakos, 2005).

Interpretivist paradigm has an ontological locus situated in relativism where reality is individually constructed, leading to multiple realities (De Villiers, 2005; Leitch, Hill & Harrison, 2010; Scotland, 2012). The interpretive epistemology is one of subjectivism, dependent on real world phenomena (De Villiers, 2005; Leitch et al., 2010). According to the interpretivists, knowledge

emerges via social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings (Klein & Myers, 1999; Rowlands, 2005). This denotes that value free knowledge is not obtainable.

The interpretivists apply the qualitative research approach when conducting research (Leitch et al., 2010). Some study designs utilised under interpretivism paradigm include case studies, phenomenology, hermeneutics and ethnography (Leitch et al., 2010). For methods, the interpretivists normally employ interviews, focus groups discussion and observations (Bhattacharjee, 2012; De Villiers, 2005; Leitch et al., 2010). Data analysis usually encompasses the researchers making their agenda and value system explicit from the outset (Leitch et al., 2010). The critique of this paradigm is that it does not uphold objectivity and that results cannot be generalised (Mack, 2010).

In pragmatist paradigm of social research, knowledge claims arise out of actions, situations and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatism is not bound to any one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell, 2003; Yen, n.d.). For the pragmatists, truth is what works at the time (Creswell, 2003). The pragmatists therefore, reject any form of dualisms (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The pragmatists believe in an external world independent of the mind as well as that embedded in the mind. Research conducted within this philosophical standpoint uses mixed methods approach since the investigators draw freely from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions (Creswell, 2003; Yen, n.d.).

Within the pragmatic paradigm, researchers have the right to select the methods, techniques and procedures of investigation that appropriately address issues of concern in a study (Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

This illustrates that pragmatism promotes methodological pluralism. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argued that this allows for the answering of research questions. In addition, the study designs from both positivism and interpretivism are applicable under pragmatism. This paradigm allows for the use of statistical methods that sanction generalisation of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) as well as non-statistical methods in data analysis.

With respect to the three philosophical thoughts, namely positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism, the assumptions of pragmatism seem to align more with this study. This is because the current study's concentration on issues of planning activities for curriculum enactment, promoting professional development of teachers, monitoring teaching and learning and provision of support services to students would encapsulate the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Considering the issues concerned, pragmatism philosophical school of thought propositions provide the right window to address these key issues in this study adequately. That is, the roles heads of schools play in the enactment of the curriculum are independent of an individual and can be measured objectively but how the heads of schools play them depends on an individual and as such can only be interpreted. For instance, one can count the number of times heads of schools go to classroom to monitor teaching and learning in the classroom and the number of times they inspect lesson plans and scheme. However, what the heads of schools do in each of these activities depends on individual construct. Consequently, one can measure the effects of these roles that heads of schools play on students' academic performance through the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data and interpret as such. Pragmatism is also vital for this study because some of the

related earlier empirical studies applied it. On that account, this study therefore, embraces the pragmatic paradigm as the philosophical underpinning of this work.

Also, the social context in which the heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles and in which students learn, provides an opportunity for a pragmatic approach. According to Morgan (2008), the pragmatic approach offers an effective (to both quantitative and qualitative) alternative through its emphasis on the abductive–intersubjective–transferable aspects of a research. What this means is that the approach is a continuum between the truth being viewed as the construct of the human mind and the truth being independent of the human mind so that there is a movement back and forth between these different approaches to truth. Morgan explains:

the pragmatist emphasis on creating knowledge through lines of action points to the kinds of “joint actions” or “projects” that different people or groups can accomplish together ... this suggests a “reflexive” orientation ... to the social processes that produce both consensus and conflict within our field by asking the following questions: Which aspects of our beliefs about research are in contention and which are widely shared, and how do issues make the transition back and forth between these statuses? (Morgan, 2008, p. 72).

Accordingly, Morgan (2008) intimates that the pragmatic approach to research requires the use of a variety of data collection instruments such as questionnaire, interview and observation to be able to obtain a broader horizon of the truth of the phenomenon. This study, therefore, fits into the pragmatic

approach because the study sought opinions from different people and used different instruments of data collection and analysis to explain and explore the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools on students' academic performance as it is and how people think.

The study was, therefore, structured as a sequential explanatory mixed methods design. According to Clark and Creswell (2015), a sequential explanatory mixed method allows for the collection and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase, planning a second phase based on the quantitative results, and then collecting and analysing qualitative data in the second phase for the purpose of explaining or elaborating on the quantitative results. The sequential explanatory design captures the best of both quantitative and qualitative data-to obtain quantitative results from a population in the first phase, and then refine or elaborate these findings through an in-depth qualitative exploration in the second phase. By incorporating both extensive quantitative and rich qualitative evidence from respondents about their perceptions and interpretations of curriculum leadership roles of the head and their effects on student performance, it was possible to allow evidence from one source to extend or to challenge evidence from another source. The quantitative and qualitative methods were combined for both triangulation and complementarity, where each method addresses a different aspect of the research question. Triangulation was used in order to test the consistency of findings obtained through different instruments used, whilst complementarity clarifies and illustrates results from one method with the use of another method. However, the study was more of quantitative data collection than qualitative. This can be illustrated as, Quan → qual.

Hence, the findings from the interview with the heads of the schools and focus group discussions were used to further explain those of the questionnaire.

Based on the sequential explanatory mixed method, I adopted the cross-sectional survey method of inquiry for this study. The other survey that could have been used was longitudinal survey. I chose cross-sectional survey because of the short time frame at my disposal, which may render longitudinal study out of the question.

A cross-sectional survey is one that produces a 'snapshot of a population at a particular point in time' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 213). Kumar (2009) concurs and adds that a cross-sectional survey is the kind of study design that is best suited to finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon or problem by taking a cross-section of the population. It was therefore appropriate to use this method of inquiry to collect data about current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or practices from heads of schools and teachers at one time to enable me to determine the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs on students' academic performance (Creswell, 2012).

Study Area

The research was conducted in the Northern Region of Ghana. The Northern Region, which occupies an area of about 70,383 square kilometres, is the largest region in Ghana in terms of land area. It shares boundaries with the Upper East and the Upper West Regions to the north, the Brong Ahafo and the Volta Regions to the south, and two neighbouring countries, the Republic of Togo to the east, and La Cote d' Ivoire to the west. The land is mostly low lying except in the north-eastern corner with the Gambaga escarpment and along the western corridor. The region is drained by the Black and white Volta and their

tributaries, Rivers Nasia, Daka, etc. It is divided into 26 Assemblies with Tamale Metropolitan being the Regional Capital. Figure 2 shows the map of the study.

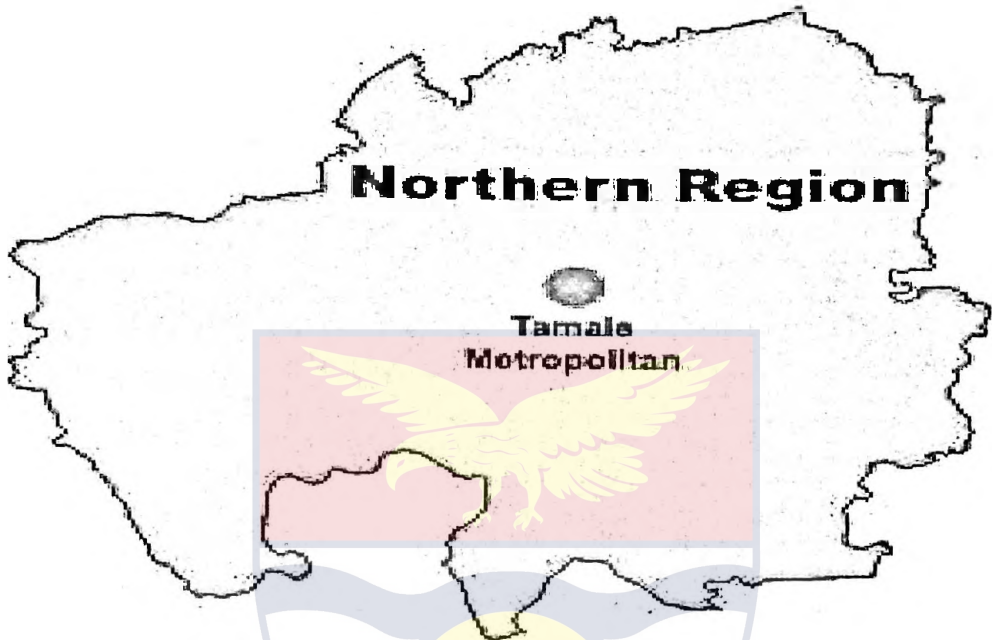


Figure 2: Map of Northern Region of Ghana

Despite being the largest region in terms of land area, it is one of the poorest regions in Ghana. It is bedevilled with a lot of developmental challenges including education especially Senior High School level. Secondary Education is a crucial stage as it leads to gaining admission into tertiary institutions or a product from Senior High School can acquire requisite skills for employments. As at the time of this study, there were 40 Senior High Schools in the Northern Region. The academic performance of students in the region is below national average as indicated in Table 1.

Population

The population of the study consisted of heads and teachers of all public SHSs in the Northern Region. The heads of schools lead the enactment of curriculum in the school and therefore, could provide information about how

they lead the process of curriculum enactment. The heads of schools are also responsible for whatever happens in the school and they are to provide the needed learning environment for both teachers and students to achieve high academic performance of students. The inclusion of teachers was in manifold. First, they are the enactors (i.e., they put the curriculum into real use in the classroom) of the programme. Second, the teachers are expected to create a stimulating classroom learning environment for effective teaching and learning to take place. Third, the teachers are the leaders of classroom interaction; they initiate and lead the process of classroom interaction. Fourth, the teachers work under the instruction of the head of a school. These placed teachers in a better position to be able to provide information about how heads of schools are involved in the planning of activities towards the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom, the support services they give to teachers and students, and how they monitor teaching and learning in the classroom. The teachers were, therefore, considered capable of providing objective information about how heads of schools lead in the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. Other stakeholders such as students, parents, administrative staff, education officers and community members may not be able to provide information on how heads of schools monitor and support the professional development of teachers as well as to provide information on how heads of schools are involved in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment.

At the time of data collection, there were 40 public SHSs in the Northern Region of Ghana, each school being headed by one person. The population of teachers was 3,640 giving a total population of 3680 (source: Regional Education Statistics, Tamale).

Sample and Sampling Procedures

In selecting the sample for my study, I set criteria for eligibility and those schools which qualified and accepted to participate in the study were selected. I set two eligibility criteria for the selection of the schools. One was based on the number of years the head of a school had served in the school. For a school to qualify for selection, the head of the school should have served for more than four years at the time data collection commenced. This is because a person posted to head school needs one or more academic years to be able to understand the ethos of the school, curriculum leadership roles and well exposed to the challenges of the job as a head. The head of a school can then put in place measures that will enable him or her achieve his or her vision. In addition, the duration of SHS is three years and it is only after three years that those admitted by the head of school would have written WASSCE. It is therefore, prudent to measure the effects of the roles played by heads of schools on students' academic performance after three years or more. The second criterion was acceptability. It is a fact that a study can be undertaken at a place where the people have agreed and willing to give information about the phenomenon been studied. Based on these criteria, all the schools in Categories 2 and 3 qualified, and ten schools in Category 1 also qualified. This brings the total population of teachers to be sampled to 1,196

Two categories of respondents, comprising 15 heads of schools and 467 teachers constituted the sample size for the study. Thus, the total sample size was 482 respondents. The sample size for the teachers was determined using

Yamane's (1967) statistical method, which is: $n = \frac{N}{1 + N (e)^2}$

Where: n = the desired sample size; N = the population size; e = the acceptable sampling error (.05). That is: $N=1,196$; $e=.05$; $n=?$

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N (e)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1196}{1 + 1196 (.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1196}{1 + 1196 (0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{1196}{3.99}$$

$$n = 299.74937$$

$$n \approx 300$$

Cohen et al. (2007) explain:

unless one has guarantees of access, response and, perhaps, the researcher's own presence at the time of conducting the research (e.g. presence when questionnaires are being completed), then it might be advisable to estimate up to double the size of required sample in order to allow for such loss of clean and complete copies of questionnaires or responses (p. 105).

I therefore, decided to add more than half to the calculated sample size to obtain a sample size of 467 teachers for the study.

The proportional stratified sampling technique was employed to select the teachers. This is to ensure that each population stratum is equally represented in the proportion it appears in the population. According to Gay (1992), proportional stratified sampling is more convenient when sub-groups in the population are represented in the sample in the same proportion that they exist in the population" (p. 129). He further states "any location, within which

we find an intact group of similar characteristics (population members), is a stratum” (p. 132).

The public SHSs in Ghana are put into three categories according to performance and availability of facilities (GES, 2010). They, therefore, exist in strata: Category 1, Category 2 and Category 3. In this study area, there were 31 schools under Category 1, 5 schools under Category 2, and 4 in Category 3. At the time of the study, all the heads of schools in Categories 2 and 3, had served for more than four years and the heads of Category 1 who had served for more than four years were 10. This shows that out of the 40 SHSs in the Northern Region, only 19 SHSs met the criteria I set for my study.

I selected six from the 10 SHSs. The reason being that all the 10 SHSs in Category 1 have similar characteristics and are likely to give the same responses. Also, the number of schools selected for the study would have skewed so much towards Category 1. I used simple random sampling to select six SHSs from the Category 1 SHSs. The lottery method with replacement was used to select the six SHSs. This was done by writing the names of each of Category 1 SHSs on a piece of paper. Each piece of paper was folded and kept in a basket. I then picked from the basket with replacement until I got the six heads. All the heads of schools from Category 3 and Category 2 were selected. This is because any sampling from each of these categories would have reduced the sampling size of the study. In all, 15 heads of schools were selected based on the number of years the school head had served.

To ensure the representativeness of the sub-sample of teachers of each school, I used the proportional stratified sampling technique to select teachers for the study. That is, the number of teachers selected from each SHS was based

on the total number of teachers in the SHS selected. The list of teachers in each of the 15 SHSs was collected from the school records. The number of teachers selected from each school was equal to the total number of teachers in that school divided by the total number of teachers in the 15 schools selected multiplied by the sample size.

A stratified proportional sampling technique was also employed in selecting teachers from each school to ensure gender representation. By this procedure, male and female teachers were selected in proportion to the total number of each sex in each selected SHSs. Based on this, 71 female and 396 male teachers were selected and that add up to a total of 467 teachers selected as the sample size. The detailed of teacher population and sample size are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Distribution of Sub-population and Sub-Sample Sizes by School And Gender

School No	Teacher Population			Teacher Sample		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
1	22	83	105	9	32	39
2	16	78	94	6	31	35
3	16	77	93	6	30	35
4	19	61	80	7	24	30
5	19	72	91	7	28	34
6	18	73	91	7	28	34
7	12	64	76	5	25	28
8	6	66	72	2	26	27
9	6	69	75	2	27	28
10	9	68	77	4	27	28
11	7	70	77	3	27	29
12	9	52	61	4	20	22
13	7	70	77	3	27	29
14	7	58	65	3	23	25
15	8	54	62	3	21	23
Total	181	1015	1196	71	396	467

As shown in Table 3, all the numbers were run up to whole numbers. The proportion of female to male is 1:5.58.

Data Collection Instruments

An eclectic approach using different instruments was employed to obtain the necessary data and to address the research questions. This included the use of questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussion. Together, they provided rich sources of detailed information and ensured validation of the findings through triangulation.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was deemed appropriate for this study because it can reach a large number of people relatively quickly and with minimal expenditure (Ary et al., 2006). Additionally, numerous variables can be measured by a single instrument, and statistical manipulation during data analysis can permit multiple uses of the data set (DePoy & Gitlin, 1998). Thus, a questionnaire was used to gather information that revealed teachers' perceptions of the curriculum leadership of the heads of their schools (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was made up mainly of Likert-type scale items but also included open-ended items. The Likert-type scale or closed-ended items offered options to respondents from which they were to select those that they deemed appropriate and the open-ended items offered spaces for respondents to provide their own responses. The content of the questionnaire was based on the gaps revealed under the review of related literature.

The questionnaire was made up of six sections. The items in Section A sought information about the personal background of the respondents. The items in Section B sought information on the involvement of heads of schools'

in curriculum planning. The information on support services heads of schools offer to students and teacher for professional development were sought in Sections C and D respectively. The items in Section E sought information on how heads of schools monitor the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching. Section F contained items which sought information on the relationship between curriculum leadership roles and students' academic performance. Section G contained items that dealt with the challenges heads encounter in enacting the curriculum.

Interview guide

I used an interview guide to solicit information from heads of schools about how they play their curriculum leadership roles. The interview guide was also divided into six sections with the same content as the questionnaire (see Appendix B). I chose interview because it enabled me gain insight into how heads of schools as curriculum leaders enact the curriculum. The interview guide also enabled me to probe heads of schools further to get in-depth understanding about the responses their teachers gave about how the heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles. Interviews are also appropriate because they allowed me to explore variables (attitudes towards students' learning and how teachers deliver their lessons) under investigation in greater detail, and so complement the questionnaire (Creswell, 2003).

On the other hand, the interview guide was time-consuming and expensive to use. However, with the cooperation and support from the heads of schools I was able to collect the data needed for the study.

Focus Group Discussion

I had a focus group discussion (FGD) with some teachers of the selected schools (see Appendix C). The FGD was also structured in line with the questionnaire. I used the FGD to obtain in-depth understanding of the responses provided by the teachers in respect to the questionnaire administered. As Nagle & Nichelle (n.d.) opine ‘focus group discussion ‘provide insights into how people think and provide a deeper understanding of the phenomena being studied’ (p. 2). Focus groups are group interviews that give the researcher the ability to capture deeper information more economically than individual interviews. The FGD was also divided into six sections based on the research questions (Appendix C).

Document Analysis

I requested for WASSCE results. The results served as a reference point from which I was able to determine the trend of academic performance of students. This enable me to see how the heads of schools were playing their curriculum leadership roles to feed into the trend of students’ academic performance. I used WASSCE results from 2014 to 2016.

Scoring of Items

The respondents were expected to respond to all the items on the instruments. Options were provided for respondents to choose from by responding to items on their biographic data. The majority of the items that were used to answer research questions were scored using Likert type scale. Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which they agreed to the level of participation and frequency of heads in the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. A scoring key was prepared to help assign points to the responses.

Most of the items on the questionnaire had multiple scores on a five-point Likert type scale. The responses were scored ranging from 5 for strongly agree, 4 for agree, 3 for undecided, 2 for disagree, and 1 for strongly disagree. Also, other variables were scored ranging from 5 for always, 4 for often, 3 for sometimes, 2 for occasionally and 1 for rarely.

The items on the questionnaire, which were open-ended, were coded with numbers 1, 2, 3 and so on depending upon the number of different responses. These responses were tallied to obtain total for each response on each item.

Validation of Instruments

The items in the questionnaire were developed from the theoretical and empirical literature and were scrutinized/edited by a team of supervisors and other lecturers in the field of measurement and evaluation. The instruments were then restructured in line with the corrections made.

The instruments were pre- tested in five SHSs (two schools from Category 1, two schools from Category 2 and one from Category 3). These schools were selected from Upper East Region, which had similar characteristics as those from Northern Region where the study was carried out. In all, there were 5 heads of schools and 50 teachers who participated in the pre-test. Sheets of papers were added to the instruments for respondents to write comments on the clarity, weaknesses, inadequacies, ambiguities and problems which they found in any of the items on the instruments.

As a result of such comments, statements felt to be ambiguous or misleading were either removed or revised for clarity. For instance, item 7 of the questionnaire which required respondents to write down activities that heads

of schools do frequently was recast into Likert type scale. Also, items 10 and 16 of the questionnaire which required respondents to write down support services that heads of schools offer to students and the professional competencies of teachers that their heads of schools should develop respectively were changed to Likert type scale after respondents had written so many of them down. Substitutions were also made for items indicating trivialities before the actual data collection took place.

The questionnaire responses obtained in the pre-test were tallied and the scores were calculated. I then used Cronbach alpha method to test the reliability of the instrument, since it provides a stable measure of homogeneity among the items in an instrument. The choice of Cronbach's co-efficient alpha was made on the merit of Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2007) who stated that "Cronbach's alpha is used when measures have multiple-scored items such as attitudinal scales. For example, on a Likert scale, the individual may receive a score from 1 to 4 depending on which Category was chosen" (p. 253). The Cronbach's co-efficient alpha was calculated using SPSS 22.0 version. The following were the results: Section B = 0.75, Section C = 0.83, D = 0.83, E = 0.83 and Section F = 0.75.

The reliability of the questionnaire obtained from the pilot testing allowed me to proceed to administer it in the study area. After I had collected the completed questionnaire, I processed and calculated the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire using the same cronbach coefficient alpha and obtained the following values. Section B = 0.80, Section C = 0.84, D = 0.85, E = 0.86 and Section F = 0.79. The difference between the reliability coefficient of the pilot testing and the main study could be attributable to the modification of the

questionnaire after the pilot testing and the large size of the sample. According to Amin (2005), a perfect reliable instrument has a coefficient alpha of 1.00, meaning that all values close to 1.00 are reliable. Also, according to Kothari (2004), if 10-20 items are used, the minimum reliability value should be between 0.6-0.80. This was an indication that the items in the instrument were reliable for the study.

The interview schedule and focus group discussion items were based on the responses given to the items on the questionnaire. The items on the interview schedule and focus group discussions were therefore trustworthy and credible. The responses from the interview and focus group discussion were validated through member check. This was done to ensure that respondents who participated in the interview and focus group discussion agreed to what was recorded. After a session with the interviewees, I read out the responses they made to each item for them to confirm. I did same to the responses of the focus group discussion. It was the confirmed responses I used for my analysis.

Ethical Procedures

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board before the actual field work. The informed consent of the respondents was sought. A statement relating to informed consent was at the beginning of the interview schedule requesting for consent of respondents. This was repeated to the respondents at the beginning of each interview. Informed consent for key informants was sought through a letter of consent. The respondents were informed that their rights would be guaranteed and protected if they agreed to be included in the study and that participation in the study was voluntary.

The purpose of the study and procedure of the research were made known to the respondents. Respondents were informed that this study was not in any way injurious to them. Anonymity of participants was possible by numerically coding each returned interview schedule to ensure protection of their privacy and identity. In the case of responses from the key informant interviews, it involved the utilisation of pseudo names. Respondents got assurance of confidentiality of the data they provided as such data were for only academic purposes.

Data Collection Procedures

Collectively, questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussion served as the primary source of gathering data. The secondary source of data gathering was the use of documents. The use of different sources of data-collection contributed to not only trustworthiness and validity of interpretations, but also contributed to holistic picture and in-depth understanding of the curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools (Glesne, 1999). These three techniques in combination made it possible to “(1) elicit data needed to gain understanding of the phenomenon in question, (2) contribute different perspective on the issue, and (3) make effective use of the time available for data-collection” (Glesne, p. 31).

Along with the specific data gathering techniques outlined above, it was essential for me to maintain a reflective journal throughout the data collection and data analysis process. This journal served as a rigorous collection of conversations I had with stakeholders and observations I made during the collection of data. I recorded these thoughts and notes along with observations in my field notes

The instruments were personally administered by me to respondents in their various schools. I made a series of visits to each selected school. The first visit was to enable me to acquaint myself with members of the school for the purpose of developing good rapport. The second visit to each school was used for the administration of the instruments and to interview the heads. In each school, I met the head of the school and explained to him or her the purpose of the study and then asked when he or she will be available for the interview. The heads of schools accepted to participate in the study and also scheduled with me times that they will be available. I kept to the times and in each time, I had a fruitful conversation with the heads of the schools. As the heads of schools respond to my questions, I recorded their responses on the interview guide sheet according to the questions.

I then sought permission from the head of the school to meet the teachers. I met the selected teachers at their respective schools and explained the purpose of the study to them. Again, I scheduled with the teachers, days and times they will be ready to participate in the study. We agreed on specific days and times which I adhered to. On the agreed date, I met the teachers and explained to them each item of the questionnaire. In each school, I administered and collected the completed questionnaires from teachers on the same day.

Out of the 467 questionnaires administered, 445 representing 95.3% were completed fully. After I had analysed the questionnaire, I went back to the schools to meet selected teachers for focus group discussion. The issues I discussed with them were the same and were based on the responses from the questionnaire. In each of the 15 schools, there were two sections of FGD, each section comprising seven teachers. The selection of groups of seven was based

on the assertion of Krueger (2002) that a focus group discussion should have members between 5 and 10 and that between 6 and 8 members are preferred. I selected the respondents using the lottery method. I used 60 days to have the FGD, that is, from September 1 to October 30, 2016. This was always done during the break periods of the SHSs, sometimes 9:00 am and other times 12 noon. Each session lasted for 30 minutes to one hour. The respondents were required to identify and elaborate on the roles heads of schools played in curriculum enactment and how frequently the heads of schools performed these roles. I also discussed with respondents the effects of curriculum leadership roles on academic performance of students.

To ensure that participants' ideas do not get lost, I appointed a volunteer amongst them to record their ideas on a sheet of paper I provided. As I read out the items, I also wrote down the responses of the participants. After each group discussion, I sat with the recorder to summarise the responses. I then read the summary of the responses out, item by item, for participants to confirm indeed what was said in the discussion.

In each of the visits, I had informal discussions with some teachers and also observed how the curriculum was enacted in each school. It was an interesting experience.

Data Processing and Analysis

The collected data were quantitative and qualitative in nature. Returned questionnaires were cleaned for completeness, coded and scored and the data were imputed into the Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS) version 22.0 for analysis. I used frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Kruskal Wallis test, Spearman's Rank Order correlation and binary logistic regression

(see Table 4) to analysis quantitative data. The results were presented in tables. Qualitative analysis was done manually using thematic analysis.

Data on research question one were analysed using frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Kruskal Wallis H test and thematic analysis. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse curriculum planning roles and frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles. The Kruskal Wallis H test was used to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various school Categories about the frequency of the execution of the curriculum planning roles by the school head. The Kruskal Wallis H test was appropriate because the frequency of the execution of the curriculum planning roles by the school head was measured on an ordinal scale while the grouping variable, which is school Categories, had three levels. That is, the Kruskal Wallis H test was used in analysing hypothesis one. The decision rule was that, if the p -value was less than or equal to the level of significance ($p \leq \alpha$), then H_0 would be rejected. This suggests a significant difference. In relation to cross-tabulation, it was used to analyse involvement of heads in curriculum planning. Thematic analysis was applied in analysing the curriculum planning roles as and frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles. This was used to buttress the quantitative data. Again, thematic analysis was used in analysing the reason for the involvement of heads in curriculum planning.

In connection with research question two, the data were analysed using frequencies, percentages, and thematic analysis. For the support services heads of schools offer to students and support services heads of schools perform most, the data were analysed using frequencies and percentages. Thematic analysis was also applied in the analysis of support services heads of schools offer to

students and support services heads perform most. The thematic analysis was used to complement the quantitative analysis.

Concerning research question three, the data were analysed using frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, and thematic analysis. On the issue of heads of schools' role in teachers' professional development, professional competencies of teachers that heads of schools develop, and effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance, the data were analysed using frequencies and percentages. On the other hand, data on the significance of heads' role in teacher professional development and the effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance were analysed using cross-tabulation. Relating to the identification of professional needs of teachers and methods of the provision of professional development, the data were analysed via thematic analysis. These issues stood out as independent subjects. In the case of reasons for considering heads of schools' role in teachers' professional development as major or otherwise, professional competencies of teachers that heads of schools develop, and reason for stance on impact of heads' role on academic performance, the data were analysed using thematic analysis and used to support the quantitative analysis.

Data in respect of research question four, were analysed by means of frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Kruskal Wallis H test and thematic analysis. Frequencies, percentages and cross-tabulation were employed in analysing frequency of heads of schools' observation of instruction, heads' monitoring of students' learning, availability of resources and activities of heads supporting academic performance. Furthermore, data monitoring of teaching and learning activities on coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching,

activities to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction, and impact of head's monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance were analysed with frequencies, percentages and cross-tabulation. Kruskal Wallis H test was employed to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various SHS Categories about the influence of heads monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance. In terms of the qualitative analysis under research question four, it involved the use of thematic analysis. This was used to analyse the frequency of monitoring teaching and learning, methods for monitoring the quality of teaching, methods to ensure teaching according to syllabus and ensure coverage, and effects of monitoring of teaching and learning on academic performance. These were used to support the quantitative data in order to bring out a clearer picture.

Analysis of data to answer research question five involved the use of frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Spearman's Rank Order correlation, Kruskal Wallis H test, binary logistic regression and thematic analysis. With respect to data on ranking on academic performance in WASSCE, linkage of heads of schools' roles to academic performance, influence of frequency of monitoring on academic performance, and support services' effect on academic performance were analysed by means of percentages, and cross-tabulation. Data on support services' relationship with academic performance, were analysed using Spearman's Rank Order correlation. This was done to establish the kind of relationship that exists between the support services provided to students and their academic performance. The coefficient will be either positive or negative (ranging between -1 and +1) which indicates the direction of the association (Neuman, 2007; Anderson et al., 2011; Bryman, 2012).

The Kruskal Wallis H test was used to determine whether the curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students were the same among the various school Categories. That is, the Kruskal Wallis H test was employed in analysing hypothesis three of the study.

Data on effects of curriculum leadership roles on academic performance were analysed using binary logistic regression. This was important because the test would indicate the degree to which curriculum leadership roles account for academic performance as well as the factors that are significant predictors. Academic performance in WASSCE was used as the dependent variable while the curriculum leadership roles served as the independent variables.

The qualitative issues such as educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance, roles to achieve educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance, and reasons for stands on linkage of heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles to academic performance were analysed via thematic analysis. The rest, such as impact of heads role on academic performance, and strategies to improve teachers and students' performance were also analysed by thematic analysis. These helped in throwing light on the quantitative data.

On the subject of Research Question 6, the data were wholly analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis was applied in analysing challenges to heads of schools' roles as curriculum leaders and strategies for addressing the challenges. The details of data analyses are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of Analysis of Data

Research Question	Data type	Variable	Method of analysis
1. What roles do heads of SHSs play in teachers' planning of activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom?	Quantitative	Curriculum planning roles, frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles	Percentages, cross-tabulation and Kruskal Wallis H test
	Qualitative	curriculum planning roles and frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles, and reasons for involvement of heads in curriculum planning	Thematic analysis
2. What support services do heads of SHSs provide for students to enhance their academic performance?	Quantitative	Support services heads offer to students and support services heads perform most	Frequencies and percentages
	Qualitative	Support services heads offer to students, support services heads perform most, and effects of support services on academic performance	Thematic analysis
Research Question	Data type	Variable	Method of analysis
3. How do heads of schools promote the professional development of teachers?	Quantitative	Heads role in teachers' professional development and effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance	Frequencies, percentages, and cross-tabulation
	Qualitative	Ways to provide professional development, reasons for considering heads role in teachers' professional development and impact of heads role on academic performance	Thematic analysis

<p>4. How do heads of SHSs monitor curriculum enactment in the classroom to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction?</p>	<p>Quantitative</p>	<p>Frequency of heads' observation of instruction, frequency of heads' monitoring of students learning, availability of resources and facilities, activities of heads supporting academic performance, influence of monitoring of teaching and learning activities on coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching, activities to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction, and impact of head's monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance</p>	<p>Frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation and Kruskal Wallis H test</p>
	<p>Qualitative</p>	<p>Methods to ensure teaching according to syllabus and coverage, and effects of monitoring of teaching and learning on academic performance</p>	<p>Thematic analysis</p>
<p>5. What is the effect of curriculum leadership roles played by heads of SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana on students' academic performance?</p>	<p>Quantitative</p>	<p>Ranking on academic performance in WASSCE, linkage of head's roles to academic performance, influence of frequency of monitoring on academic performance, support services' effect on academic performance, and effects of curriculum leadership roles on academic performance</p>	<p>Frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Spearman's Rank Order correlation, Kruskal Wallis H test, and binary logistic regression</p>
	<p>Qualitative</p>	<p>Educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance, roles to achieve educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance,</p>	<p>Thematic analysis</p>

		reasons for stands on linkage of head's roles to academic performance, impact heads role on academic performance, and strategies to improve teachers and students' performance	
6. What are the major challenges that the heads of SHSs encounter in enacting the school curriculum in their schools?	Qualitative	Challenges to heads roles as curriculum leaders and strategies to addressing the challenges	Thematic analysis
Research Hypothesis 1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the frequency of execution of curriculum planning roles of heads for the three school categories 2. H_0 : There is no significant association between student support services and students' academic performance	Data Type Quantitative Quantitative	Variable Curriculum planning roles, frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles, and involvement of heads in curriculum planning Support services heads offer to students and academic performance	Method of Analysis Kruskal Wallis H test Spearman's Rank Order correlation,

3. H₀: There is no significant difference in the effect of monitoring of classroom activities by heads on students' academic performance among the three school categories.

Quantitative

Frequency of heads' observation of instruction, frequency of heads' monitoring of students learning, activities of heads supporting academic performance and impact of head's monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance

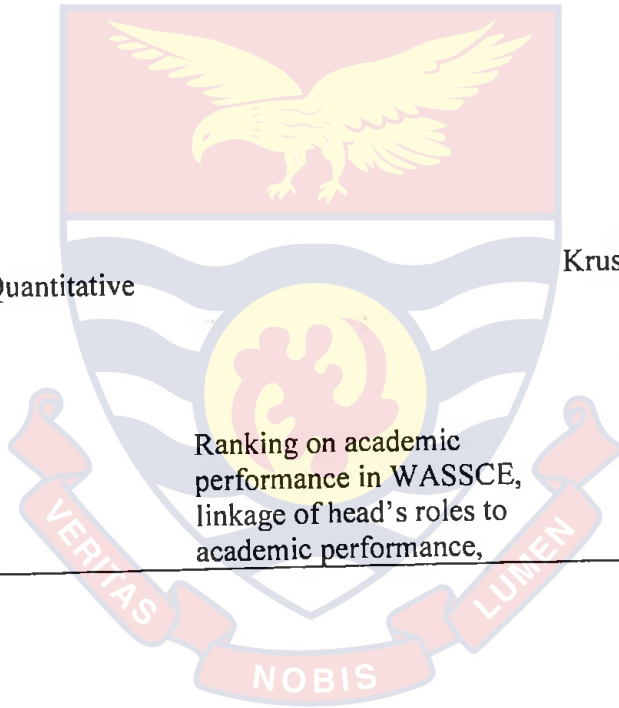
Kruskal Wallis H test

4. H₀: There is no significant difference in curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students among the various school categories

Quantitative

Ranking on academic performance in WASSCE, linkage of head's roles to academic performance,

Kruskal Wallis H test



Chapter Summary

The chapter first addressed the research design. Under the research design, the study adopted a pragmatic paradigm of research. This philosophical position resulted in the use of a mixed methods research approach and the use of the cross-sectional design.

Subsequently, the chapter touched on the study population and sampling procedures. The study population covered heads of schools and teachers. Sample size of 467 for teachers was statistically determined and all the heads of the selected schools were included. Stratified random sampling and purposive sampling aided in the selection of the study respondents. Afterwards, there was an examination of data collection and instrument design. Data were from both primary and secondary sources. The instruments designed were questionnaire, interview guide and focus group discussion. Later, there was pre-testing of the questionnaire in the Upper East Region using 55 respondents.

Ethical procedure was the next issue captured in the chapter. This included seeking of informed consent of respondents, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. Then, the actual field work was considered. Data collection started on the 1st of September and ended on the 30th of October 2016. The last issue tackled in this chapter was data processing and analysis. The quantitative analysis consisted of descriptive statistics, Kruskal Wallis test, Spearman's Rank Order correlation and binary logistic regression while the qualitative analysis involved thematic analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs on students' academic performance in the Northern Region of Ghana. The sequential explanatory mixed method approach was used in the study. The study employed a cross-sectional study design. The sample consisted of heads and teachers of public SHSs in the Northern Region. The sample for the teachers was 467, determined via a statistical means, while that of the heads was 15, determined using a non-statistical method.

This chapter presents the results of the analysis of the responses made by the participants of the study. The responses were obtained from questionnaire issued to teachers, interviews with heads of SHSs and focus group discussions with teachers. The analysis of the data made use of quantitative methods such as frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation, Kruskal Wallis test, Spearman's Rank Order correlation and binary logistic regression while the qualitative analysis involved the use of thematic analysis.

In doing the analysis, responses to strongly agree (SA) and agree (A) were combined while those of strongly disagree (SD) and disagree (D) were also combined. Also, responses to often (OF) and always (A) were combined as well as those of occasional (O) and sometimes (S) were also combined. The reason for this was to ease reporting.

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In the analysis, I used the number of students who obtained Grade A1 to C6 in six subjects (Mathematics, English Language and Integrated Science or Social Studies and three elective subjects) as a proxy to measure academic

performance of students in the schools. For each category, I added the number of students who obtained credit in six subjects of all the schools in the category. The qualitative data was used to explain further the findings of quantitative data.

Basic Characteristics of Respondents

The characteristics of respondents were examined with respect to their sex, educational qualification, age and number of years of teaching. Table 5 presents the distribution of respondents by their sex, qualification and age.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Sex, Qualification and Age

Sex	Qualification			Age			
	Bachelor's	Master's	Others	21-25	26-30	31-35	36 and above
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Male	304(88.6)	65(71.4)	9(81.8)	5(50)	50(83.3)	131(94.2)	192(81.4)
Female	39(11.4)	26(28.6)	2(18.2)	5(50)	10(16.7)	8(5.8)	44(18.6)
Total	343(100)	91(100)	11(100)	10(100)	60(100)	139(100)	236(100)

Source: Field Data (2016)

Note: Figures in parenthesis are in percentages.

Table 5 suggests that the majority of the respondents with bachelor's degree were males. Of the 91 respondents with master's degree, 71.4 percent were males whereas 28.6 percent were females. The results indicate that most of the respondents with master's degree were males. For the 11 respondents with other certificate, 81.8 percent were males while the remaining 18.2 percent were females. The results show that majority of the respondents with other forms of qualification were males.

Also, there was an examination of gender by age. The results show that of the 10 respondents within 21-25 years, 50 percent of them were males and same proportion were females. This suggests that the same number of both males and females fall within the age group 21-25years. For the 60 respondents that were between 26 to 30 years, 83.3 percent of them who were males constituted the majority whereas the rest (16.7%) comprised females. In addition, of the 131 respondents who were within the age group of 31-35, 94.2 percent were males whereas the remainder (5.8%) were females. The results show that most of the respondents within the age brackets of 31 to 35 were males. Also, of the 236 respondents who were 36 years and above, 81.4 percent of them were males while 18.6 percent were females. The results illustrate that most of the respondents who were 36 years and over were males. Overall, for each of the age categories, males were dominant.

Table 6 presents the results on the cross tabulation of teaching experience by gender.

Table 6: Teaching Experience by Gender Distribution of Respondents

Teaching Experience	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
Less than						
3years	25	6.6	5	7.5	30	6.7
3years	79	20.9	8	11.9	87	19.6
4years	72	19.0	6	9.0	78	17.5
5years and over	202	53.4	48	71.6	250	56.2
Total	378	100	67	100	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results shown in Table 6 indicate that out of the 378 respondents who were males, 53.4 percent of them have taught for five years and over and have constituted the majority, while the rest (46.6%) taught for four years and less. Of the 67 female respondents, 71.6 percent of them, comprising the majority, taught for five years and beyond whereas the remainder (28.4%) taught for four years and less. The results suggest that for both males and females, majority of them taught for five years and over. This suggests that the respondents are likely to have acquired some experience on the job.

Research Question One

What roles do heads of SHSs play in teachers' planning of activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom?

Research question one sought to find out the involvement of heads of schools in planning of activities for enacting curriculum in the classroom. The

items on heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities for enacting curriculum activities in the classroom were both open-ended and close-ended.

Heads of SHSs are expected as leaders of the institutions to perform certain curriculum planning activities. On this account, the respondents were asked to indicate the curriculum planning activities the heads of their schools carry out. The details of these results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Teachers' Perception about Head Teachers' Curriculum Planning

Curriculum Planning Roles	Response Category			TOTAL (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work.	231(51.9)	55 (12.4)	159(35.7)	100
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop lesson plans.	189(42.4)	48 (10.8)	208(46.7)	100
The head of my school participates with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials.	153(34.3)	67(15.1)	225(50.6)	100
The head of my school distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery.	216(48.5)	60(13.5)	169(38.0)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445 Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree

Table 7, continued

Curriculum Planning Roles	Response Category			TOTAL (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources.	205(46.1)	62(13.9)	178(40.0)	100
The head of my school helps teachers to develop test items.	176(39.6)	66(14.8)	203(45.6)	100
The head of my school helps teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.	281(63.2)	32(7.2)	132(29.6)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N = 445

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

As shown in Table 7, out of the seven curriculum planning roles of the head, four of them were supported by a modal group or majority of the respondents as they *strongly agreed or agreed* (SA/A) on them. Specifically, of the 445 respondents, 49 percent SA/A that the heads of their schools participate with teachers to develop termly schemes of work, 51.9 percent of the respondents SA/A that the heads of their schools distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery, and 46.1 percent SA/A that the heads of their schools help teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources. Also, over three-fifth (63.2%) of respondents SA/A that the heads of their schools help teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.

Similarly, both the focus group discussants and key informants noted that heads of their schools participate in the development of schemes of work of teachers as they vet them. It equally emerged that heads of schools distribute and direct the usage of teaching and learning aids as well as assist in locating reference materials for teachers. For instance, in one of the focus group discussions (20th September, 2016) a respondent said ‘the head of our school normally vets our scheme of work and make his inputs’. Also, a Key Informant (20th September, 2016) noted, ‘I assist teachers to organise materials they are going to deliver to students through the vetting of their lesson plans and observation of the scheme of work’. Another respondent said ‘heads involvement in teachers’ development of schemes of work and directing on usage of teaching and learning materials will ensure that areas covered by teachers in their lessons are comprehensive and feasible. It will again ensure that students understand better what is taught in the class as lessons are accompanied with teaching and learning aids’.

Nonetheless, a modal group or majority of the respondents also *strongly disagreed or disagreed* (SD/D) that some curriculum planning roles were performed by their school heads. Particularly, 46.7 percent SD/D that the heads of their schools participate with them to develop their lesson plans; over half (50.6%) SD/D that the heads of their schools participate with them and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials and 45.6 percent SD/D that the heads of their schools help teachers to develop test items. The limited or lack of execution of the roles mean that lessons that might have deficiency will not be noticed and that test items set might not be of standard. Also, the teachers might use inappropriate or may altogether not employ teaching and learning

materials where such materials are not available, and they cannot be improvised. Students will be negatively affected as they would not easily understand lessons delivered. However, the focus group discussion and key informant interviews revealed that heads of schools assist teachers in the development of their lesson plans and in the construction of teaching and learning materials.

The frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles is crucial because it determines the likely impact that such functions would have on students' academic performance. In this regard, the respondents who indicated they *agreed or strongly agreed* that some curriculum planning activities were executed by their heads of schools were required to indicate the frequency of the role as rarely, occasionally, sometimes, often and always. The frequency of performance of the curriculum planning roles by the heads of schools is captured in Table 8.

Table 8: Teachers' Perception about Frequency of Occurrence of Head

Curriculum Planning Roles	Response Category			Total
	R	O/S	OF/A	
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work.	31(13.4)	66(28.6)	134(58.0)	231(100)
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop lesson plans.	15(7.9)	78(41.3)	96(50.8)	189(100)

Source: Field Data (2016)

Note: R=Rarely, O/S=Occasionally/Sometimes, OF/A=Often/Always

Table 8, continued

Curriculum Planning Roles	Response Category			
	R	O/S	OF/A	Total
The head of my school participates with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials.	9(5.9)	68(44.4)	76(49.7)	153(100)
The head of my school distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery.	15(6.9)	97(44.9)	104(48.2)	216(100)
The head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources.	18(8.8)	113(55.1)	74(36.1)	205(100)
The head of my school helps teachers to develop test items.	34(19.3)	67(38.1)	75(42.6)	176(100)
The head of my school helps teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.	34(12.1)	95(33.8)	152(54.1)	281(100)

Source: Field Data (2016)

Note: R=Rarely, O/S=Occasionally/Sometimes, OF/A=Often/Always;

Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

A look at Table 8 shows that of the seven, six of them were supported by a modal group or most of the respondents as being carried out *often or always* (OF/A). Exclusively, over half (58.0%) of the respondents noted that the heads

of their schools OF/A participate with teachers to develop termly scheme of work, 50.8 percent indicated that the heads of their schools OF/A participate with them to develop their lesson plans, and close to half (49.7%) said that the heads of their schools OF/A participate with them and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials. A further 48.2 percent of the respondents stated that the heads of their schools OF/A distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery; a little over two-fifth (42.6%) pointed out that the heads of their schools OF/A help teachers to develop test items; and about 54.1 percent of respondents said that the head of their school OF/A helps teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.

An examination of the key informant interviews and focus group discussion showed that heads of schools participated regularly in the development of lesson plans, construction of teaching and learning materials, distributing and directing use of teaching materials and in the development of test items. This they mostly do via the vetting of the lesson plans. As most of the roles are performed often, it suggests that the teachers benefit as the deficiencies they have would be attended to. Also, students would gain as teachers become adequately prepared to deliver learning experiences that they can easily understand.

However, 'the head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources' was the only role that was performed *occasionally or sometimes*. Likewise, the key informants and focus group discussants pointed out that heads of schools do not regularly carry out the role of helping teachers get reference materials to teach and developing scheme of

work. For the scheme of work, it was attended to occasionally because it was normally prepared to cover the entire term. Regarding the reference materials, it came out prominently that the teachers generally search for their own materials to aid them teach. The head of a school only comes in occasionally to assist in that regard. This implies that the onus of acquiring reference materials falls directly on the teachers. Where the teachers are incompetent or lazy it means that they would not get the appropriate materials to deliver a lesson to the students.

The issue of whether heads of schools should at all be allowed to engage in planning of activities for instruction of the curriculum was examined. This was examined because teachers may want to be given space to conduct their activities independently. This issue was first looked at from respondents' general perspective and then later disaggregated based on school Category, duration of teaching, and educational qualification. It then ended with the reasons for either allowing or not allowing heads to participate in planning of activities for instruction.

From respondents' general perspective on acceptability of heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum, the results showed that over two-thirds (83.4%) of the respondents who represented the majority said *yes*, indicating that it was acceptable for heads of schools to get involved in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum. However, 16.6 percent of the respondents said *no*, depicting that they were not in support of heads of schools' involvement in planning activities for the instruction of the curriculum. This illustrates that most of the respondents support heads of schools participation in planning of activities for instruction.

This is probably because the assistance got from the heads of schools would help them address some of their professional deficiencies. In addition, the necessity of heads of schools engagement in planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum is accepted because the roles benefit both the students and teachers directly and indirectly. The disaggregation of the results according to school Category is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Heads Involvement in Planning of Activities for the Enactment of Curriculum by Category of SHS

Category of SHS	Should head of your school be involved in the planning of activities for the enactment of the curriculum?				Total	
	Yes		No		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
1	168	88.0	23	12.0	191	100
2	101	78.3	28	23.6	129	100
3	102	81.6	23	18.4	125	100
Total	371	83.4	74	16.6	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

It was discovered in Table 9 that more than two-thirds (88%) of the respondents in SHS Category 1 said *yes* denoting that they wanted the heads of schools to be involved in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum. In Category 2 schools about 78 percent of the respondents representing the majority said *yes* suggesting that they support the idea of heads of schools engaging in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum in the classroom. Also, from Table 9 it is observed that more than

two-thirds (81.6%) of the respondents in Category 3 SHSs said *yes* showing that they endorsed the idea of heads of schools involving themselves in planning the activities for the instruction of the curriculum. Generally, most of the respondents in all the three SHS Categories defended the need for heads of schools' involvement in planning activities for the instruction of the curriculum. This suggests that the respondents in all the three school Categories realised that heads' involvement would help improve their preparation of lessons.

Both the respondents who indicated that heads should be involved or not involved in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum advanced different reasons to back their standpoints. Those who indicated that heads should be allowed to participate in the planning of activities for instruction argued that it is necessary because heads of schools know much about the school environment, their personal interaction with students can help them to know their problems and to address them, and that the heads of schools have a wealth of experience which they can bring to bear on both students and teachers. Furthermore, heads of schools should be involved because they are aware of those activities that would benefit students and it would ensure that teachers go by the syllabus. The rest are that it enables heads of schools to make informed decisions, ensure effective teaching and learning as well as ensure effective and judicious use of instructional time. On the contrary, those that opposed heads' involvement in the planning of the activities for instruction claim that it is tantamount to intrusion of their privacy and a signal that the heads do not have confidence in them.

As heads of schools participate in planning activities for enactment it is important to find out its effect on academic performance. It was realised from

both the focus group discussion and key informants' interviews that the reasons why heads of schools should participate in the planning of activities for teaching are in two-fold. One was to ensure that teachers acquire the requisite and appropriate teaching and learning skills and two, to prepare adequate and appropriate activities to facilitate students' learning that may bring about improved academic performance of students. One of the Key Informants (18th September, 2016) indicated 'my participation in planning activities for enactment has led to excellent academic performance of students in my school.' Equally, a Focus Group Discussant (20th September, 2016) reported 'heads of schools' participation in planning activities for enactment have positive effect on academic performance as teachers use appropriate teaching and learning materials during instruction.'

Research Question Two

What support services do heads of SHSs provide for students to enhance their academic performance?

The purpose of this research question was to ascertain the support services heads of SHSs provide for students to enhance their academic performance. The items on the support services heads of schools offer to students to enable them to learn effectively were both open-ended and close-ended. In terms of the support services provided to students by the heads of schools, the results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Perception about Support Services Delivered to Students

Activity	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
Provision of teaching and learning materials.	239(53.7)	47(10.6)	159(35.7)	100
Proper scheduling of academic and non-academic activities to ensure that they do not conflict.	199(44.7)	59(13.3)	187(42.0)	100
Heads establish good human relationships with teachers and students.	245(55.0)	54(12.1)	146(32.8)	100
Heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners.	315(70.7)	43(9.7)	87(19.6)	100
Provision of library facilities.	250(56.1)	71(16.0)	124(27.9)	100
Provision of adequate laboratory facilities.	267(60.0)	65(14.6)	113(25.4)	100
Provision of potable water for students and teachers.	302(67.8)	54(12.1)	89(20.0)	100
Provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school.	293(65.8)	76(17.1)	76(17.1)	100
Rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers.	274(61.6)	63(14.1)	108(24.3)	100
Provision of adequate furniture in the classroom.	321(72.2)	43(9.7)	81(18.2)	100
Provision of proper ventilation in the classroom.	250(56.1)	71(16.0)	124(27.9)	100
Provision of guidance and counselling.	209(47.0)	57(12.8)	179(40.2)	100
Provision of healthcare.	252(56.6)	118(26.5)	75(16.9)	100

Table 11, continued

Activity	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
Organisation of periodic talks by role models.	262(58.9)	108(24.3)	75(16.9)	100
Weekly pep talks by heads of school to students	262(58.9)	108(24.3)	75(16.9)	100
Provision of extended classes for students.	198(57.5)	171(25.4)	76(17.1)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages.

The results from Table 10 showed that more than half of the respondents SA/A that heads of schools provide most of the support services needed for effective learning to students. For example, a Key Informant (26th September, 2016) indicated, “in my school I normally ensure that teaching and learning materials are made available to teachers.” Likewise, a Focus Group Discussant (29th September, 2016) stated, “teachers in my school are usually offered teaching and learning materials to facilitate their teaching. Equally, both the focus group discussants and key informants indicated that heads of schools usually provide a platform for students to interact with chief examiners. For instance, a Key Informant (20th September, 2016) indicated, “I organise meetings between my students and examiners.” The only support services that less than half of the respondents SA/A on were proper scheduling of academic and non-academic activities to ensure that they do not conflict, and provision of guidance and counselling.

The frequency of provision of support services by the head of a school was examined. It was revealed that out of 445 respondents a little over half (51.1%) of them indicated that the support services were carried out *always*. A further 44 percent noted that the support service provided for students were *occasional*. Overall, most of the respondents noted that the support services were offered always by heads to students. In the same way, both the focus group discussants and key informants indicated that the support services were normally always provided to students to facilitate their studies. For example, a Key Informant (24th October, 2016) pointed out, “in my school I ensure that support services are provided always to the students so as to create a good environment for them to learn.” This is done probably because the heads want to model a school environment that would be non-threatening for both teachers and students alike to conduct academic activities smoothly and thereby increasing academic performance.

However, in my view, the invitation of chief examiners to discuss chief examiners’ report with teachers and students is unethical. Although it could help teachers to guide students as how to answer questions in the examination, it should be discouraged for two reasons. First, the chief examiners will be endangered should students failed their examinations. Second, it exposes the chief examiners to immorality since some school authority and even parents of students might attempt to bribe them in order to favour students when marking their scripts.

In terms of the effects of support services on academic performance it was varied. While some indicated that the provision of support services to students improved their academic performance, others were of a contrary view.

Those respondents who indicated it had a positive impact on academic performance noted that this outcome was because the support services promoted effective teaching and learning, enabled students to link what they had learnt in the classroom to practices on the field and that those support services also created an environment conducive for learning. For those who said support services did not contribute to academic performance, they indicated that this was because students already had a weak academic background and that support services could not make any difference. This cast doubts on the use of support services as a strategy to improving students' academic performance.

Largely, both the focus group discussants and key informants indicated that the support services provided by the heads of schools actually promoted academic performance. For instance, a Key Informant (30th September, 2016) reported thus, "in my school the support services that I have provided have led to improved academic performance." Similarly, a Focus Group Discussant (10th October, 2016) indicated, "heads provision of support services had contributed to academic performance of students." This result implies that support services promote academic performance of students. This is because the support services lay a foundation for students to learn in a comfortable environment.

Research Question Three

How do heads of schools promote the professional development of teachers?

The rationale for this research question was to examine how the heads of schools promote professional development of teachers. For this research question, the items were both open-ended and close-ended. From the key

informant interviews, it emerged that the heads of schools hold a minimum of a Bachelor's degree and a maximum of a Master of Philosophy degree. A Key Informant (20th September, 2016) noted, "I hold a Bachelor of Education Degree and a Masters' Degree in Education, both from University of Cape Coast." This illustrates that per the qualification of the heads of schools, they should be in a good standing to facilitate the professional development of their teachers. Training workshops and seminars were organised to boost the competences of heads of schools. In all, about four management training workshops/seminars were organised between 2013 and 2016. They included leadership workshop, inclusive learning in classroom, human resource management, and performance management and appraisal. The frequency of organisation and the number of workshops organised seemed to be limited over the three years' period which could have limited the competencies acquired.

However, some of the competencies acquired from these workshops encapsulated skills in planning for quality delivery of teaching, administrative management skills, ability to motivate staff, bringing innovation into the classroom, skills in monitoring and evaluation of teachers, and skills in providing right resources and environment for effective teaching and learning. For instance, a Key Informant (9th September, 2016) reported, "I acquired skills in the ability to motivate staff and plan for quality delivery of teaching from the workshops I attended." Per the academic qualification of the heads of schools, complemented with the competencies acquired from the training workshops and seminars the revelation is that heads have the capacity to carry out the professional development of their own staff.

In order to provide professional development services to teachers, the heads must first identify those professional needs. Some of the ways for the identification of teachers' professional needs included having a discussion with heads of department, through staff meetings, assessment of teaching, and assessment of students' performance. Also, it was obtained through subject association meetings, checking of teachers' records, checking the qualification of teachers, monitoring and through interpersonal relationship. For example, a Key Informant (27th September, 2016) has stated, 'in my school, identification of teachers' professional development needs is via meetings, checking of students and teachers' record.' The results suggest that heads use multiplicity of methods to determine the professional development needs of their teachers. This is possibly because they want to be very certain about the appropriate skill sets that they should focus more on.

After identifying professional competences of teachers, the crucial issue becomes how such competences should be developed. From the key informant interview and focus group discussion, it emerged that the competencies of the teachers can be developed through in-service training, assisting teachers to attend conferences and workshops. The rest are by using resource persons, provision of reference materials, sponsoring teachers to attend subject based association meetings, allowing teachers to go for further studies and through internal peer and team mentoring. The results illustrate that heads use varied methods to promote the professional development of their teachers. This ensures that teachers acquire different skills to make them effective in the delivery of lessons.

The head of a school has the responsibility to ensure that the teachers under his or her control have their professional competencies developed. Under these circumstances the head of a school is expected to create the appropriate environment so as to facilitate the process of developing the professional skills of their teachers. In connection with head of a school's role in the professional development of teachers, the results are presented in Table 11.

Table 12: Perception about Head's Role that Contribute to Teacher Professional Development

Roles of Head of School	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school commends teachers who apply effective classroom teaching techniques.	292(65.6)	71(16.0)	82(18.4)	100
The head of my school holds post-observation conferences with teachers to discuss teaching practices.	298(67.0)	55(12.4)	92(20.6)	100
The head of my school values a teacher's contribution to the development of the school.	399(89.7)	16(3.6)	30(6.7)	100
The head of my school involves all teachers in what the school is trying to achieve.	376(84.5)	22(4.9)	47(10.6)	100
The head of my school makes appropriate provision for teachers to advance their knowledge.	288(64.7)	77(17.3)	80(18.0)	100
Source: Field Data (2016)	N=445			

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

Table 11, continued

Roles of Head of School	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school periodically organises school-based in-service training to update and refresh teachers on new developments in teaching and learning process.	211(47.4)	71(16.0)	163(36.6)	100
The head of my school makes provision for senior teachers to mentor beginning teachers.	244(54.8)	76(17.1)	125(28.1)	100
The head of my school involves teachers in decision-making	355(79.8)	30(6.7)	60(13.5)	100
The head of my school delegates duties to teachers.	401(90.1)	17(3.8)	27(6.1)	100
The head of my school sponsors teachers to attend workshops/seminars.	336(75.5)	62(13.9)	47(10.6)	100
The head of my school discusses instructional strategies with teachers.	249(56.0)	91(20.4)	105(23.6)	100
The head of my school provides teachers with adequate resources to support their instruction.	269(60.4)	74(16.6)	102(22.9)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

The results in Table 11 demonstrate that heads of schools support the professional development of their teachers. With the exception of the statement, “the head of my school periodically organises school-based in-service training to update and refresh teachers on new developments in the teaching and learning

process” (47.4%), more than half of the respondents SA/A to all other statements. The respondents’ general perception is that heads of their schools have the desire of building the capacity of their teachers which will go a long way to improve upon their lesson delivery. This is important because it makes the teachers feel they matter in the school, as such they will put in their best in their work and at the long run be beneficial to the students. It was also noted during the focus group discussion and key informant interviews that the head of their school periodically organises school-based in-service training to update and refresh teachers on new developments in the teaching and learning process as well as allowing some senior teachers to mentor the younger ones. The performances of these roles imply that teachers would have their professional competencies developed. This is to ensure that lessons are delivered with ease and are understood by the students. Also, the head does these roles to ensure that the teachers’ capacities are built to ensure that they are able to teach their students without challenges.

Concerning the disaggregation of results on whether or not the heads of schools play a role in relation to their teachers’ professional development according to school Category, the results are presented in Table 12.

Table 13: Respondents' Endorsement on the Role Heads of Schools Play in Teachers Professional Development

Category of SHS	Does the head of your school play a major role in your professional development?					
	Yes		No		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	147	77.0	44	23.0	191	100
2	93	72.1	36	27.9	129	100
3	113	90.4	12	9.6	125	100
Total	353	79.2	92	20.8	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 12 indicate that in all the Categories, more than two-thirds of the respondents endorsed heads of schools' roles in promoting the professional development of teachers. This indicates that heads of schools play a major role in teachers' professional development. Specifically, in Category 1 SHSs the results show that more than two-third (77%) of the respondents said *yes*. This indicates that heads play a major role in teachers' professional development. In relation to Category 2 SHSs, the results reveal that out of the 129 respondents close to two-third (72.1%) of them said *yes*. This denotes that heads play a major role in teachers' professional development. However, in Category 3 schools, the number of respondents (90.1%) who affirmed the roles heads of schools play in the professional development of teachers is greater than the other two Categories. The implication is that heads of Category 3 schools have more interest and indeed, they do organise programmes for the professional development of their teachers. This is to help fill some deficits in the professional competencies of the teachers.

In addition, the significance of the heads of schools' role in relation to the teachers' professional development was dissected based on duration of teaching of respondents. The details of the results on the significance of the heads role in relation to the teachers' professional development by duration of teaching are presented in Table 13.

Table 14: Significance of Head's Role in Teachers' Professional Development by Duration of Teaching

			Duration of Teaching				Total	
			Less than three years	Three years	Four years	Above four years		
Degree of Head's Role in Teachers Professional Development in terms of the number of years teachers have been teaching	Yes	N	24	61	64	204	353	
		%	75	70.1	82.1	82.3	79.2	
	No	N	8	26	14	44	92	
		%	25	29.9	17.9	17.7	20.8	
Total	N		32	87	78	248	445	
	%		100	100	100	100	100	

Source: Field Data (2016)

Table 13 demonstrates that a significant proportion (82.3%) of the respondents that have taught for over four years stated that heads play a major role in teachers' professional development. This is more than other teachers who have taught for four or less number of years. This indicates that those who have taught for more than four years have benefited from several programmes that heads of their schools have organised for their professional development.

On the subject of whether heads play a major role in teachers' professional development, different reasons were advanced. For the respondents that said *yes*, suggesting that heads play a major role in their professional development, they argued that this was because the heads of their schools continued to; encourage teachers to build their own capacity, assist teachers to gain study leave, organise in-service training, mentor teachers, caution teachers to be on track, and eschew mediocre results on any assignment given to a staff. This shows that a multitude of factors accounted for respondents supporting the idea that their heads play a significant role in their professional development.

On the contrary, those that said *no*, indicating that heads of schools do not play a major role in their professional development, claimed that this was because heads of schools normally turn down request for further studies. They further argued that heads of schools do not make adequate provision for teachers to advance their knowledge, that there is no in-service training for teachers, heads of schools are usually unavailable when needed and that teachers themselves are responsible for making the choice about their professional development. The implication of these situations is that the professional development efforts of the teachers would be thwarted.

As heads of schools promote the professional development of their teachers; it is critical to identify the kind of competencies of teachers the heads focus on developing. This is because the types of competencies developed may either have a bearing on students' academic performance or not. The results on the competencies of teachers that heads of schools are to develop are showed in Table 14.

Table 15: Professional Competencies of Teachers that Heads of Schools Develop

Professional Competencies	Response Category			Total (%)
	Rarely	Occasionally/ Sometimes	Often/ Always	
Teaching skills	127(28.5)	226(50.8)	92(20.7)	100
Knowledge of subject matter	121(27.2)	242(54.4)	82(18.4)	100
Classroom management	136(30.6)	249(56.0)	60(13.4)	100
Leadership skills	134(30.1)	235(52.8)	76(17.1)	100
Assessment skills	126(28.3)	237(53.3)	82(18.4)	100
Recording and keeping of students' portfolio	178(40.0)	197(44.3)	70(15.7)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445

Note: Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

It is observed from Table 14 that a little over half of the respondents said all the competencies were *occasionally or sometimes* (O/S) developed while less than 20.7 percent of the respondents indicated that all the competencies were *often or always* (O/A) developed. Correspondingly, both the focus group discussants and key informants indicated that heads of schools usually develop the pedagogy of teachers. For example, a Focus Group Discussant (10th September, 2016) said, “the head of my school normally developed our competence in the subject matter.” Similarly, a Key Informant (15th September, 2016) indicated, “in my school I ensure that teachers’ assessment skills are developed. This was because most of them had deficiencies in the way they assess their students.” The results suggest that heads develop the competencies of their teachers in order to ensure that they are able to deliver lessons in such a

way that would facilitate students' understanding of what is taught. It is equally to ensure that the latest content in subjects is instructed to ensure that knowledge given to students is relevant.

As heads develop the professional competencies of teachers, it is vital to examine its worth. The issue of the effect of professional development of teachers on students' academic performance was examined from respondents' general perspective and afterwards disaggregated by school Category and duration of teaching. The disaggregation was to find out whether there were variations associated with the school Categories and duration of teaching in connection with the effect of professional development of teachers on students' academic performance.

In terms of the respondents' general view on the professional development of teachers on students' academic performance the results show that more than two-third (87.6%) of the respondents said yes, suggesting that the professional development of teachers has an effect on students' academic performance. On the contrary, 12.4 percent of the respondents indicated *no*, showing that the professional development of teachers has no effect on students' academic performance. Similarly, both the focus group discussants and key informants indicated that heads of schools' development of the competencies of teachers has contributed greatly to academic performance as it improves upon the way teachers teach. For instance, a Focus Group Discussant (12th September, 2016) has indicated, "the development of our competencies by the head of a school has led to our being effective in the delivery of lessons, and as such leading to improved academic performance." As the development of professional competencies of teachers impact positively on students' academic

performance, this demonstrates that it is appropriate for all heads to develop the competencies of their teachers so as to improve the academic performance of their students.

Concerning the disaggregation of effects of professional development of teachers on students' academic performance according to school category, the results are presented in Table 15.

Table 16: Effects of Teachers Professional Development on Students' Academic Performance According to Category of Schools

Category of SHS	Do the roles the head of your school play in your professional development have effect on students' academic performance?				Total	
	Yes		No		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
1	159	83.2	32	16.8	191	100
2	117	90.7	12	9.3	129	100
3	114	91.2	11	8.8	125	100
Total	390	87.6	55	12.4	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 15 show that in all the Categories, there is affirmation that the roles that their heads of schools play in their professional development have effects on the academic performance of their students. This is because in all the school Categories, more than two-thirds of the respondents noted that the roles played by their school heads have an effect on students' academic performance. This depicts that all the SHS Categories perceived professional development of teachers as crucial to academic performance and as such heads of schools must gear their attention to it.

In relation to the effect of professional development of teachers on students' academic performance, it was dissected based on duration of teaching of respondents. The details of the results on the effect of professional development of teachers on students' academic performance are shown in Table 16.

Table 17: Effects of Teachers' Professional Development on Students' Academic Performance by Duration of Teaching

Question		Duration of Teaching				Total	
		Less than three years	Three years	Four years	Above four years		
Do the roles the head of your school play in your professional development have effect on students' academic performance?	Yes	N	16	57	57	221	390
		%	83.3	88.5	85.9	88.4	87.6
	No	N	14	30	21	29	55
		%	16.7	11.5	14.1	11.6	12.4
	Total	N	30	87	78	250	445
		%	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 16 illustrate that generally, more than two-third of respondents, irrespective of their years of teaching, were of the opinion that their professional development had an effect on their students' academic performance. Particularly, majority (83.3%) of the respondents who taught for less than three years, those who taught for three years (88.5%), those who taught for four years (85.9%), and those that have taught for over four years (88.4%) said *yes*, suggesting that the professional development of teachers has an effect

on students' academic performance. The results demonstrate that professional development is vital to students' academic performance as all teachers with different years of experience endorsed this fact. As such all teachers, irrespective of their level of experience, still need some degree of professional development.

As to whether the roles of the heads of schools in promoting teacher professional development have effects on students' academic performance, several reasons were advanced. For those that said *yes*, showing that teacher professional development facilitated by the school head contributed to academic performance, advanced some reasons to back their stands. They claimed this position was taken because the development of their professional competencies introduces them to the appropriate teaching strategies, enhances their lesson delivery, improves their competency and ensures that they are able to foster discipline among students. On the contrary, those that said teacher professional development facilitated by school heads do not contribute to academic performance claimed that this is because it was not regularly done and as such, its impact is not much felt.

Research Question Four

How do heads of SHSs monitor curriculum enactment in the classroom to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction?

The purpose of this research question was to ascertain whether heads monitor curriculum enactment to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction. The items on this research question were both open-ended and close-ended.

As heads are the leaders of schools, it was relevant to find out how their monitoring contributes to ensure coverage of the syllabi and quality of instruction. In this respect, the frequency of heads of schools' observation of instruction was examined. The issue is first examined from a respondents' general viewpoint and afterwards disaggregated based on school Category and duration of teaching.

From respondents' general perspective of the frequency of heads of schools' observation of instruction, the results revealed that more than half (53.7%) of the respondents said heads of schools' observation of teaching was *occasional*. A little over a quarter (26.1%) of the respondents indicated that the heads of schools' observation of instruction was *frequent* while the rest (20.2%) noted that the heads of their schools did *not at all* observe their teaching. From both the focus group discussions and the key informant interviews, it surfaced that the heads of schools occasionally monitor the teaching of teachers. In connection with this, a Focus Group Discussant (18th September, 2016) pointed out, 'the head of my school occasionally monitors my teaching when he/she has some time to spare.' This suggests that generally heads of schools monitor teaching occasionally. The implication is that certain deficiencies the teachers have might not be easily identified and addressed promptly.

The issue of heads of schools' observation of instruction was disaggregated according to school Category. This was to find out whether there were variations in the heads of schools' observation of teaching among the Categories. The results are captured in Table 17.

Table 18: Frequency of Heads of schools' Observing Teaching by Category of SHS

Frequency of Heads of schools' Observing Teaching		Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Total
Frequently	N	19	25	72	116
	%	9.9	19.4	57.6	26.1
Occasionally	N	111	86	42	239
	%	58.1	66.7	33.6	53.7
Not at all	N	61	18	11	90
	%	31.9	14.0	8.8	20.2
Total	N	191	129	125	445
	%	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

As shown in Table 17, majority of the respondents in Categories 1 and 2, comprising 58.1 percent and 66.7 percent respectively said that heads of schools' observation of instruction was *occasional*. Nonetheless, in Category 3 SHSs nearly three-fifth (57.6%) of the respondents indicated that heads observation of teaching was *frequent*. These results suggest that there are variations in the level of observation in the various school Categories. Similarly, in an interview with a Key Informant (28th September, 2016), it was remarked "I regularly monitor the teaching of my teachers every week." With frequent observation of teaching in Category 3 schools, the possibility of teachers' errors being addressed timely is higher compared to the other school Categories. It was also observed that heads of schools in Category 1 are always in school before teaching starts. Heads of schools in this category also sit in class to observe teaching. They also check the scheme of work of teachers to

ensure coverage of the syllabus. The heads of the other categories occasionally sit in class to observe teaching and learning. The implication is that teachers are often present to deliver their lessons at the right time to ensure coverage of the syllabus. The teachers also prepare in advance before teaching since the head of school will be present to observe their teaching.

In addition, the frequency of heads of schools' observation of instruction was dissected based on duration of teaching of respondents. The details of the results on heads of schools' observation of teaching by duration of teaching are shown in Table 18.

Table 19: Frequency of Heads of schools' Observing Teaching by Duration of by Duration of Teaching

Frequency of Heads of schools' Observing Teaching		Duration of Teaching				Total
		Less than three years	Three years	Four years	Above four years	
Frequently	N	9	25	11	71	116
	%	30.0	28.7	14.1	28.4	26.1
Occasionally	N	16	42	46	135	239
	%	53.3	48.3	59.0	54.0	53.7
Not at all	N	5	20	21	44	90
	%	16.7	23.0	26.9	17.6	20.2
Total	N	30	87	78	250	445
	%	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 19 denote that by and large, apart from those with three years teaching experience, with less than half of them indicating heads of schools' observation of their instruction as *occasional*, the rest have more than

half of respondents noting that heads observation of their instruction was *occasional*. This suggests that largely there is no variation in respondents' view about the frequency of heads observation of their instruction as they stated it was *occasional* across all the years of teaching experience. The results demonstrate that teachers would not benefit maximally from the experience of the head as the monitoring is not done regularly. Challenges faced by the teachers would not be attended to promptly.

The observation of students' learning by the head of a school might have an influence on students' learning and academic performance. The usefulness of the head's monitoring would depend on its frequency. As such, it is essential to study the frequency of heads of SHSs' observation of students' learning. This issue of heads' observation of students' learning is looked at from respondents' general view point and subsequently disaggregated based on school Category and duration of teaching.

On the issue of frequency of heads of schools observing students' learning, results depicted that more than half (53%) of the respondents stated that heads observation of students learning was *occasional*. Nearly 29 percent of the respondents indicated that the head's observation of students' learning was *frequent* whereas the rest (18.5%) indicated that the heads of their schools do *not at all* observe students' learning. These results show that most (53%) of the heads of SHSs observe students' learning, but that it is done *occasionally*. It was revealed from the focus group discussion and key informant interviews that though heads of schools monitor learning, this is however done occasionally. The results illustrate that occasional observation of how students learn could reveal a lot of their weaknesses that would have gone unnoticed. This means

that the possibility of this action to have a positive bearing on teaching and learning might be limited since it is not done often.

As regard the issue of heads of schools' observation of students learning, it was further disaggregated according to school Category as shown in Table 19.

Table 20: Frequency of Head's Monitoring Students' Learning by Category of SHS

Frequency of head's monitoring of students learning	Category of SHS						Total	
	1		2		3		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Frequently	18	9.4	32	24.8	77	61.6	127	28.5
Occasionally	125	65.4	77	59.7	34	27.2	236	53.0
Not at all	48	25.1	20	15.5	14	11.2	82	18.4
Total	191	100	129	100	125	100	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

As shown in Table 19, within Category 1 and 2 SHSs most of the respondents, constituting 65.4 percent and 59.7 percent respectively, indicated that heads observation of students learning was *occasional*. However, in Category 3 SHSs a little over three-fifth (61.6%) of the respondents pointed out that heads observation of teaching was *frequent*. These results suggest that there are variations in the level of observation in the various school Categories. Likewise, a Key Informant (5th September, 2016) noted, "I usually frequently monitor learning of my students often." With frequent observation of students learning in Category 3 SHSs the probability of students' weaknesses being

identified and addressed on time is higher compared to the remaining school Categories.

Besides, the frequency of heads observation of students learning was examined based on duration of teaching of respondents. This was significant because the time-span of a respondent's teaching in a particular school would give the person an idea as to the frequency of a head of school's monitoring of students' learning. The results on heads of schools' observation of students' learning by duration of teaching are in Table 20.

Table 21: Frequency of Heads of schools Monitoring Students Learning by Duration of Teaching

Frequency of head observing your teaching		Duration of Teaching				Total
		Less than three years	Three years	Four years	Above four years	
Frequently	N	7	23	21	76	127
	%	23.3	26.4	26.9	30.4	28.5
Occasionally	N	16	44	45	131	236
	%	53.3	50.6	57.7	52.4	53.0
Not at all	N	7	20	12	43	82
	%	23.3	23.0	15.4	17.2	18.4
Total	N	30	87	78	250	445
	%	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results shown in Table 20 denote that generally, irrespective of the duration of teaching, more than half of respondents in each category noted that heads observation of their students learning was *occasional*. This depicts there is no variation in respondents' perspective about the frequency of heads of

schools' observation of their students learning. The results reveal that students would not benefit greatly from the experience of the head as the observation is done irregularly. That is, weaknesses of students would not be attended to at the appointed time as they are not often monitored.

Every school needs some resources and facilities to promote learning of students. The presence or absence of these resources and facilities in a school has implications for the academic performance of the students. As such the availability of resources and facilities to promote students' learning was examined. In terms of respondents' general view about the availability of resources and facilities to make easy students' learning, the results demonstrate that about nine percent of the respondents stated that resources and facilities to promote students' learning are *very adequate*. Just a little above two-fifths (41.6%) of the respondents indicated that resources and facilities to promote students' learning are *adequate* whereas the rest (49%) indicated that resources and facilities to promote students' learning are *inadequate*. When the responses are considered based on the response category, it is realised that the modal group (49%) indicated that there are *adequate* resources and facilities to facilitate students learning. However, when the categories of *adequate* and *very adequate* are merged the results show that more than half (51%) of the respondents noted that resources and facilities to promote students learning are *very adequate or adequate*.

On the subject of availability of resources and facilities to promote students' learning, it was further disaggregated according to school Category as shown in Table 21.

Table 22: Category of SHS by Availability of Resources and Facilities

Category of SHS	Availability of resources and facilities in School						Total	
	Very adequate		Adequate		Inadequate		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
1	11	5.8	44	23.0	136	71.2	191	100
2	11	8.5	56	43.4	62	48.1	129	100
3	20	16.0	85	68.0	20	16.0	125	100
Total	42	9.4	185	41.6	218	49.0	445	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 21 showed that majority of respondents in Category 2 and 3 SHSs indicated that the availability of resources and facilities are *very adequate or adequate*, while those in Category 1 schools noted that the resources and facilities were *inadequate*. The results revealed that there is a variation in the perception of respondents on the availability of resources and facilities. These results suggest that there is a higher likelihood that the teaching and learning environment created in Category 2 and 3 SHS would be better than what would pertain in Category 1 SHSs.

The ability to cover the syllabus lays a good foundation for students to perform well in their examinations. On this account, it was considered necessary to ascertain the extent to which the head’s monitoring of teaching and learning influences the coverage of the syllabus. The results indicate that just a little above half (52.1%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *somehow* influences coverage of syllabus whereas the rest 11.9 percent noted that the monitoring of teaching and learning does *not at all* influence coverage of syllabus. The results revealed that majority (52.1%) of

the respondents indicated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *somehow* influences coverage of syllabus. This suggests that though monitoring ensures coverage of the syllabus it is nonetheless not a panacea.

Covering the syllabus alone is not enough to guarantee good academic performance, but the quality of teaching of issues to be covered in the syllabus is equally vital. As regard respondents' perception about the influence of monitoring of teaching and learning on quality of teaching, the results indicated that a nearly two-thirds (70.8%) of the respondents said that the monitoring of teaching and learning *greatly* influences quality of teaching. Further, 26.3 percent of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *somehow* influences quality of teaching while the remaining 2.9 percent have stated that the monitoring of teaching and learning does *not at all* influence quality of teaching. The results denote that most (70.8%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *greatly* influences quality of teaching. This implies that monitoring of teaching and learning ensures that the teachers teach appropriately and eventually the students benefit from such a situation. This has the likelihood of improving academic performance of students.

Heads of schools usually carry out certain activities in order to ensure that they are able to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching. This they do because of the likely impact it may have on students' academic performance. On that account, it was deemed crucial to centre on the activities that heads of SHSs do so as to facilitate coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction. The results are shown in Table 22.

Table 23: Teachers' Perception about Heads of Schools' Role in Ensuring Coverage of Syllabus and Quality Instruction

Activity	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school monitors the interaction between teachers and students in the classroom.	347(78.0)	36(8.1)	62(13.9)	100
The head of my school monitors how teachers deliver lesson to ensure quality teaching.	249(56.0)	69(15.5)	127(28.5)	100
The head of my school monitors teachers to ensure that they teach according to the syllabus.	281(63.2)	69(15.5)	95(21.3)	100
The head of my school monitors teachers to ensure coverage of syllabus.	216(48.6)	103(23.1)	126(28.3)	100
The head of my school monitors to ensure that teachers use different methods of instruction to suit learners of different abilities.	211(47.4)	92(20.7)	142(31.9)	100
The head of my school monitors to ensure that co-curriculum activities supplement classroom work.	327(73.5)	37(8.3)	81(18.2)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

Table 22, continued

Activity	Response Category			Total (%)
	SA/A	U	D/SD	
The head of my school monitors and gives teachers feedback on appropriate classroom interactions between teachers and students.	215(48.4)	74(16.6)	156(35.0)	100
The head of my school monitors to ensure that teachers use appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching.	284(63.8)	66(14.8)	95(21.4)	100
The head of my school monitors students learning.	249(55.0)	69(15.5)	127(28.5)	100
The head of my school visits and observe teaching and learning regularly.	358(80.4)	39(8.8)	48(10.8)	100

Source: Field Data (2016) N=445

Note: SA/A=strongly agree/agree; U=undecided; D/SD=disagree/strongly disagree; Numbers in parentheses are in percentages

The results from Table 22 illustrate that most of the respondents largely *agreed or strongly agreed* with the statements. With the exception of ‘the head of my school monitors teachers to ensure coverage of syllabus, ensure that teachers use different methods of instruction to suit learners of different abilities and monitors and gives teachers feedback on appropriate classroom interactions between teachers and students which have affirmation being below 50 percent’, the rest have their affirmation above 50 percent. Correspondingly, from the focus group discussion and key informant interviews, it emerged that heads of schools monitor interaction between teachers and students, monitor delivery of lessons, and use of appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching to

ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching. For example, a Key Informant (11th September, 2016) indicated, “in my school I regularly check the lesson plans of teachers in order to ensure coverage of the syllabus and that quality of teaching is maintained.” These mean that heads institute a variety of measures just to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of teaching. This is because it lays the basis for students performing well academically and acquiring relevant knowledge

As heads of schools monitor classroom activities, it becomes important to examine the relevance of such actions to academic performance of the students. The results of the relationship between heads monitoring of classroom activities and academic performance, the results show that close to three-fifth (57.8%) of the respondents said that the monitoring of classroom activities has a *very high or high impact* on academic performance, while 1.6 percent stated it had *no impact* on academic performance of students. The results denote that majority (57.8%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of classroom activities has a *very high or high impact* on academic performance. In the same way, both the focus group discussants and key informants have stated that heads monitoring of teaching and learning has led to improved academic performance of students. This denotes that it is vital that heads take the monitoring of classroom activities seriously if they want to improve the academic performance of their students.

Research Question Five

How do the curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana affect students' academic performance?

The purpose of this research question was to analyse the effect of curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools on students' academic performance in SHSs. The responses to items 10, 19, 20, and 26 to 30 of teachers, items 25 to 29 for heads of schools and items 20 to 24 of teacher focus group discussants were used to answer this research question.

In terms of educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance, they were varied. Some of these targets included promoting student retention, ensuring excellent performance, particularly in WASSCE, ensuring that most students progress to the tertiary level, promoting proficient skills in practical subject areas, and producing students with high moral standards. The rest are teaching the right content, creation of conducive environment for effective teaching and learning, increasing the literacy rate, becoming a respected school and provision of extra tuition. For instance, a Key Informant (6th September, 2016) has pointed out, "my school's priority is to ensure that most of the students pass WASSCE, students' progress to tertiary level and that the students develop good moral values." In a like way, a Focus Group Discussant (7th September, 2016) indicated, "our school's targets are to improve academic performance, promote proficiencies in practical skills and to increase literacy in Ghana." The results suggest that the priority is given to academic performance and as such they would have to put in measures to attain that objective.

Several roles are played in order to achieve the educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance. Some of the roles encapsulate mentoring of both students and teachers, ensuring effective supervision of teachers and students work as well as provision of teaching and learning materials. It also entails the creation of good learning environment, request for qualified teachers, ensuring that there is discipline, motivation of both staff and students, encouraging staff to upgrade their skills, and inspection of students' report cards. In relation to this, a Key Informant (26th September, 2016) noted, "I normally provide teaching and learning materials, supervise teachers, inspect students' reports cards and motivate both teachers and students who are hardworking. The results suggest that different methods are used to meet the educational targets. This is reasonable because academic performance is influenced by a gamut of factors. With respect to the frequency of performance of these roles, it varies markedly. The frequency of carrying out the roles include daily, bi-weekly, weekly, monthly, termly, and ending of academic year.

With the execution of curriculum leadership roles by heads of schools it is vital to determine the extent to which these roles influence academic performance. In order to assess the impact of curriculum leadership role on academic performance, the respondents were asked to grade their schools' performance in WASSCE for the past five years. The results illustrate that about 43 percent of the respondents said the performance was *good or excellent*. Furthermore, nearly 45 percent of the respondents indicated the performance was average while the remaining 12.4 percent said it was *poor*. The results show that the modal group (45%) stated that the academic performance was *average*.

Also, Table 23 presents data on performance of students in the WASSCE from 2014 to 2016 for the sample schools in Northern Region.

Table 24: Data on Performance of Students in WASSCE from 2014 to 2016 for the Sample Schools in Northern Region

Year	Number of Students who obtained Grade A1 – C6 (3 Core Subjects, including English and Maths; and 3 Electives)	Total number of Students who sat for June WASSCE
2014	526	6885
2015	644	9078
2016	1351	9202
Total	2521	25165

Source: West African Examination Council, Accra

The data demonstrates that in 2014, 526 students who sat for WASSCE obtained Grade A1 – C6 (3 Core Subjects, including English and Maths; and 3 Electives), which rose to 1351 in 2016. This data supports the assertion of the teachers that the performance of students in WASSCE is *good/excellent* as the trend shows a marginal continuous increase in performance.

On the issue of the disaggregation of academic performance according to school Category, the results are presented in Table 24.

Table 25: Category of SHS by Academic Performance Over Five Year

Category of SHS		Academic performance over five years			Total
		Poor	Average	Good Excellent	
Category 1	N	39	93	59	191
	%	20.4	48.7	30.90	100
Category 2	N	13	56	60	129
	%	10.1	43.4	46.60	100
Category 3	N	3	50	72	125
	%	2.4	40.0	57.60	100
Total	N	55	199	191	445
	%	12.4	44.7	42.90	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 24 revealed that most of respondents in Category 2 and 3 SHSs indicated that academic performance in WASSCE was *good or excellent* whereas majority of the respondents in Category 1 schools noted that academic performance was *average*. The results illustrate that there is a variation in the views of respondents on academic performance. The academic performance in Category 2 and 3 SHSs are probably good because of the kind of curriculum leadership offered by the school heads.

Moreover, Table 25 presents data on performance of students in Northern Region in WASSCE from 2014 to 2016 which is disaggregated based on the SHS category.

Table 26: Category of SHS by Pass Performance of Students in WASSCE from 2014 to 2016 for the Sample Schools in Northern Region

Category of SHS	Number of Students who obtained Grade A1 – C6 (3 Core Subjects, including English and Maths; and 3 Electives)			Total number of Students who sat for June WASSCE		
	2014	2015	2016	2014	2015	2016
1	70	99	286	2642	3845	3546
2	199	230	496	2052	2647	3222
3	257	315	569	2191	2586	2434
Total	526	644	1351	6885	9078	9202

Source: West African Examination Council, Accra (2016)

The data from Table 25 show that from 2014 to 2016, the students who sat for WASSCE and obtained Grade A1 – C6 (3 Core Subjects, including English and Maths; and 3 Electives) for all the SHSs categories was increasing uninterruptedly but at a marginal level. However, more students in category 3 SHSs passed compared to the others, with the least pass occurring consistently in the category 1 SHSs. This trend emerging from this secondary data supports the finding in Table 24 that category 3 SHSs had most of their students having *good/excellent* performance in the last five years in WASSCE with the majority of those in category 1 SHSs experiencing *average* academic performance.

As regards the disaggregation of academic performance by duration of teaching of respondents the results are in Table 26.

Table 27: Duration of Teaching by Academic Performance over Five year

	Academic performance			Total
	Poor	Average	Good/Excellent	
Less than three years	N	11	13	30
	%	36.7	43.3	
Three years	N	13	45	87
	%	14.9	51.7	
Four years	N	14	31	78
	%	17.9	39.7	
Above four years	N	17	110	250
	%	6.8	44.0	
Total	N	55	199	445
	%	12.4	44.7	

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 26 denote that by and large, respondents teaching three years and less indicated that academic performance in WASSCE has been *average* while those teaching for four years and beyond noted that the academic performance over the past five years have been *good or excellent*. This shows that there is difference in opinions of respondents about academic performance based on duration of teaching. This suggests that the longer one stays in a school the better the person is informed about the trend in academic performance.

The attribution of academic performance in WASSCE to curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools were examined. The results demonstrate that a little more than three-fifths (61.8%) of the respondents said *yes*, meaning students WASSCE academic performance were related to heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles. Yet, 24.5 percent were *not sure* as to whether students' WASSCE academic performance were attributable to heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles played or not. The results show that

majority (61.9%) of the respondents are of the view that students' WASSCE academic performance are attributed to curriculum leadership roles of the head. This suggests that the academic performance of students in WASSCE is influenced by the curriculum leadership provided by the heads of schools. Heads of schools whose target is academic excellence must therefore execute their curriculum leadership roles diligently.

For the disaggregation of attribution of academic performance in WASSCE due to curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools according to school Category, the results are in Table 27.

Table 28: Category of SHS by Academic Performance Attributed to Heads

		Yes	No	Not sure	Total
Category 1	N	109	24	58	191
	%	57.1	12.6	30.4	100
Category 2	N	75	32	22	129
	%	58.1	24.8	17.1	100
Category 3	N	91	5	29	125
	%	72.8	4.0	23.2	100
Total	N	275	61	109	445
	%	61.8	13.7	24.5	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 27 illustrate that in all the Categories, more than half of the respondents said *yes*, indicating that the academic performance of students in WASSCE were related to the heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles. The highest endorsement was however in Category 3 schools. The results suggested that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles were perceived as being critical to cruising to academic excellence.

Previous research shows that there is uncertainty as to head's curriculum leadership role relationship with academic performance. This is because while some argue it has a direct nexus with academic performance, others rather think it has an indirect linkage. As heads of schools perform their curriculum leadership role, it is vital to ascertain the kind of effects they have on academic performance of students. Relating to the heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles linkage with academic performance, the results illustrate that a little more than three-fifths (62.9%) of the respondents said *yes*, meaning heads of schools' curriculum leadership role have effects on the academic performance of students. However, 13.3 percent were *not sure* of the effects heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles have on the academic performance of students. These results depict that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles have a direct connection with academic performance of students. As such, heads must execute their roles properly to achieve the desired impact.

For the disaggregation of heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles linkage with academic performance according to school Category the results are in Table 28. The results in Table 28 show that irrespective of the school Category nearly three-fifth of the respondents said *yes*, denoting that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles have effects on the academic performance of students. This implies that heads of schools must take their curriculum leadership roles seriously as the non-performance of their roles might cause poor academic performance of students in their schools.

Table 29: Category of SHS by Heads of Schools' Roles Linkage to Academic Performance

Category of SHS	Head's roles have direct link to academic performance				Total
	Yes	No	Not sure		
Category 1	N	113	24	54	191
	%	59.2	12.6	28.3	100
Category 2	N	81	24	24	129
	%	62.8	18.6	18.6	100
Category 3	N	86	11	28	125
	%	68.8	8.8	22.4	100
Total	N	280	59	106	445
	%	62.9	13.3	23.8	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

Pertaining to the disaggregation of heads curriculum leadership roles linkage with academic performance according to educational qualification the results are in Table 29. The results in Table 29 show that all the respondents irrespective of their educational qualification, have more than half of them said yes, meaning heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles have direct relationship with academic performance. However, the level of affirmation is much higher (81.8%) for respondents with other educational qualifications. In general, the results signify that curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools have a direct linkage with academic performance as such heads must be diligent in performing these roles.

Table 30: Educational Qualification by Heads of Schools' Roles Link to Academic Performance

Educational qualification	Heads of schools' roles direct linkage to academic performance				
		Yes	No	Not sure	Total
BEd/BA/ BSc	N	208	46	89	343
	%	60.6	13.4	25.9	100
MPhil/MSc/MA	N	63	12	16	91
	%	69.2	13.2	17.6	100
Others	N	9	1	1	11
	%	81.8	9.1	9.1	100
Total	N	280	59	106	445
	%	62.9	13.3	23.8	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

While some of the respondents advanced reasons supporting that curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools had a direct linkage with academic performance, others presented reasons to refute that claim. In terms of those that noted that curriculum leadership roles have direct linkage with academic performance they said this was because heads of schools monitor teaching and learning, heads of schools ensure that teachers are present in school and actually teach, and they also provide teaching and learning materials. Additionally, curriculum leadership roles have a direct connection with academic performance because the heads of schools give pep talks to students, they organise fora for students to meet with chief examiners and they create a conducive environment for effective learning to take place and because heads constantly remind under-performing teachers that they would be released for reposting. These presupposed that heads of schools have a direct contact with

the student in the lesson delivery process. The remaining reasons are that heads are passionate about students' academic performance, they provide advice to both teachers and students, organise in-service training for teachers, and ensure discipline. A Key Informant (20th October, 2016) has indicated that "I spend between 50 to 80 percent of my time on academic work of my students." These illustrate that a multitude of reasons are advanced to support the claim that heads roles have direct link with academic performance.

For those that noted that curriculum leadership roles have no direct linkage with academic performance they put forth different reasons. The respondents claimed that heads of schools do not teach in the classroom, so they have no direct contact with the students and as such their roles cannot have a direct linkage with academic performance of students, but that it is the teachers' roles that have direct connection with students' academic performance as they are in direct contact with them. It was further indicated that heads of schools are noted for not monitoring teachers and students, lack of motivation for teachers, and lack of interest in disciplinary issues of the students. As such, heads of schools cannot have a direct linkage with academic performance. These reasons tend to illustrate that curriculum leadership cannot be totally noted to have a direct effect on academic performance.

Heads of schools normally monitor teaching and learning. The issue of interest here is the effect of the monitoring of teaching and learning on academic performance of students. In terms of the effects of heads of schools' monitoring of teaching on students' academic performance, the results are presented in Table 30.

Table 31: Frequency of Heads of Schools' Monitoring Teaching by Academic Performance

		Academic performance			
		Poor	Average	Good/Excellent	Total
Frequently	N	15	72	76	163
	%	9.2	44.2	46.6	100
Occasionally	N	32	108	105	245
	%	13.1	44.1	42.9	100
Not at all	N	8	19	10	37
	%	21.6	51.4	27.0	100
Total	N	55	199	191	445
	%	12.4	44.7	42.9	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 30 show that a modal group (46.6%) who said monitoring of teaching was *frequently* done pointed out it led to *good or excellent* academic performance. For those who noted that monitoring of teaching was *occasional or not at all* done, most of them pointed out that it led to *average* academic performance. The results also illustrate that there is variation in respondents' perceptions about academic performance with reference to the frequency of monitoring of teaching. This suggests that the more teaching is monitored the more it ensures that the teachers' weaknesses are identified and addressed timely and as such, it leads to improved academic performance.

Concerning the effects of heads of schools' monitoring of students learning on students' academic performance, the results are presented in Table 31.

Table 32: Heads of Schools' Monitoring of Students' Learning by Academic Performance

		Academic performance			Total
		Poor	Average	Good/Excellent	
Frequently	N	20	81	117	218
	%	9.2	37.2	53.7	100
Occasionally	N	30	109	66	205
	%	14.6	53.2	32.2	100
Not at all	N	5	9	8	22
	%	22.7	40.9	36.4	100
Total	N	55	199	191	445
	%	12.4	44.7	42.9	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 31 show that most (53.7%) of the respondents that stated that monitoring of students learning was *frequently* done noted it led to *good or excellent* academic performance. With respect to those who noted that monitoring of learning was *occasional or not at all* done, most of them indicated it led to *average* academic performance. The results also show that there is disparity in respondents' opinions about academic performance with reference to the frequency of monitoring of learning of students. This signifies that the more learning is monitored the more it ensures that the students' weaknesses are identified and addressed promptly so as to improve academic performance.

Since heads offer support services to students, it is crucial to ascertain its relationship with students' academic performance. On the issue of the effect of student support services on students' academic performance, the results are presented in Table 32.

Table 33: Offering of Support Services by Academic Performance

		Academic performance				
		Poor	Average	Good	Excellent	Total
Frequently	N	31	81	110		222
	%	14.0	36.5	49.5		100
Occasionally	N	18	101	77		196
	%	9.2	51.5	39.3		100
Not sure	N	6	12	4		22
	%	27.3	54.5	18.2		100
Total	N	55	194	191		440
	%	12.5	44.1	43.4		100

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 32 show that 49.5% stated that provision of support services was *frequently* done and said it led to *good or excellent* academic performance. As regard those who stated that provision of support services was *occasional or not at all* done, most of them noted that it led to *average* academic performance. This suggests that the more support services are provided the higher the chances that it will influence academic performance positively. This is because it creates a condition that is favourable for academic work.

In order to assess whether the eight predictor variables: heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities, heads of schools' monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery, heads of schools' monitoring of students learning, heads of schools' monitoring of teaching and learning, heads of schools' motivation of teachers, heads of schools' promotion of teachers professional development, heads of schools' provision of student support services, and learning environment created by heads of schools' significantly predicted

performance in WASSCE, a binary logistic regression was conducted. When all eight predictor variables were considered together in the model, they significantly predicted high academic performance in WASSCE ($\chi^2 = 42.249$, $df = 8$, $n = 445$, $p < .05$).

The Nagelkerke R^2 value of .17 suggests that about 17 percent of the variation in students' academic performance in WASSCE is accounted for by the eight predictor variables in the model. Of the eight predictors in the model only four emerged significant. These included heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities, heads of schools' monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery, heads of school' monitoring of students learning and learning environment created by the heads of schools. These four variables affect academic performance of students as shown in Table 33.

Table 34: Logistic Regression Predicting Academic Performance in WASSCE

Variable	B	SE	Odds ratio/Exp(B)	P
Head's involvement in planning of activities	-1.200	.359	.301	.001*
Head's monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery	1.158	.429	3.182	.007*
Head's monitoring of students learning	-.967	.469	.380	.039*
Head's monitoring of teaching and learning	-.775	.492	.461	.115
Head's motivation of teachers	.389	.532	1.476	.465
Head's promotion of teachers' professional development	.024	.474	1.025	.959
Head's provision of student support services	-.049	.476	.952	.917
Learning environment created by head	-.910	.373	.402	.015*
Constant	3.105	.333	22.310	.000*

Cox and Snell $R^2 = .09$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = .17$; $\chi^2 = 42.249$; $df = 8$; $p < .05$;

$n = 445$

Table 33 presents the beta (B) and odds ratios. In connection with the significant beta (B) values, one is positive while the rest are negative. The B value for heads of schools' monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery is positive. This suggests that people indicating that heads of schools monitor teachers' lesson delivery are more likely to respond good to the question, 'what the nature of academic performance in WASSCE is?' The B values for heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities, heads of schools' monitoring of students' learning and learning environment, created by heads of schools are negative. These negatives associated with heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities, heads of schools' monitoring of students learning or learning environment created by heads of schools illustrate a decrease in the chance to respond good to the question, 'what the nature of academic performance in WASSCE is?'

As regards the odds ratios/Exp(B), the odds of a person answering that academic performance is good in the WASSCE examination is 3.182 times higher than for someone who indicates that heads of schools' monitor teachers' lesson delivery, or someone who says heads of schools do not monitor teachers' lesson delivery, all other things being equal. The odds ratio for heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities is .301, which means for every extra time of involvement in planning activities by the head, the odds of reporting a good academic performance in WASSCE examination decreases by a factor of .301, all other things being equal.

In addition, the odds ratio for heads of schools' monitoring of students' learning is .380, which means for every extra time of heads of schools monitoring of students' learning, the odds of reporting a good academic

performance in WASSCE examination reduces by a factor of .380, all other things being equal. Also, the odds ratio for a learning environment created by head of a school is .402, which shows that for every extra time devoted to the creation of a learning environment by heads of schools, the odds of reporting a good academic performance in WASSCE examination declines by a factor of .402, all other things being equal.

Similarly, from both the key informant interviews and the focus group discussion it emerged that the curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools contribute to the academic performance of their students. Some indicated that this has resulted because heads' roles motivate teachers to put in their best to learn harder. For instance, a Key Informant (12th October, 2016) stated, "my roles in ensuring effective teaching and learning in the school have for a long time raised the academic performance of the students." In a like way, a Focus Group Discussant (3rd October, 2016) indicated, "the curriculum leadership roles of my school heads have led to improvement in our students' academic performance." This signifies that the performance of curriculum planning roles by the heads of schools contributes to academic performance. So, heads of schools must show high level of commitment in the performance of these roles.

Research Question Six

What are the major challenges that the heads of SHSs encounter in enacting the school curriculum in their schools?

The rationale for this question was to ascertain the challenges that heads encounter in enacting the school curriculum in their schools. The responses to

item 31 of teachers, items 30 and 31 for heads of schools and items 25 and 26 of teacher focus group discussants were used to answer this research question.

The heads of school normally encounter a myriad of challenges in their enactment of curriculum in the classroom. Some of these limitations are financial, limited infrastructure, external interferences, teacher related issues, student related issues, and bureaucracy.

One of the challenges to the heads of schools' enactment of the curriculum in the classroom is financial problems. Funds are usually needed by the head to organize in-service training, procure logistics and provide certain facilities for both students and staff. These funds are usually not available and where it is available it is normally released late to the schools. A Key Informant (4th September, 2016) has stated, "a crucial challenge faced by the school in the enactment of the curriculum is finance." Similarly, a Focus Group Discussant (8th October, 2016) noted, schools usually do not have funds to carry out their planned activities." The inadequacy of funds normally leads to the inability of heads to organise in-service training that might require contracting external consultants. This results in such activities not being organised. Also, certain facilities such as washrooms, lightening, furniture, water among others in the school that would help to create an appropriate teaching and learning environment are not provided, thus negatively affecting teaching and learning. Equally worthy of notice is that limitation in funds has led to heads' inability to provide logistics such as teaching and learning materials to facilitate practical oriented teaching. This is more disturbing in the case of laboratory equipment as practical lessons cannot be delivered.

Moreover, inadequate logistics is a challenge encountered by the school head in the enactment of the curriculum. Logistics such as teaching and learning materials are very crucial in every learning environment. Particularly, schools have inadequate laboratory equipment, textbooks and syllabuses. However, in an attempt to enact the curriculum, the head of a school comes to realize that the schools do not have adequate teaching and learning materials to facilitate learning. This normally results in the inability of students and teachers to carry out practical work. Teaching occurs with teaching and learning materials. In connection with this challenge, a Key Informant (20th September, 2016) has noted, “one of the challenges I encounter in the enactment of the curriculum is inadequacy of teaching and learning materials.” This challenge tended to limit the schools’ ability to create a good environment conducive for teaching and learning.

Furthermore, limited infrastructure is one of the challenges to the work of the head as a curriculum leader. It emerged that there was limited accommodation for teachers and students alike. This situation has resulted in overcrowding in both dormitories and in classrooms. A Focus Group Discussant (24th September, 2016) has noted, “there is inadequate infrastructure in schools presented in the form of inadequate classrooms, dormitories and bungalows.” This has resulted in an unfriendly classroom environment for the students, which can negatively affect their learning. Similarly, the inadequacy of accommodation for staff of the schools has led to most of them staying off-campus. This means that they have to commute regularly to school, which at times causes them to report late to class. Under these circumstances, students

tend to lose some instructional hours due to the lateness of some teachers, which might not be intentional.

External interference is another limitation to the work of the head of a school. This may come in several forms such as interference from family members, traditional rulers and politicians. These interferences are common during admission periods. During admission, some of the traditional and political leaders as well as family members and friends normally bring lists of applicants demanding that they should be admitted irrespective of the fact that such applicants might not have met the admission requirements. For instance, a focus group discussant remarked, “heads of schools normally face a lot of interferences in the discharge of their duties, particular when it comes to admission of students” (Focus group discussant, 12th September, 2016). Again, a Key Informant (19th September, 2016) pointed out, “during admission periods all manner of people such as politicians, friends and traditional leaders come to me to request for admission.” This affects the objectivity of the head in carrying out his or her curriculum leadership roles effectively. These interferences may lead to the admission of unqualified students.

Another challenge that the heads of schools encounter in the enactment of the curriculum is teacher related issues. In some schools, the teachers are not adequate for all the subjects. This has resulted in some heads of schools using teachers who do not have backgrounds in some subject areas to teach the subjects they have no control over which at times have negative impact on students’ academic performance. A Key Informant (12th October, 2016) claimed, “in my school there is shortage of teachers.” This confirms the assertion of inadequacy of teachers. Similarly, some teachers either absent

themselves from school regularly or come to school late. This normally results in the loss of instructional hours. Again, some of the teachers are not committed to the work. Even if they are available at post they usually do not attach seriousness to the work that they do. For instance, a Key Informant (9th October, 2016) has pointed out, 'some teachers are not committed to work.' This affects the output of the teachers.

Moreover, student related issues constitute some challenges to heads of schools' enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. Some students are indiscipline as they absent themselves from school or attend classes late without any tangible reason. Also, fresh students report to school late every academic year which suggests that they lose a lot of instruction time for the first term. In some schools, students are normally crowded in classes and this does not create any conducive environment for teaching and learning. This is because the students are usually not comfortable where they sit and as such they easily lose concentration on whatever they do.

Again, class sizes are usually above the normal class size of 45 students. This makes giving of regular assignments, exercises and test difficult. This is because the teachers are not able to quickly mark them when such assessments are made. Similarly, from the focus group discussion with the teachers it emerged that the class sizes are usually large and hence impeding the quality of instruction. Also, it is realized that some of the students are indiscipline as they do not follow instructions. In the key informant interview it was said, 'when I tell students to learn, they do not take me serious, they rather focus their energies on things that are not important' (Key informant, 16th September, 2016).

Also, bureaucracy is a challenge to the heads of schools' enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. Some decisions such as charging of certain developmental fees need approval from the Director General of Education through the school parent teacher association. This situation might end up delaying or limiting the heads of schools' curriculum enactment roles. Similarly, the heads may have a lot of administrative work to execute and this might limit the time they have available to use for curriculum enactment.

Finally, inconsistency in the educational policy is a challenge to heads' enactment of the curriculum. The educational policy environment in Ghana has been changing consistently. At one point in time the duration for SHS in Ghana was three years. This later changed to four years, but has recently been reverted to three years. Related to the changes in the educational policy is a change in the syllabi. The syllabuses have also been changing regularly. This inconsistency affects the enactment of curriculum by the heads of schools. For example, in the key informant interview it was said, "the frequent changes in the educational system and consequently the syllabus are challenges to the enactment of the curriculum by the school head" (Key Informant, 20th September, 2016). Another Key Informant (30th October, 2016) noted, "the constant changes in the duration of SHS coupled with changes in syllabus has always made it difficult to complete the syllabus." This means regular changes in educational policies regularly negatively affects the ability of the head to work effectively.

Hypotheses

The study tested four hypotheses. This subsection presents the results on all the four hypotheses that were examined.

1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the frequency of execution of curriculum planning roles of heads for the three school categories.

The frequency of the performance of the curriculum planning roles played by heads of schools was further analysed using Kruskal Wallis H test. This test was used to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various school Categories about the frequency of the execution of the curriculum planning roles by the school head. The test was carried out at an alpha level of .05. The results are presented in Table 34.



Table 35: Test Results of Kruskal Wallis H test on Frequency of Heads carrying out of Curriculum Planning Roles

Curriculum Planning Roles	Category of SHS			H	df	p			
	1	2	3						
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work.	N 31	Mean 72.11	N 87	Mean 73.01	N 97	Mean 150.85	rank 2	2	.000*
The head of my school participates with teachers to develop lesson plans.	N 28	Mean 74.57	N 66	Mean 59.47	N 97	Mean 127.04	rank 2	2	.000*
The head of my school participates with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/ learning materials.	N 37	Mean 61.19	N 27	Mean 61.48	N 90	Mean 89.01	rank 2	2	.000*
The head of my school distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery.	N 72	Mean 86.40	N 53	Mean 112.03	N 58	Mean 141.19	rank 2	2	.000*

1. Source: Field Data (2016)

2. *Significant at .05 level

Table 34, continued

Curriculum Planning Roles	Category of SHS						H	df	P
	1		2		3				
	N	Mean rank	N	Mean rank	N	Mean rank			
The head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources.	65	81.06	58	93.64	84	128.90	27.258	2	.000*
The head of my school helps teachers to develop test items.	54	76.45	34	77.18	88	100.27	9.806	2	.007*
The head of my school helps teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.	104	114.10	71	115.66	107	185.28	52.038	2	.000*

Source: Field Data (2016)

*Significant at .05 level

An examination of the Kruskal Wallis H test results in Table 34 reveals that the frequency of performance of all the seven curriculum planning roles emerged as statistically significant at the .05 level of alpha. This suggests that null hypothesis one is rejected. The significant roles included 'participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work; develop lesson plans'; 'construct teaching/learning materials'; 'distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery'; and 'develop test items'. The rest of the roles encapsulate 'helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources' and 'helps teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students'. This showed that there were variations among the various school Categories in terms of the frequency of occurrence of these roles. These curriculum planning roles were predominantly performed in Category 3 schools with the least incidence being in Category 1 school going by the mean rank. This demonstrates that teachers in Category 3 and 2 schools are more likely to benefit from heads involvement to shape their teaching activities compared to those teachers in Category 1 SHSs [e.g. develop termly scheme of work ($\chi^2(2) = 89.269, P = .000^*$ with a mean rank of 150.85 for Category 3, 73.01 for Category 2 and 72.11 for category 1; developing lesson plan ($\chi^2(2) = 67.216, P = .000^*$ with a mean rank of 127.04 for Category 3, 59.47 for Category 2 and 74.57 for category 1)].

2. H_0 : There is no significant association between student support services and students' academic performance.

Also, the relationship between student support services and academic performance was further investigated using Spearman's Rank Order Correlation [rho] as presented in Table 35.

Table 36: Spearman's Rank Order Correlation between Student Support Services and Academic Performance

Variable	Academic performance in WASSCE	P
Provision of teaching and learning materials.	0.234	.000*
Proper scheduling of academic and non-academic activities to ensure that they do not conflict.	0.024	0.134
Heads establish good human relationships with teachers and students.	0.104	0.532
Heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners.	0.231	.000*
Provision of adequate library facilities.	0.123	.000*
Provision of adequate laboratory facilities.	0.147	.002*
Provision of portable water for students and teachers.	0.228	.000*
Provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school.	0.216	.000*
Rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers.	0.13	.002*
Provision of adequate furniture in the classroom.	0.22	.000*
Provision of proper ventilation in the classroom	0.076	0.101
Provision of guidance and counselling	0.055	0.245
Provision of healthcare.	0.076	0.109
Organisation of periodic talks by role models.	0.123	.010*
Weekly pep talks by heads of school to students	0.173	.000*
Provision of extended classes for students.	0.254	.000*

Source: Field Data (2016)

*significant at the .01 level; n = 445

Table 35 shows that out of the 16 support services, five of them were not significant while the rest were. The results showed that there was a weak, positive significant correlation between academic performance and the

following support services: provision of library facilities [$r = .123, n = 445, p < .01$]; provision of laboratory facilities [$r = .147, n = 445, p < .01$]; organisation of periodic talks by role models [$r = .173, n = 445, p < .01$]; and provision of extended classes for students [$r = .254, n = 445, p < .01$].

In addition, the results showed that there was a weak, positive significant correlation between academic performance and the following support services specifically provision of teaching and learning materials [$r = .234, n = 445, p < .01$], heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners [$r = .231, n = 445, p < .01$], provision of portable water for students and teachers [$r = .228, n = 445, p < .01$], provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school [$r = .216, n = 445, p < .01$], rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers [$r = .130, n = 445, p < .01$], and provision of adequate furniture in the classroom [$r = .220, n = 445, p < .01$]. This suggests that support services provided to students have positive association with students' academic performances. That is, the more student support services are provided to students the better their academic performance. As such, heads must execute their responsibility of provision of support services diligently so as to ensure that their students perform well academically.

3. H_0 : There is no significant differences in the effect of monitoring of classroom activities by heads on students' academic performance among the three school categories.

The influence of heads of schools' monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance was further analysed using Kruskal Wallis H test. This was carried to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various SHS Categories about the influence of heads monitoring of

classroom activities on academic performance. The test was at .05 alpha level as shown in Table 36.

Table 37: Test Results of Kruskal Wallis H test on Impact of Monitoring of Classroom Activities on Academic Performance

		Category of SHS				H	df	P
1		2		3				
N	Mean Rank	N	Mean Rank	N	Mean Rank			
191	224.54	129	222.33	125	221.33	.068	2	.967

Source: Field Data (2016)

*Significant at .05 level

The test as shown in Table 36 was found to be statistically not significant ($\chi^2(2) = .068, p = .967$). This suggests that the null hypothesis three is not rejected. This implies that the perception about the effect of monitoring of classroom activities by heads on students' academic performance is the same for the three school Categories.

4. H_0 : There is no significant differences in curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students among the various school categories

As heads of schools performed curriculum leadership roles, it was important to determine whether the curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students are the same among the various school Categories. In order to test the differences, a Kruskal Wallis H test was conducted and the results presented in Table 37. The test was at .05 alpha level.

Table 38: Test Results of Kruskal Wallis H test on Curriculum Leadership Roles that Influence Academic Performance

Item	Category of SHS						H	df	P
	1	2	3	Mean rank	N	Mean rank			
The involvement of the head of my school in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment has led to high students' academic performance.	191	223.40	129	200.90	125	245.20	8.539	2	.014*
The head of my school monitoring teachers' lesson delivery has led to high students' academic performance.	191	229.78	129	218.69	125	217.10	1.159	2	.560
The head of my school monitoring students' learning has led to high students' academic performance.	191	226.81	129	218.81	125	221.51	.404	2	.817
The head of my school monitoring teaching and learning activities in the classroom has led to high students' academic performance.	191	218.57	129	223.95	125	228.79	.575	2	.750

Source: Field Data (2016)

*Significant at .05 level

Table 37, continued

Item	Category of SHS						H	Df	P
	1	2	3	1	2	3			
	N	Mean rank	N	Mean rank	N	Mean rank			
The motivation given to teachers by the head of my school has led to high students' academic performance.	191	237.32	129	189.32	125	235.88	14.079	2	.001*
The head of my school promoting the professional development of teachers has led to high students' academic performance.	191	225.72	129	208.34	125	233.97	3.230	2	.199
The support services that the head of my school renders to students have great impact on students' performance.	191	223.53	129	208.64	125	237.01	3.915	2	.141
The learning environment created by the head of my school has led to high students' academic performance	191	215.01	129	212.78	125	245.75	6.857	2	.032*

Source: Field Data (2016)

*Significant at .05 level

The results in Table 37 indicate that three roles were statistically significant. They are the involvement of the head of my school in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment, the motivation given to teachers by the head of my school, and the learning environment created by the head of my school. These led to high students' academic performance. As such, the forth null hypothesis was rejected. Comparing the mean rank, it is observed that the involvement of the heads of schools in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment which leads to high students' academic performance varies from one school Category to another with the highest level of involvement being in Category 3 SHSs with the lowest in Category 2. This implies that students in Category 3 SHSs would benefit more as their heads are very much engaged in the performance of their curriculum leadership roles.

Discussion of Research Findings

In this section, the findings are discussed in relation to:

1. Involvement of heads of schools in planning activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom,
2. Curriculum leadership and students support services,
3. Teacher professional development,
4. Monitoring to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction,
5. Curriculum leadership and students' academic performance, and
6. Challenges heads face in the enactment of the curriculum.

Involvement of Heads of Schools in Planning Activities for the Enactment of Curriculum in the Classroom

The study examined seven curriculum planning activities roles that heads of schools play. Of these roles, majority of the respondents *strongly agreed or agreed* that heads of schools play four of the roles. These roles are that heads of schools' work with teachers to develop termly schemes of work; distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery; help teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources; and help teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students. Similar findings emerged from the key informant interviews and focus group discussion. The findings of the present study concur with those of Robinson (2007), Musungu and Nasongo (2008), Wallace Foundation (2012) and Nike (2014) that heads of schools supervise the schemes of work of teachers and thus, aiding in improving instruction and strategic resourcing of their teachers.

In terms of frequency of occurrence of curriculum planning roles, the results show that while two of them were performed *occasionally or sometimes* the remaining five were carried out *often or always*. The roles that were carried out *often or always* include the participation of school heads and teachers in the development of termly schemes of work and the development of lesson plans. School heads also worked with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials. Moreover, the school heads distributed and directed practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery and helped teachers to develop test items. Findings from the key informants' interviews and focus group discussion support these findings.

The curriculum leadership roles performed occasionally or sometimes include helping teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources and helping teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students. A Kruskal Wallis H test indicated that all the frequency of the performance of all the seven curriculum planning roles were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level (Table 8). The H values ranged from 9.806 to 89.269, and df was 2 while the *p*-values ranged from 0.000 to 0.007. These roles were mostly performed in Category 3 schools with the least occurrence being in Category 1 schools.

On the issue of the involvement of heads of schools in curriculum planning, the results signify that majority (83.4%) of the respondents were of the view that it was acceptable for heads of schools to get involved in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum. Generally, most of the respondents irrespective of the Category of SHS, duration of teaching and educational qualification, responded *yes*, indicating that they defended the need for heads of schools' involvement in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum. Some reasons advanced for the need for heads' involvement were that the heads of schools have experience that they can share with the teachers, the heads of schools' involvement help them monitor what teachers teach and that places them in a better position to better address both student and teacher related problems. These finding collaborates those of Sindhvad (2009) who found out that heads of schools have the capacity to help develop teachers professionally. This is so because heads of schools put in mechanisms to support teachers' professional development as well as create good atmospheres for

students' learning (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; New Leaders for New Schools, 2010).

It also emerged from both the focus group discussants and key informants that head's involvement in the planning of activities for instruction could contribute to the academic performance of students. The research also found that the strategies employed by heads of schools were acutely attuned to the capacities of teachers that will enable teachers to deliver quality lessons. However, 16.6 percent that opposed heads of schools' involvement in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum argued that it is an intrusion of their privacy and a signal that the heads of schools do not have confidence in the teachers.

Curriculum Leadership and Students Support Services

Support services are offered by school heads to students. Some 16 support services were examined. Out of the 16 support services all of them were mostly endorsed by respondents as they *strongly agreed or agreed* on the issues. The endorsed support services provided by heads encapsulated provision of teaching and learning materials, proper scheduling of academic and non-academic activities to ensure that they do not conflict, establishing good human relationships with teachers and students, calling for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners, provision of adequate library facilities, and provision of adequate laboratory facilities.

In addition, provision of potable water for students and teachers, provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school, rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers, provision of adequate furniture in the classroom, provision of proper ventilation in the classroom emerged as some

of the support services provided. The rest of the support services included provision of guidance and counselling, provision of healthcare, organisation of periodic talks by role models, weekly pep talks by heads of school to students and the provision of extended classes for students. These findings on the support services provided to students corroborates those of Okumbe (2001) and Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) who found that heads of schools ensure that students get feedback on their examination from the examiners, provide learning resources, provide adequate laboratory facilities and ensure that remedial classes are organised for their students. In the same view, Wango and Mungai (2007) and Judith and Richard (2013) pointed out that heads of schools offer counselling services to their students which also corresponds to this study's findings.

Concerning the frequency of provision of support services by heads, the results showed that majority (51.1%) of the respondents had indicated that the support services are offered *always* by heads to students. The 48.9 percent that did not provide support services *always* was possibly because they did not see the need or that the resources available were not adequate to facilitate the provision of such support services.

In connection with the effects of support services on academic performance, it was varied. This is because whereas some stated it improved academic performance, others were of a contrary opinion. Those who indicated support services contributed to academic performance argued that this was because they promoted effective teaching and learning through the creation of a learning environment that is conducive. This finding corroborates that of Robinson et al. (2008). Robinson et al.'s (2008) study suggested that the more leaders focus their relationships, their work, and their learning on the core

business of teaching and learning, the greater their influence on student outcomes. In like manner, Leithwood et al. (2004) compiled and analysed available evidence on the role of leadership in improving learning and concluded that the impact of leadership tends to be greatest in schools where the learning needs of students are most acute.

On the other hand, those who noted support service did not account for improvement in academic performance claimed that this was because students already had a weak academic background, as such support services could not make any difference. The onus of improving students' capacity to learn lies with the heads of schools and the teachers. As such, they need not complain but find proactive and practical ways of addressing the weaknesses of their students.

Teacher Professional Development

All the heads of schools had a minimum of a Bachelor's degree and the highest qualification was a Master of Philosophy degree. Workshops and seminars on leadership, inclusive learning in classroom, human resource management, and performance management and appraisal were organised for heads of schools to develop their competencies. These workshops had led to the development of their skills in planning for quality delivery of teaching, administrative management skills, ability to motivate staff, the bringing of innovation into the classroom, skills in monitoring and evaluation of teachers, and skills in providing right resources and environment for effective teaching and learning.

The professional development needs of the teachers were identified via varied methods. These methods of identification of the needs included meetings

(i.e., departmental meetings, general staff, and subject association meetings), assessment of student and teacher records, and regular monitoring.

The methods used in the professional development of teachers were varied. They ranged from in-service training, conferences, workshops, provision of resource materials, and mentoring for further studies. This finding supports that of Sindhvad (2009) who found that 75% of respondents attributed the heads of schools' influence on teachers' lesson delivery to the training the head of school offered to teachers.

Twelve roles heads play in teachers' professional development were examined, 11 of which were supported by the respondents. The roles endorsed were that heads of schools commend teachers who apply effective classroom teaching techniques, hold post-observation conferences with teachers to discuss teaching practices, acknowledge a teacher's contribution to the development of the school, involve all teachers in what the school is trying to achieve, make appropriate provision for teachers to advance their knowledge, periodically organise school-based in-service training to update and refresh teachers on new developments in teaching and learning processes. The rest of the roles were that heads make provision for senior teachers to mentor beginning teachers, involve teachers in decision-making, delegate duties to teachers, sponsor teachers to attend workshops/seminars, discuss instructional strategies with teachers and provide teachers with adequate resources to support their instruction. Knezevich (1984), Blasé and Blasé (1999), Rebore (1982, 2001), Leithwood and Riehl (2003) and New Leaders for New Schools (2010) found that heads of schools put in mechanisms to support teachers' professional development, motivate,

organise training workshops, and delegate responsibilities which are consistent with this present discovery.

The disaggregation of the significance of heads' role in teachers' professional development according to SHS Category and duration of teaching showed that in both cases majority of the respondents indicated heads played a major role in professional development. This finding corroborates the discoveries of Shabaan and Qureshi (2006) and Goldring et al. (2007) that heads of schools help teachers use data to identify individual students who need remedial assistance, tailor instruction to individual students' needs, identify and correct gaps in the curriculum.

Varied reasons were given covering the issue of whether heads of schools play a major role in teachers' professional development. Respondents who said the heads played major role in their professional development noted that it was because the heads of schools offer professional advice, assist teachers to gain study leave, organize in-service training, mentor teachers, and refuse to accept mediocre results on any assignment given to a member of staff. These views support the findings of Goldring et al. (2007). However, 20.8 percent who indicated that heads did not play a major role in their professional development pointed out that it was because heads turned down request for further studies, did not organise in-service training, were unavailable when needed and that the onus of professional development falls on teachers themselves.

Of the six professional competencies, their frequency of development was mostly *occasional or sometimes*. Apart from recording and keeping of students' portfolios which had less than half of the respondents indicating it was *occasionally or sometimes* done, the rest had more than half of respondents

noting they were *occasionally or sometimes* carried out. The other competencies encapsulated teaching skills, knowledge of subject matter, classroom management, leadership skills, and assessment skills. Dean (1991), Firestone (1996), Day (1999), Guskey (2000) and Elmore (2001) have noted that teachers' professional development focuses on improving their knowledge and their skills in teaching which concur with this current finding.

As regards effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance the results illustrated that majority (87.6%) of the respondents were of the view that the professional development of teachers had an effect on students' academic performance. Also, the disaggregation of the effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance by school Category and duration of teaching, both showed that the respondents were largely of the view that the professional development had an impact on academic performance. Similar findings were made by Petrie and McGee (2012) that professional development of teachers is recognised as a key vehicle that has consequential effect on how teachers teach and in turn, influences student achievement.

Reasons were given to indicate whether the role of the heads in teacher professional development influenced students' academic performance. Those who noted that it had contributed to academic performance said this was because it enabled them to apply the appropriate teaching strategies, enhanced their lesson delivery, improved their competency and ensured fostering of discipline among students. These findings are coherent with previous findings by Blasé and Blasé (1999), Leithwood and Riehl (2003) and New Leaders for New Schools (2010). However, 12.4 percent of the respondents with the

contrary opinion stated that heads did not contribute to academic performance because the teachers' competencies were not regularly developed.

This was because heads of schools ensured that teachers acquired the appropriate teaching and learning skills to facilitate students' learning to improve academic performance is indeed the result of effective

Monitoring to Ensure Coverage of the Syllabus and Quality of Instruction

With regard to the frequency of observation of instruction by the heads of the schools, the results suggest that the heads of the SHSs involved in the present study observed instruction but that it was done *occasionally*. This finding supports Shiundu and Omulando (1992), Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008), Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) and Nyagaka and Odongo's (2013) finding that heads of schools observe teachers' work, but the difference is that whereas in the current study monitoring of teachers' work was largely carried out *occasionally*, in the prior studies it was executed daily.

From the disaggregation of the results based on Category of school, it is clear that majority of the heads of the SHSs observe instructions. While in the Categories 1 and 2 SHSs the heads mostly observe teaching *occasionally*, in the Category 3 SHSs it is rather done *frequently*. This shows a variation in the frequency of observation of instruction. However, for the disaggregation according to duration of teaching, it showed that there was no variation within all the periods as majority of the respondents noted that monitoring was carried out *occasionally*.

Concerning the frequency of heads' monitoring of student learning, the results show that most (53%) of the heads of SHSs observe students learning but that it was done *occasionally*. This finding corroborates the discovery of

Shiundu and Omulando (1992) and Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) that heads of schools observe students' work, but the difference is that while in the present study, monitoring of students' learning was mostly done *occasionally* in the previous studies it was done often.

From the disaggregation of the results based on Category of schools, it is realized that many of the heads of schools within all the SHS Categories observe students' learning. Within Categories 1 and 2 SHSs the heads mostly observe students' learning *occasionally* whereas in Category 3 SHSs it is rather carried out *frequently*. On the other hand, for the disaggregation according to duration of teaching, it illustrated that there was no variation within all the periods as most of the respondents noted that monitoring was carried out *occasionally*.

Relating to availability of resources and facilities to promote students' learning, the results show that modal group of respondents (49%) noted that resources and facilities to promote students learning are *inadequate*. The disaggregation of the results based on Category of schools showed variations existed. In Categories 2 and 3 schools, majority of the respondents indicated that there was *adequate or very adequate* resources and facilities while in Category 1 schools, respondents noted they were *inadequate*.

With respect to monitoring of teaching and learning activities that contribute to coverage of the syllabus, the results illustrated that majority (52.1%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *somehow* influences coverage of syllabus. As to monitoring of teaching and learning activities in the classroom that contribute to quality of teaching, the results denoted that most (70.8%) of the respondents indicated that the

monitoring of teaching and learning *greatly* influence quality of teaching. The findings of this study were confirmed by Lydiah and Nasongo (2009). Lydiah and Nasongo study revealed that the heads of schools were also involved in academic activities by observing and checking the students' and teachers' work, Shiundu and Omulando (1992) collaborated this study when they emphasised that on a daily basis, heads of schools have the responsibility to ensure that teachers implement the official curriculum and that learning activities take place

Out of the ten activities that heads carried out to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of the instruction, the results showed that the respondents *agreed or strongly agreed* with the statements, with seven of them having their endorsement being above 50 percent. These seven activities are interaction between teachers and students in the classroom, teachers' delivery of lessons to ensure quality teaching, and teaching according to the syllabus. The rest are co-curricular activities to supplement classroom work, teachers' use of appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching, students' learning, and observing teaching and learning regularly. Hallinger and Heck (1997), Blasé and Blasé (1999), Musungu and Nasongo (2008) and Hatta (2009) found that heads of schools supervise classroom interaction between teachers and students, review teachers' instructional objectives, monitor teaching methods, examine learning materials and monitor students' learning in order to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of the instruction which are in consonance with this current finding.

Pertaining to the impact of heads' monitoring of classroom activities and academic performance, the results denoted that majority (57.8%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of classroom activities has a *very high*

or high impact on academic performance. The findings of Levine and Lezotte (1990), Blasé and Blasé (1999) and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) that monitoring of the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom has the potential of improving classroom practices and thereby contributing to students' academic success, corroborate with this current finding. The Kruskal Wallis H test to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various SHS Categories about the influence of heads of schools' monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance revealed that the differences in perceptions were not statistically significant at the .05 level of alpha.

The findings of this is in tune with theory Y, which espoused that management of classroom instruction requires the heads of schools to be deeply involved in classroom instruction, which includes supervising how teachers teach and monitoring students' learning. Similarly, Nike (2014) has identified the roles of the head of a school as consisting of supervising, monitoring, assessing, evaluating and disseminating current information on educational issues performance of students. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) have explained that leadership has two functions: providing direction and exercising influence. Leaders mobilize and work with others to achieve shared goals.

Curriculum Leadership and Students' Academic Performance

The educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance are varied. They include student retention, excellent performance in WASSCE, students' progression to the tertiary level, proficiency in skills in practical subject areas and extended classes. Roles played to attain these targets encompass mentoring (i.e., both students and teachers), supervision of teachers,

requesting for qualified teachers, motivation of teachers and creation of environment conducive for teaching and learning.

In terms of WASSCE academic performance of the schools over the past five years, the results show that 45 percent of the respondents stated that the academic performance was *average*. This suggests that there is still room for improvement as the performance is not quite encouraging. For the disaggregation of the results by school Category and duration of teaching, it was discovered that variations in the ranking of performance in WASSCE exists. With respect to school Category, it was found that while most of the respondents in Category 1 noted that they experienced *average* academic performance those of Categories 2 and 3 schools indicated that they had *good/excellent* performance in WASSCE over the period. Relating to duration of teaching, those with three years or less duration of teaching noted that academic performance was *average* whereas those with four years and beyond teaching experience stated that academic performance had been *good/excellent*.

Concerning the attribution of the performance in WASSCE to curriculum leadership roles of the head, the results show that majority (61.9%) of the respondents are of the view that students' WASSCE academic performance are attributed to curriculum leadership roles of the head. The disaggregation of the results by category of school also showed that for all the three school categories they all largely indicated that the performance in WASSCE is attributed to the curriculum leadership of the school head. This study's finding supports those of Musungu and Nasongo (2008) and Hattie (2009) that heads' curriculum leadership roles influence academic performance of students. However, Witziers et al. (2003) reported that the overall impact of

leadership on students' academic performance was negligible which contradicts this present finding. This suggests that performance in WASSCE should not be totally attributed to curriculum leadership of the head since other factors equally influence academic performance.

On the subject of the linkage of heads of schools' role to academic performance, the results showed that majority (62.9%) of the respondents were of the view that heads of schools' curriculum leadership role have direct relationship with the academic performance of students. In addition, the disaggregation of the results by Category of schools and educational qualification showed that irrespective of the school Category or educational qualification of respondents, they mostly indicated that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles are directly related with academic performance. According to Weindling (1990), in the United Kingdom most heads of schools spend an average of 20 percent in a week on teaching. Likewise, New Leaders for New Schools (2010) claims that the head of a school effectiveness is central to raising student achievement and that nearly 60 percent of a school's total impact on student achievement is attributable to head of a school and teacher effectiveness. These suggest that heads curriculum leadership roles have a direct effect on academic performance.

Conversely, Quinn (2002) and Hattie (2009) found that heads' curriculum leadership roles have an indirect effect on students' academic performance which conflicts with this current study's finding. Quinn (2002) argues that as heads of schools are removed from the classroom, they can only influence student achievement indirectly by working through teachers. Similarly, Robinson, Hohepa, and Lloyd (2009) claimed that unless heads of

schools are engaged in direct teaching there is likely to be a long causal chain between the actions of heads of schools and student outcomes.

The findings of this study which indicate that curriculum leadership roles have a direct linkage with academic performance of students because heads of schools' monitor activities (i.e., teaching, teachers' presence in school, students' learning), organise in-service for teachers, provide teaching and learning materials, and participate directly in the lesson delivery are consistent with that of Weindling (1990). Weindling (1990) found that in the United Kingdom most heads of schools are involved in the direct instruction of students. In Ghana, heads of SHSs who have knowledge in a subject can stand in to teach the subject when the subject teacher is absent.

Nevertheless, those respondents who stated that curriculum leadership roles have no direct linkage with academic performance said this was because heads of schools did not engage directly in instruction and that only teachers' roles have direct impact on academic performance. They further claimed that this emerges because of inadequacy of monitoring of teachers and students, the lack of motivation of teachers, and lack of interest in disciplinary issues of the students. These views of the respondents are supported by the claim of Quinn (2002). Quinn asserts that heads of schools are removed from the classroom, they only influence students' academic performance indirectly by working through.

Regarding the effect of the frequency of monitoring of teaching on academic performance, the results denoted that the modal group (46.6%) indicated that monitoring of teaching *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance while majority of those who indicated monitoring of

teaching was *occasionally or not at all* said it led to *average* academic performance. Shiundu and Omulando (1992) and Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) found that heads of schools observe teachers' teaching frequently. According to Musungu and Nasongo (2008), this tends to influence the academic performance of students as quality of instruction is improved.

On the topic of the effect of the frequency of monitoring of students' learning on academic performance, the results demonstrated that majority (53.7%) of the respondents noted that monitoring of students' learning *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance whereas most of those who indicated monitoring of students' learning was *occasionally or not at all* done said it led to *average* academic performance. This signifies that students benefit most when their heads of schools monitor their learning *frequently* as this ensures that they are motivated to learn harder. Also, it suggests that students benefit most when the heads of schools monitor their learning frequently as this ensures that the heads identify the gaps in their knowledge so as to inform the instructors to address those issues. Shiundu and Omulando (1992) and Lydiah and Nasongo (2009) found that when heads of schools monitor students' learning frequently, it has the likelihood of positively impacting on academic performance.

Concerning the effect of the frequency of provision of support services on academic performance, the results denoted that 49.5 percent of the respondents stated that offering of support services to students *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance. On the other hand, majority of those who said the provision of support services was *occasionally or not at all* executed indicated it resulted in *average* academic performance. With limited

provision of support services academic performance would be negatively affected (Lydia & Nasongo, 2009), which is why the student support services provided occasionally results largely in the average academic performance of students.

The results from the Spearman's Rank Order correlation showed that of the support services in relation to academic performance, 11 emerged significant at the .05 alpha level (Table 35). The results revealed that there was weak, positive significant correlation between academic performance and the following support services; provision of library facilities, provision of laboratory facilities, organisation of periodic talks by role models, and provision of extended classes for students. Furthermore, the results illustrated that there was also a weak, positive significant correlation between academic performance and the following support services; provision of teaching and learning materials, heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners, provision of portable water for students and teachers, provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school, rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers and provision of adequate furniture in the classroom. These findings agree with Waters et al. (2003) findings that heads' curriculum leadership roles such as resources, instruction and assessment had a positive relationship with academic performance.

The Kruskal Wallis H test showed that out of the eight curriculum leadership roles that influenced academic performance, it was found that three were statistically significant at the .05 level of alpha (Table 37). The significant roles were that planning of activities for curriculum enactment led to students' high academic performance, motivation given to teachers by the head of my

school led to students' high academic performance, and learning environment created by the head of my school led to students' high academic performance. The results show that the involvement of the head in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment which lead to high students' academic performance varies from one school Category to another with the highest level of engagement being in Category 3 schools and the lowest in Category 1. The academic performance is highest in Category 3 schools because the heads of these schools are directly involved in the academic activities of the schools as compared to the other school categories.

The effects of curriculum leadership roles on academic performance were examined using binary logistic regression. The model could predict about 17 percent of variation in academic performance in WASSCE (Table 33). Of the eight predictor variables four of them, constituting heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities, head's monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery, head's monitoring of students learning and learning environment created by head emerged as significant predictors. This is consistent with the findings by Yang (2014) that management practices, such as monitoring and inspections, professional development of teachers and internal strategies are correlated with student achievement. Students from better managed schools perform more successfully in the test and are more likely to pass the test. A similar finding by Dambudzo (2013) emerged that schools where the leadership allowed teachers greater autonomy, encouraged collaboration, recognised achievement, maintained discipline and took interest in what went on in the school and assisted teachers in solving teaching problems consistently were largely more effective. Waters et al. (2003) and Leithwood et al. (2004) found

that curriculum leadership roles are powerful predictors of students' academic performance which is consistent with this study's finding. Shatzer et al. (2014) study also revealed that instructional leadership explained more of the variance in student achievement than did transformational leadership. The authors also discovered that heads' leadership style tended to have a meaningful impact on student achievement beyond the impact of school context and head of a school demographics. As corroborated by Nettles and Petscher (2006) study, there is some significant relationships between the implementation practices of heads of schools and student reading achievement. Likewise, the study of Waters et al. (2003) which concluded that school leadership is an important variable, as it correlates positively with student achievement.

The above findings are also consistent with the relationships shown in the conceptual framework. In the framework, the head teacher leads in the planning of the curriculum and then put in measures to monitor its enactment. This they do to make sure that they maintain or achieve coverage of the syllabi and high quality of instruction. The execution of these roles is to promote high academic performance of students. However, in the performance of these functions, they encounter certain challenges. Thus, the findings of this study indicate that the heads of schools play these interwoven roles by given support to teachers and students which ultimately will lead to high academic performance of students.

The findings also support both theories X and Y, and community of learning theory based on the belief that, the roles that heads of schools play invariably affect quality of teaching and learning and eventually leads to high academic performance. Thus, classroom instruction is a shared endeavour, with

heads of schools, teachers and students learning and leading interdependently so that the school achieves its goals (Marks & Printy, 2003; Printy, 2008). When heads create the opportunities and conditions for teachers to interact with them, the chance that teaching in classroom improves is greater (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Printy, 2008). that when stakeholders (head, teachers and students) in educational institution play their respective roles in a supportive and complementary manner in the teaching and learning process, high academic performance of students would be achieved.

Both the qualitative and quantitative study results; a) suggest that heads of schools play a major role in students' high academic performance and b) attest to the importance of curriculum leadership in the creation and promotion of an environment conducive for learning. Although the effects of curriculum leadership on student achievement are modest, they are nevertheless significant, meaningful and cannot be dismissed as inconsequential (Leithwood & Jantzis, 2000).

Challenges Heads Face in the Enactment of the Curriculum

In enacting the curriculum heads usually encounter different challenges. Some of these challenges are inadequate funds, inadequate logistics, limited infrastructure, external interference, teacher related issues, student related issues, inconsistency in the educational policy and bureaucracy (see pp. 177-182). These challenges limit the heads of schools' ability to effectively enact the curriculum in the classroom. This means that the benefit that the teachers and students would derive would not be realised. This finding supports several studies.

For example, Mkpa (2010) reported that inadequate resource allocation, incompetence and unavailability of policy documents presented challenges to heads of schools in Nigeria which corroborates this study's finding. Similarly, Olibie (2013) found that inadequate allocation of resources and funds for school curricular and co-curricular activities, urgent and often competing curriculum policies, inadequate training on curriculum innovations and lack of heads' competence in curriculum planning were challenges to the enactment of the curriculum by the heads of schools. Additionally, Okoroma and Robert-Okah's (2007) study revealed that inadequate funding, inadequate school facilities, work overload and poor conditions of service were challenges to heads of schools' enactment of the curriculum.

There are myriad of measures to address the challenges to curriculum enactment. Some of the measures are recruitment of more teachers; motivating hardworking teachers and students; offering more in-service training; provision of teaching and learning materials. The rest of the measures comprise improvisation of teaching and learning materials; ensuring that effective teaching and learning is carried out; regular monitoring of teachers; reduction in class size; provision of more infrastructure such as classrooms; and sanctioning of teachers and students who violate rules and regulations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study. The conclusions to the main issues of the study and recommendations are also established. The chapter equally examines areas for further studies.

Summary of Research Process

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of senior high schools on their students' academic performance within the Northern Region of Ghana. Specifically, it focused on the main curriculum leadership roles played by the heads of schools and these were planning of instructional activities, student support services, teacher professional development and monitor of teaching and learning. The study was guided by six research questions and three hypotheses. These research questions were:

1. What roles do heads of SHSs play in teachers' planning of activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom?
2. What support services do heads of SHSs provide for students to enhance their academic performance?
3. How do heads of schools promote the professional development of teachers?
4. How do heads of SHSs monitor curriculum enactment in the classroom to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction?
5. How do the curriculum leadership roles of heads of SHSs in Northern Region of Ghana affect students' academic performance?

6. What are the major challenges that the heads of SHSs encounter in enacting the school curriculum in their schools?

The study also tested the following null hypotheses:

1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the frequency of execution of curriculum planning roles of heads for the three school categories
2. H_0 : There is no significant association between student support services and students' academic performance
3. H_0 : There is no significant differences in the effect of monitoring of classroom activities by heads on students' academic performance among the three school categories
4. H_0 : There is no significant differences in curriculum leadership roles of heads that contribute to academic performance of students among the various school categories

This study draws its identity from two main theories: theory X and theory Y advanced by McGregor and community of learning theory by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger. The selection of these theories was based on the belief that, the roles that heads of schools play invariably affect quality of teaching and learning and eventually leads to high academic performance. Thus, classroom instruction is a shared endeavour, with heads, teachers and students learning and leading interdependently so that the school achieves its goals (Marks & Printy, 2003; Printy, 2008). When heads create the opportunities and conditions (e.g. professional learning opportunities, setting compelling intellectual challenges, promoting teachers' leadership capacities, and making multiple and frequent connections to teachers work in their classrooms) for teachers to interact with them, the chance that teaching in classroom improves

is greater (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Printy, 2008). In this community of learning, the heads play a critical role in influencing how teachers learn to improve their instructional techniques and how students learn so as to bring about desirable academic performance (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). As such, when teachers and students pull in the same direction as the head, good things happen for students.

The study was also nested in the pragmatic worldview and therefore, the strategies of inquiry included quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research design was, thus, a sequential mixed method using cross-sectional study design. The sample size was 482, constituting 467 teachers and 15 heads of schools. However, I was able to retrieve 445 completed questionnaires. The sample size I finally used for the analysis was 445. Questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussions were used in the collection of data. Methods of data analysis employed were both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, cross-tabulation were used to measure the magnitude of occurrence of curriculum leadership roles while the inferential statistics such as Kruskal Wallis test, Spearman's Rank Order correlation and binary logistic regression were also used to measure the differences amongst the school categories, the relationship and effects of curriculum leadership roles on students' academic performance. This was because the variables were largely measured on both the nominal and ordinal scales. The qualitative data collected was analysed by thematic analysis to present an in-depth view of the quantitative analysis.

Summary of Key Findings

Based on the analysis, results and discussion of the study, the key findings are presented on the research questions. The first Research Question dealt with the involvement of heads of schools in the planning of activities for the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. The principal findings that emerged were:

1. In general, most of the respondents confirmed that heads of schools play most of the seven curriculum planning activities. The roles heads of schools play that were endorsed by all respondents were; heads of schools participate with teachers to develop termly scheme of work, distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery, helps teacher locate reference materials; and help teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students.
2. Five of the curriculum planning roles which majority of the respondents indicated that heads of schools play them *often or always* were; participate with teachers to develop termly schemes of work; participate with teachers to develop lesson plans; participate with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials; distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery; and help teachers to develop test items.
3. The Kruskal Wallis H test showed that all the frequency of performance of the entire seven curriculum planning roles of the school heads examined were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level. The roles

were mostly frequently performed in Category 3 SHSs with the least occurrence being in Category 1 SHSs.

4. It emerged that most (82.8%) of the respondents were of the opinion that it was acceptable for heads of schools to be involved in planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum. Reasons given for this stance are that heads bring on board their experience which enables them monitor what teachers teach, and it helps them to better address both student and teacher allied problems.
5. By and large, most of the respondents, irrespective of the Category of SHS, duration of teaching and educational qualification, noted that heads of schools' involvement in planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum was acceptable.
6. Heads of schools' engagement in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum contributes to high academic performance of their students.

Research Question 2 was on the support services heads of schools offer to students. It also includes the frequency and effects on academic performance of students. The main findings that appeared were the following:

1. All the 16 support services examined were mostly endorsed by respondents as largely in each case more than half of them *strongly agreed or agreed* on the issues.
2. With respect to the frequency of honouring of support services by heads of schools, it was discovered that majority (51.1%) of the respondents stated that support services were offered *always* by heads to students.

3. The effects of support services on academic performance were mixed. Some respondents indicated that the support services contributed to academic performance; arguing that it was because they promoted effective teaching and learning via the creation of a learning environment that is conducive. On the contrary, those that noted support services do not contribute to academic performance claimed this was because students were already weak academically.

The Research Question 3 was about the role heads of schools play in the professional development of their teachers and how this affect the academic performance of students. The following were the noteworthy findings:

1. Heads of schools have higher academic qualifications and their competencies are increased with workshops and seminars which placed them in a better position to execute their responsibility of developing teachers' professional competencies. Nonetheless, the frequency of the workshops is irregular.
2. The professional development needs of the teachers are recognised using different methods including meetings, assessment of records (i.e., student and teacher records) and regular monitoring.
3. Methods employed in the professional development of teachers encapsulated in-service training, conferences, workshops, provision of resource materials, mentoring and sponsoring teachers for further studies.
4. Majority (over 55%) of the respondents comprising more than half of the respondents in each of the cases *strongly agreed or agreed* to 11 out

- of the 12 heads of schools' roles that were examined as contributing to teachers' professional development.
5. The study again found that the disaggregation of the significance of heads of schools' role in teachers' professional development by SHS Category and duration of teaching revealed that in both cases most of the respondents stated heads played a major role in their professional development. Reasons for indicating heads played a major role in their professional development were because the heads of schools assisted teachers to gain study leave, organised in-service training, mentored teachers, and not accepting mediocre results on any responsibility given to a staff. Conversely, those that noted heads of schools do not play a major role in their professional development argued it was because the heads of schools do not approve their request for further studies, do not organise in-service training, unavailable when needed and that the onus of professional development rests on teachers themselves.
 6. All the six professional competencies examined had their frequency of development being mostly *occasional or sometimes*. Apart from recording and keeping of students' portfolio which has less than half of the respondents indicating it was *occasionally or sometimes* done, the rest (i.e., teaching skills, knowledge of subject matter, classroom management, leadership skills, and assessment skills) had more than half of the respondents noting that the development of the competencies were *occasionally or sometimes*.
 7. Majority (87.6%) of the respondents were of the view that the professional development of teachers had an effect on students'

academic performance. The disaggregation of the effects of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance according to school Category and duration of teaching both revealed that the respondents were basically of the perception that the professional development influenced students' academic performance. Those who indicated professional development of teachers had an effect on students' academic performance argued it was because it enabled them to apply the appropriate teaching strategies and improved their competency.

Research Question 4 was on how heads of schools monitor teaching and learning to ensure coverage of syllabus and effective teaching. The significant findings were the following:

1. Regarding the frequency of observation of instruction by the heads of the schools, it was found that the heads of SHSs observed instruction but that it was done *occasionally*. The disaggregation of the results based on Category of school showed a variation because whereas in the Category 1 and 2 SHSs the heads generally monitored teaching *occasionally*, in Category 3 SHSs it was executed *frequently*. Nonetheless, for the disaggregation by duration of teaching it revealed that there was no difference within all the periods as majority of the respondents stated that monitoring was carried out *occasionally*.
2. Most (53%) of the heads of SHSs observed students learning but this was carried out *occasionally*. Similarly, it was discovered that the disaggregation according to duration of teaching showed that there was no variation within all the periods as most of the respondents indicated

- that monitoring was done *occasionally*. However, the disaggregation of the results based on Category of school revealed that there were differences as within Category 1 and 2 SHSs the heads mostly observed students' learning *occasionally* while in Category 3 SHSs it was done *frequently*.
3. For availability of resources and facilities to promote students' learning, it was found that the modal group (49%) pointed out that resources and facilities to promote students' learning are *inadequate*. The disaggregation of the results based on Category of school revealed variations as in Category 2 and 3 schools, majority of the respondents indicated that there were *adequate or very adequate* resources and facilities, whereas in Category 1 school respondents noted there were *inadequate*.
 4. The study found that majority (52.1%) of the respondents noted that the monitoring of teaching and learning *somehow* influences coverage of syllabus.
 5. It was discovered that most (70.8%) of the respondents stated that the monitoring of teaching and learning *greatly* influenced quality of teaching.
 6. Of the 10 activities heads do to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of the instruction it was found that more than 50 percent of the respondents *agreed or strongly agreed* with seven of the statements. They included interaction between teachers and students in the classroom, teachers' delivery of lessons to ensure quality teaching, and teaching according to the syllabus. The remaining are co-curricular

activities that supplement classroom work, teachers' use of appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching, students learning, and observing teaching and learning regularly.

7. With reference the effects of heads' monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance, it emerged that majority (57.8%) of the respondents indicated that the monitoring of classroom activities has *very high or high effect* on academic performance. It was found that the Kruskal Wallis H test used to determine if differences existed in respondents' perception across the various SHS Categories about the influence of heads monitoring of classroom activities on academic performance showed no statistically significant difference at the five percent level.

With reference to Research Question 5, it sought views from respondents on the effect of curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools on the academic performance of their student, the significant findings were the following:

1. The educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance encapsulated student retention, excellent performance in WASSCE, students' progression to the tertiary level, proficiency in skills in practical subject areas and provision of extended classes. The roles executed to achieve these targets entailed mentoring, supervision of teachers, requesting for qualified teachers, motivation of teachers and creation of environments conducive for teaching and learning.
2. Forty-five percent noted that the academic performance of students in WASSCE over the past five years was *average*. For the disaggregation

of the results by school Category and duration of teaching, it was discovered that variations in the ranking of performance in WASSCE exists. With respect to school Category, it was found that whereas majority of the respondents in Category 1 noted that they experienced *average* academic performance, those of Category 2 and 3 schools noted they have *good/excellent* performance in WASSCE over the period. In relation to duration of teaching, those with three years or less duration of teaching noted that academic performance was *average* while those with four years and beyond teaching experience said academic performance has been *good/excellent*.

3. Most (61.9%) of the respondents indicated that students' WASSCE academic performance are attributed to curriculum leadership roles of the head. The disaggregation of the results by Category of school equally denoted that for all the three school Categories they all largely noted that the performance in WASSCE was attributed to the curriculum leadership of the school head.
4. The study found that majority (62.9%) of the respondents were of the view that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles have direct relationship with the academic performance of students. Similarly, the disaggregation of the results by Category of school and educational qualification revealed that irrespective of the school Category or educational qualification of respondents, they mostly indicated that heads of schools' curriculum leadership roles were directly related to academic performance. Reasons noted for curriculum leadership roles direct linkage with academic performance were because heads of

- schools monitor academic activities, organise in-service for teachers, provide teaching and learning materials, and heads of schools' direct participation in the lesson delivery. Contrary reasons for the rejection of the relationship are that heads did not engage directly in instruction and that only teachers' roles have direct impact on academic performance.
5. About forty-seven percent of the respondents stated that monitoring of teaching *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance while majority of those who indicated monitoring of teaching was *occasionally or not at all* said it led to *average* academic performance.
 6. On the issue of the effect of the frequency of monitoring of students' learning on academic performance, it emerged that majority (53.7%) of the respondents noted that monitoring of students learning *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance while most of those who indicated monitoring of students' learning was *occasionally or not at all* done said it resulted in *average* academic performance.
 7. With respect to the effect of the frequency of the provision of support services on academic performance it was found that a modal group (49.5%) stated that offering of support services *frequently* led to *good or excellent* academic performance. Conversely, majority of those who said the provision of support services was *occasionally or not at all* executed indicated it resulted in *average* academic performance.
 8. The Spearman's Rank Order correlation showed that of the 16-support services relationship with academic performance, 11 emerged significant at the .05 alpha level. Specifically, it was found that there was a weak, positive significant correlation between academic

- performance and the following support services; provision of library facilities, provision of laboratory facilities, organisation of periodic talks by role models, and provision of extended classes for students. Also, there was a weak, positive significant correlation between academic performance and the following support services; provision of teaching and learning materials, heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners, provision of portable water for students and teachers, provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school, rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers, and provision of adequate furniture in the classroom.
9. The Kruskal Wallis H test showed that out of the eight curriculum leadership roles thought to influence academic performance it was found that three were significant at the .05 level of alpha. The significant roles were that planning of activities for the curriculum enactment had led to high students' academic performance, motivation given to teachers by the head of a school had led to high students' academic performance, and conducive learning environment created by the head of my school had led to high students' academic performance. The planning of activities for curriculum enactment which led to high students' academic performance varies from one school Category to another with the highest level of participation occurring in Category 3 SHSs and the least in Category 1 SHSs.
10. The binary logistic regression model was able to predict between nine to 17 percent of variation in academic performance in WASSCE. Out of the eight predictor variables four of them, comprising head's

involvement in planning of activities, head's monitoring of teachers' lesson delivery, head's monitoring of students learning and learning environment created by head were significant predictors of academic performance.

Research Question 6 was on what key challenges limit the heads of schools playing their curriculum leadership roles that relate to students' academic performance. The significant findings were the following:

1. Challenges heads of schools encounter in the enactment of the curriculum included limited finance, inadequate logistics, limited infrastructure, external interferences, teacher and student related issues, inconsistency in the educational policy and bureaucracy.
2. The study found that recruitment of more qualified teachers; motivating hardworking teachers and students; offering more in-service training; provision of teaching and learning materials were some of the measures instituted to address the challenges associated with heads of schools' enactment of the curriculum. The remaining measures constituted improvisation of teaching and learning materials; ensuring that effective teaching and learning is carried out; regular monitoring of teachers; reduction in class size; provision of more infrastructure; and sanctioning of teachers and students who violate rules and regulations.

Conclusions

Heads of SHSs play different roles in teachers' planning of the curriculum activities for enactment in the classroom. The performance of these roles was influenced by the experience of the teacher and the endowments of the school. Less experienced teachers were given more attention compared with

more experienced teachers. Also, the performance of these roles across the three school Categories were not uniform as the more endowed schools (Category 3) were those where the heads' curriculum planning roles were prominent. This implies that the teachers in such well-endowed schools get better assistance compared to those in the less endowed schools. The unexpected result was that the more experienced teachers were rather given support than the less experienced teachers. This could be attributable to heads of such schools not interested in the academic life of the schools. These are heads of schools who have allowed teachers the luxury of time to do what please them. The end result is that the performance of students in such schools could be negative.

In addition, heads of schools offer a variety of support services to students with the objective of improving their academic performance. The provision of these support services creates an environment that is appropriate for teaching and learning to occur. Also, provision of professional development needs of the teachers was precarious. This did not provide the right condition for the development of teachers' competencies to enable them to improve on their ability to impart knowledge to their students. The effect of this is that the teachers might have some deficiencies, which would reflect directly in the students' academic performance, as the teachers are unable to deliver lessons to students properly to enable them to understand.

Moreover, heads of SHSs played several roles so that they could ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of the instruction, but these roles were not done regularly. This meant the coverage of the syllabus and quality of instructions could not be assured. Furthermore, curriculum leadership roles influence academic performance of students. It emerged from the results that

both the focus group discussants and key informants pointed out that head's involvement in the planning of activities for instruction contribute to the academic performance of students. The research also found that the strategies employed by heads of schools were acutely attuned to the capacities of teachers that will enable teachers to deliver quality lessons.

In spite of the positive contributions of these interactions and involvement of the heads of schools as emanated from the findings, the unexpected results also urge caution. The unexpected results are: heads of schools should not be involved in planning activities for the enactment of curriculum in the classroom and the need for further development of teachers' competencies. Heads of schools ought to be careful when they get involved in instructional activities as their zeal for improvement might be misconstrued to be paternalistic. Teachers consider themselves professionals and competent ones and therefore do not expect heads of schools to be involved in planning activities for the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom. Majority of the respondents want the heads of schools to provide avenues for the development of their competencies. This is contrary to teachers' claim that they are professionals and can enact the curriculum effectively and efficiently in the classroom.

Thus, it can be inferred from the study that the heads of schools who contribute greatly to high academic performance of students are those who play their curriculum leadership roles effectively through an interactive process where they get involved in the instruction programme as participants rather than overseers lording over teachers. The curriculum leadership roles played by heads of schools also varies from one school Category to another with the

highest level of involvement being in Category 3 SHSs with the lowest in Category 2. While heads of schools in the sample acknowledged the importance of students' academic performance, those at Category 3 schools demonstrated higher personal commitment and dedicated more personal time and attention to ensuring high academic performance of students than did heads of schools at other two categories schools. Most of heads of schools in Category 3 schools reported personally involving themselves in the classroom or engaging directly with students out of the classroom to encourage high academic performance of students. This indicates that curriculum leadership roles of the heads of schools are vital in the academic performance of students.

Heads of schools who are results oriented, as the findings reveals, contribute to high academic performance through an interactive process where they get involved in the planning of curriculum activities, monitor lesson delivery by teachers and students' learning and equally fashion out a conducive learning environment for high academic performance. Thus, classroom interaction is as a result of collaborative efforts of stakeholders (heads of schools, teachers and students) in education who are able to provide cross-fertilisation of roles through both interaction and participation. As such, when teachers and students pull in the same direction as the head, high academic performance of students is expected.

However, certain challenges encountered in the execution of the head's curriculum leadership roles tend to restrict their ability to discharge their duties effectively. Some of these challenges are inadequate funds, inadequate logistics, limited infrastructure, external interference, teacher related issues, student related issues, inconsistency in the educational policy and bureaucracy.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are proposed for the consideration of educational policy makers and implementers.

1. The heads of schools, especially those in Categories 1 and 2 SHSs should frequently play their curriculum planning roles. These roles are: heads of schools should work with teachers to develop termly schemes of work; distribute and direct practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery; help teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources; and help teachers to organise appropriate learning experiences properly for students. Similar findings emerged from the key informant interviews and focus group discussion. This is because they recorded the least performance of these roles. As these roles are critical to ensuring that the teachers' weaknesses are identified and promptly addressed it requires an intervention to reverse the frequency of occurrence of these roles.
2. More and regular workshops should be organised for the heads of schools by CHASS. This is vital because only few workshops are organised for them. However, to make them able to effectively carry out their responsibilities of developing the professional competencies of their teachers, providing support services to students, and planning activities for curriculum enactment, they need more of the workshops.
3. There is the need for heads of schools to increase the frequency of development of the professional competencies of the teachers. This is necessary because these competencies are developed occasionally

which is not adequate to bring about any significant changes in the professional competencies of the teachers. This could be done through the use of varied measures such as regular in-service training, workshops, seminars, going for further studies and mentoring.

4. Heads of schools must increase the frequency of monitoring of teaching and learning. This is important because the frequency of their monitoring of teaching and learning is largely occasional and this is more prevalent in Categories 1 and 2 SHSs. This level of observation of teaching and learning is not adequate to result in any meaningful attempt to identifying and addressing challenges that both teachers and students encounter. In order to ensure that heads of schools undertake monitoring as a regular activity, heads must be monitored by the officials from GES on a weekly basis to ensure that heads carry out their responsibility.
5. There is the need to provide adequate resources and facilities to promote effective teaching and learning. This is crucial because within Category 1 schools there is inadequacy of resources and facilities to create a congenial atmosphere for teaching and learning. To be able to meet this need, the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETfund) should focus on providing classrooms, dormitories, laboratories, and bungalows for teachers in Category 1 schools. This would help to improve the facilities in those schools.
6. The heads of schools should ensure that their schools have adequate professional teachers, have extended classes for the students and to monitor to ensure that teachers cover the syllabus. This would enable students to be prepared adequately for their WASSCE for a better

academic performance. This is more important for Categories 1 and 2 schools where the performance in WASSCE has been below average.

7. Tackling the limited teaching and learning resources is vital to ensuring heads' enactment of the curriculum. With respect to limited resources this challenge could be addressed by the PTA. The PTA can raise some resources from levying parents and such resources could be used to meet any need of the school.
8. Addressing the inadequacy of logistics and infrastructure situations are crucial to heads' smooth enactment of the curriculum. This condition can be tackled by lobbying past students' association of the schools. Through this approach, the past students will mobilise the resources which they will in turn use in addressing the logistics and infrastructural deficits.
9. As regards external interferences in the work of the head of a school, this needs to be addressed in order to ensure the heads work freely. A way to addressing this challenge is for the school head to be firm and not allow any person or group of persons, irrespective of their social position, to interfere in their work. This can be done when the heads go strictly according to the laid down policy guidelines for the execution of their mandate.
10. For the issue of insufficient and qualified teachers, it is the responsibility of the heads of schools to lobby the regional education office to post newly trained teachers to their schools.

11. Heads of schools should be actively involved in academic activities of their schools so as to influence the school academic performance positively.
12. The heads of schools must convey, by every action, that the first priority of the school is high academic performance of the students, and this must be communicated to all teachers and students as the culture of the schools.

Suggestions for Further Research

To further extend literature on the influence of curriculum leadership on academic performance, the following recommendations are made for further studies.

1. This study used cross-sectional survey, which describes how heads of schools play their curriculum leadership roles in the enactment of curriculum in the classroom at a particular point in time. The findings emanating from this cross-sectional survey only describe what heads of schools do at the time of collecting data and may not necessarily represent the true picture of what they do every day. A longitudinal study could be used to allow for generalisation of the findings.
2. A study of the effects of curriculum leadership roles of heads of schools on academic performance should control the influence of other variables to determine the actual influence of only curriculum leadership on academic performance.

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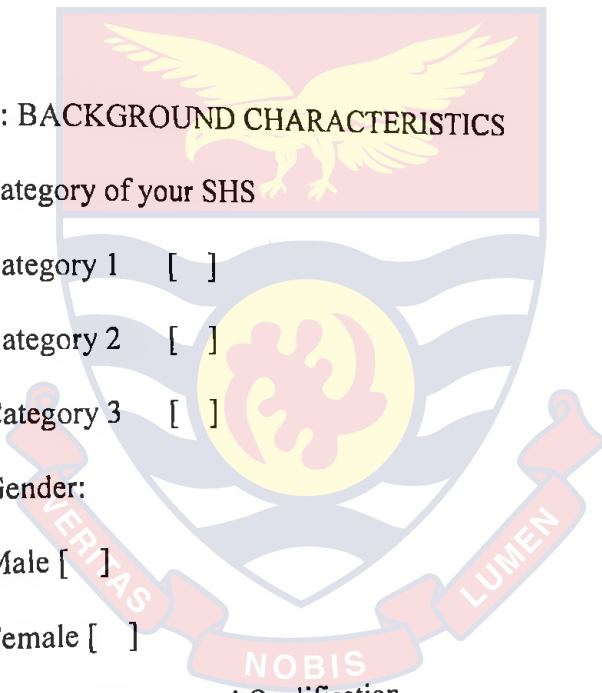


APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire has been designed for a research on Curriculum Leadership of heads of SHSs and Academic Performance of Students. It is meant solely for academic purpose, so you are assured of confidentiality. You are however, requested to answer all the questions that follow as frankly and as openly as you can.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

- 
1. Category of your SHS
 - a. Category 1 []
 - b. Category 2 []
 - c. Category 3 []
 2. Gender:
 - a. Male []
 - b. Female []
 3. Highest Educational Qualification
 - a. BED/BA/BSC []
 - b. MPHIL/MSC/MA []
 - c. Other specify.....
 4. Age in Years:
 - a. 21-25 []
 - b. 26-30 []
 - c. 31-35 []

- d. 36 and above []
- 5. For how long have you been teaching at this SHS?
 - a. three years []
 - c. four years []
 - d. above four years []

SECTION B: THE INVOLVEMENT OF HEADS OF SCHOOLS IN PLANNING ACTIVITIES FOR THE ENACTMENT OF CURRICULUM IN THE CLASSROOM

6. The following table provides some of the curriculum planning activities in your school that your head of school might engage in. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [√] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. If you strongly agree tick SA, if you agree tick A, if you are undecided tick UD if you disagree thick D and if you strongly disagree, thick SD.

No	Curriculum Planning Roles	SA	S	UD	D	SD
1.	The head of my school participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work.					
2.	The head of my school participates with teachers to develop lesson plans.					
3.	The head of my school participates with teachers					

	and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials.					
4.	The head of my school distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery.					
5.	The head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources.					
6.	The head of my school helps teachers identify to develop test items.					
7.	The head of my school helps teachers to organise appropriately learning experiences appropriately for students.					

7. For all those curriculum-planning roles of your head that you agreed or strongly agreed to in item 6, kindly indicate their frequency occurrence in the table below. Tick whether it is Rarely (R), Occasionally (O), Sometimes (S), Often (OF) or Always (A).

No	Curriculum Planning Roles	R	O	S	OF	A
1.	The head of my school participates with teachers to develop termly scheme of work.					
2.	The head of my school participates with teachers to develop lesson plans.					
3.	The head of my school participates with teachers and students in the construction of teaching/learning materials.					
4.	The head of my school distributes and directs practice in the use of instructional materials for effective curriculum delivery.					

5.	The head of my school helps teachers locate reference books, journals and other learning resources.						
6.	The head of my school guides teachers to develop test items.						
7.	The head of my school helps teachers to organise appropriately learning experiences for pupils.						

8. Should the head of your school be involved in the planning of activities for the instruction of the curriculum? a. Yes []
b. No []

9. Give reasons to support your response to item 8.

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SECTION C: CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND STUDENTS SUPPORT SERVICES

10. The following table shows some support services heads of schools offer to students. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [✓] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. Tick

whether Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (UD), Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD).

No	Activity	SA	A	UD	D	SD
1.	Provision of teaching and learning materials.					
2.	Proper scheduling of academic and non-academic activities to ensure that they do not conflict.					
3.	Heads establish good human relationships with teachers and students.					
4.	Heads call for fora for teachers and students to meet with chief examiners.					
5.	Provision of adequate library facilities.					
6.	Provision of adequate laboratory facilities.					
7.	Provision of portable water for students and teachers.					
8.	Provision of adequate and reliable lighting system in the school.					
9.	Rewarding excellent students and hardworking teachers.					
10.	Provision of adequate furniture in the classroom.					

11.	Provision of proper ventilation in the classroom					
12.	Provision of guidance and counselling					
13.	Provision of health care.					
14.	Organisation of periodic talks by role models.					
15.	Weekly pep talks by head of school to students.					
16.	Provision of extended classes for students					

11. How often does the head of your school offer these support services?

- a. Always []
- b. Occasionally []
- c. Not at All []

12. What effect does the support services the head of your school offers to students have on students' academic performance?

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SECTION D: TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

13. The following table provides some of the curriculum leadership roles of the head that contribute to teacher professional development. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [√] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. If you strongly agree

tick SA, if you agree tick A, if you are undecided tick UD if you disagree thick D and if you strongly disagree, tick SA.

No.	Roles of Head of School	SA	A	UD	D	SD
1.	The head of my school commends teachers who apply effective classroom teaching techniques.					
2.	The head of my school holds post-observation conferences with teachers to discuss teaching practices.					
3.	The head of my school values a teacher's contribution to the development of the school.					
4.	The head of my school involves all teachers in what the school is trying to achieve.					
5.	The head of my school makes appropriate provision for teachers to advance their knowledge.					
6.	The head of my school periodically organises school-based in-service training to update and refresh teachers on new developments in teaching and learning process.					
7.	The head of my school makes provision for senior					

	teachers to mentor beginning teachers.						
8.	The head of my school involves teachers in decision-making.						
9.	The head of my school delegates duties to teachers.						
10.	The head of my school sponsors teachers to attend workshops/seminars.						
11.	The head of my school discusses instructional strategies with teachers.						
12.	The head of my school provides teachers with adequate resources to support their instruction.						

14. Does the head of your school play a major role in your professional development?

a. Yes []

b. No []

15. Give reasons to your response in item 14.

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16. The following table provides some of the professional competencies of teachers that heads might focus in developing. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [✓] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. Tick whether it is

Rarely (R), Occasionally (OC), Sometimes (S), Often (OF) or Always (A).

No,	Professional Competencies	R	OC	S	OF	A
1.	Teaching skills					
2.	Knowledge of subject matter					
3.	Classroom management					
4.	Leadership skills					
5.	Assessment skills					
6.	Recording and keeping of students' portfolio					

17. Do the roles the head of your school play in your professional development have effect on students' academic performance?

Yes []

No []

18. Give reasons to your response in item 17.

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SECTION E: MONITORING TO ENSURE COVERAGE OF THE SYLLABUS AND QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION

19. How often does the head of your school been observing your teaching?

- a. Frequently []
- b. Occasionally []
- c. Not at all []

20. How often does the head of your school monitor student learning?

- a. Frequently []
- b. Occasionally []
- c. Not at all []

21. How would you rate the availability of resources and facilities in the school, which can facilitate students learning?

- a. Very Adequately []
- b. Adequately []
- c. Inadequate []

22. How does the monitoring of teaching and learning activities in the classroom by the head of your school influence the coverage of the syllabus?

- a. Greatly []
- b. Somehow []
- c. Not at all []

23. How does the monitoring of teaching and learning activities in the classroom by the head of your school influence the quality of your teaching?

- a. Greatly []
- b. Somehow []
- c. Not at all []

24. The following table provides some of the activities that the head of your school might do to ensure coverage of the syllabus and quality of instruction. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [√] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. If you strongly agree tick SA, if you agree tick A, if you are undecided tick U D if you disagree thick D and if you strongly disagree, thick SA.

No	Activities	S A	A	UD	D	SD
1.	The head of my school monitors the interaction between teachers and students in the classroom.					
2.	The head of my school monitors how teachers deliver lesson to ensure quality teaching.					
3.	The head of my school monitors teachers to ensure that they teach according to the syllabus.					
4.	The head of my school monitors teachers to ensure coverage of syllabus.					
5.	The head of my school monitors to ensure that teachers use different methods of instruction to suit					

	learners of different abilities.					
6.	The head of my school monitors to ensure that co-curriculum activities supplements classroom work					
7.	The head of my school monitors and gives teachers feedback on appropriate classroom interactions between teachers and students.					
8.	The head of my school monitors to ensure that teachers use appropriate teaching and learning materials in teaching.					
9.	The head of my school monitors students learning.					
10.	The head of my school visits and observe teaching and learning regularly.					

25. How will you rank the impact of the monitoring of classroom activities by the head of your school on students' academic performance?

- a. No impact
- b. Low impact
- c. Moderate impact

- d. High impact []
- e. Very high impact []

SECTION F: CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND STUDENTS ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

26. How will you describe the performance of your school in the last five years WASSCE results?

- a. Poor
- b. Average
- c. Good
- d. Excellent

27. Could your answer in item 26 be attributable to the curriculum leadership of your head teacher?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. Not sure

28. Does the curriculum leadership of the head of your school have direct relationship with students' performance over the years?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. I don't know

29. Give reasons to your response in item 28.

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30. The following table shows curriculum leadership roles of the head of your school that could have influence on students' academic performance in the school. Read each statement carefully and respond by ticking [✓] the answer that most accurately represents your thinking and feeling. If you strongly agree tick SA, if you agree tick A, if you are undecided tick U D if you disagree tick D and if you strongly disagree, tick SA.

No.	Curriculum Leadership Roles	SA	A	UD	D	SD
1.	The involvement of the head of my school in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment has led to high students' academic performance.					
2.	The head of my school monitoring teachers' lesson delivery has led to high students' academic performance.					
3.	The head of my school monitoring students' learning has led to high students' academic performance					
4.	The head of my school monitoring teaching and learning activities in the classroom has led to high students' academic performance.					
5.	The motivation given to teachers by the head of my school has led to high students' academic performance.					
6.	The head of my school promoting the professional development of teachers has led to high students' academic performance.					
7.	The support services that the head of my school renders to students have great impact on students' performance.					

8.	The learning environment created by the head of my school has led to high students' academic performance					
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SECTION G: CHALLENGES HEADS FACE IN THE ENACTMENT OF THE CURRICULUM

31. What challenges do the head of your school encounter in their enactment of curriculum in the classroom?

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Thank you for your participation



APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS

SECTION A: PARTICULARS OF THE SCHOOL

1. Category of the School
2. Highest Educational Qualification
3. State any management training workshops/seminars you have undergone as head of a school
4. What competencies have you acquired from these works/seminars that enable you lead curriculum enactment in the classroom?
5. What proportion of your time do you spend on academic work of your students?

SECTION B: PLANNING ACTIVITIES FOR THE ENACTMENT OF SCHOOL CURRICULUM

6. What roles do you play when your teachers are planning activities towards teaching in the classroom?
7. How often do you play these roles?
8. What effects does your involvement in the planning of activities for teaching in the classroom have on students' academic performance?

SECTION C: CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES AND SUPPORT SERVICES TO STUDENTS

9. What support services do you offer to the students of your school?
10. How often do you offer these support services to your student?
11. Which of these support services do you offer most to your student?
12. What effects does the support services you offer to your students have on their academic performance?

SECTION D: CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES AND TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

13. How do you identify the professional development needs of your teachers?
14. In what ways do you provide professional development for your teachers?
15. Which of your activities contribute to teachers' professional development?
16. Which professional development needs of your teachers do you give priority to?
17. Why do you give priority to the professional developmental needs of your teachers stated in item 16?
18. How often do you provide professional development for your teachers?
19. What impact does the professional development you provide for your teachers have on your students' academic performance?

SECTION E: MONITORING OF CURRICULUM ENACTMENT TO ENSURE COVERAGE OF THE SYLLABUS AND QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION IN THE CLASSROOM

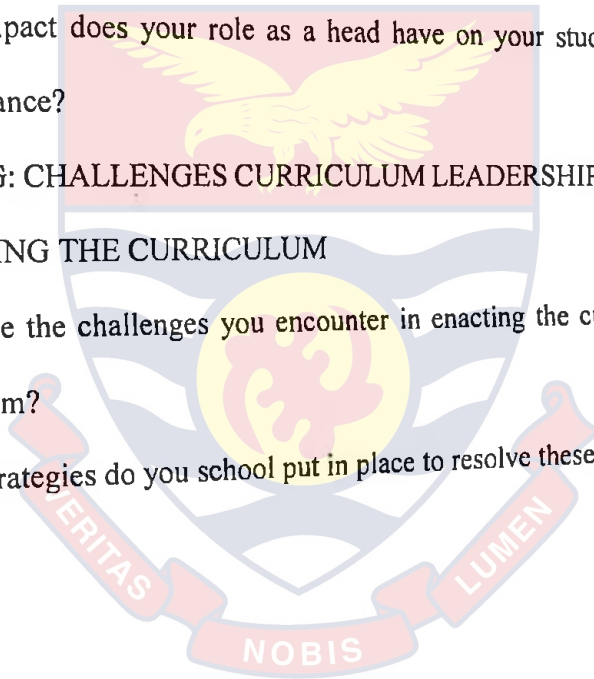
20. What methods do you use for monitoring the quality of teaching in your school?
21. What methods do you use to ensure that teachers teach topics that are within the syllabus?
22. What methods do you use to ensure that teachers teach to cover the syllabus?
23. How often do you use monitor teaching and learning activities in the classroom?
24. What effects does your monitoring of teaching and learning have on your students' academic performance?

SECTION F: CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

25. What are your school's most significant educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance?
26. What roles do you play in achieving the educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance?
27. How often do you play these roles?
28. Which of them do you play most?
29. What impact does your role as a head have on your students' academic performance?

SECTION G: CHALLENGES CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ENCOUNTER IN ENACTING THE CURRICULUM

30. What are the challenges you encounter in enacting the curriculum in the classroom?
31. What strategies do your school put in place to resolve these challenges?



APPENDIX C
FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR TEACHERS
PLANNING ACTIVITIES FOR THE ENACTMENT OF SCHOOL
CURRICULUM

1. What roles does the head of your school play when teachers are planning activities for the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom?
2. How often does the head of your school play these roles?
3. Which of these roles does the head of your school perform most?
4. What effects does the head of your school involvement in the planning of activities for curriculum enactment have on students' academic performance?

CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES AND SUPPORT SERVICES TO
STUDENTS

5. What support services does the head of your school offer to the students of your school?
6. How often does the head of your school offer these support services to the students of your school?
7. What effects does the support services the head of your school offer to the students of your school have on their academic performance?

CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ROLES AND TEACHER PROFESSIONAL
DEVELOPMENT

8. How does the head of your school identify the professional needs of teachers in your school?
9. In what ways does the head of your school provide professional development for the teachers of your school?

10. Which of the activities of your head contribute to teachers' professional development?
11. Which professional development needs of teachers does the head of your school give priority?
12. Why does the head of your school give priority to the named professional developmental needs of teachers?
13. How often does the head of your school provide professional development for the teachers of your school?
14. What impact does the professional development the head of your school provide for teachers of your school have on your students' academic performance?

MONITORING CURRICULUM ENACTMENT ON ITS COVERAGE AND QUALITY

15. What methods does the head of your school use for monitoring the quality of teaching in your school?
16. What methods does the head of your school use to ensure that teachers teach according to the syllabus?
17. What methods does the head of your school use to ensure that teachers are able to cover the syllabus?
18. How often does the head of your school monitor teaching and learning activities in the classroom?
19. What effects does the head of your school monitoring of teaching and learning have on your students' academic performance?

CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

20. What are your school's most significant educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance?
21. What roles does the head of your school play in achieving the educational priorities and targets for students' academic performance?
22. How often does the head of your school play these roles?
23. Which of them does the head of your head play most?
24. What impact does the role the head of your school as a curriculum leader play have on the academic performance of the students of your school?

CHALLENGES CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP ENCOUNTER IN ENACTING THE CURRICULUM

25. What are the challenges the head of your school encounter in enacting the curriculum in the classroom?
26. What strategies does the head of your school put in place to resolve these challenges?

