# MANAGING JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SUNYANI MUNICIPALITY (GHANA): THE CHALLENGES FOR HEAD-TEACHERS AND THEIR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS.

Thesis submitted for the degree of

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by

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**Declaration**

I declare that 'Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani Municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs' is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature ………………………………………

Date……………………………………………….

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani Municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

By Hinneh Kusi

## Abstract

The study investigated the challenges for Junior Secondary School headteachers (both male and female) in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and their professional development needs. Ghana is a developing country in West Africa facing the challenge of improving educational provision at different levels.

This was a qualitative study underpinned by interpretive philosophical thought. It employed a case study approach and collected data in two phases using semi-structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview. In the first phase, a questionnaire was distributed to all headteachers and Circuit Supervisors (school inspectors) in the municipality, while the second phase involved semi-structured interviews with a purposive maximum variation sample of headteachers and Circuit Supervisors who had already responded to the questionnaire.

The study highlighted that the headteachers faced multiple challenges. These included teachers' lack of commitment and uncooperative attitude; non-involvement of the headteachers in making decisions that affected their professional practice; the complexity and multiplicity of their roles and responsibilities; and insignificant responsibility allowances. The study identified the factors responsible for these problems.

The study also identified ways of preparing aspiring headteachers for meeting the demands in the educational context. Specifically, it identified the skills and competences they required and the training opportunities for the provision of those competences as well as strategies for meaningful selection/ appointment of headteachers and their induction.

The findings suggested that the in-service training /continuing professional development programmes organised in Sunyani municipality for practising headteachers were inappropriate for enhancing their professional growth and development. The study proposed ways/strategies for improving some aspects of the programmes for meaningful professional development of the headteachers. This research also unveiled additional in-service training/ continuing professional development opportunities for the headteachers in that context, including regional-based courses and a cluster-based collaborative headship scheme.

**Dedication**

To the almighty God for His faithfulness in fulfilling His promise to me, and to my wife, Doreen Amponsah Kusi, and daughter, Blessed Amponsah-Kusi, for their love, support and threats!

**Acknowledgement**

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## List of Abbreviations / Glossary

| | |
|---|---|
| Basic Education : | Pre-Senior Secondary School education, comprising kindergartens, primary and JSSs |
| BECE : | Basic Education Certificate Examination |
| Circuit: | An Educational Zone |
| CPD: | Continuing Professional Development |
| CS: | Circuit Supervisor - A school inspector in the Ghanaian educational context. Each Circuit is led by a Circuit Supervisor who, among other functions, inspects schools within the Circuit, and supports and guides the headteachers in developing leadership and management skills and competences. |
| CSs: | Circuit Supervisors |
| DEA: | Diploma in Educational Administration |
| FCUBE: | Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education |
| GES: | Ghana Education Service |
| INSET: | In-service Training |
| INSETs: | In-service Trainings |
| JSS: | Junior Secondary School |
| JSSs: | Junior Secondary Schools |
| LPSH: | Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers |
| MoE: | Ministry of Education |
| NAHs: | Newly Appointed Headteachers |
| NAPs: | Newly Appointed Principals |
| NCSL: | National College for School Leadership |
| NPQH: | National Professional Qualification for Headteachers |
| NQTs: | Newly Qualified Teachers |

| PNDC: | Provisional National Defence Council |
| --- | --- |
| PNG: | Papua New Guinea |
| PRESET: | Pre-service Training |
| PTAs: | Parent-Teacher Associations |
| RPCRERG: | Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana |
| SMA: | Sunyani Municipal Assembly |
| SMCs: | School Management Committees |
| SSS: | Senior Secondary School |
| TTA: | Teacher Training Agency |
| TTC: | Teacher Training College |
| TTCs: | Teacher Training Colleges |
| UK: | United Kingdom |
| USA: | United States of America |
| YoS: | Years of Service |

**Chapter 1: Background**

**Introduction**

There is an increasing consensus among researchers in the field of educational leadership and management, in both advanced and developing countries, that the leadership provided by headteachers is absolutely crucial for the success of schools (Bush and Jackson, 2003; Simkins et al, 2003; Simkins, 2005). Simkins (2005) indicates that in the developed world this recognition has led to huge financial commitments in major initiatives that will bring about improvement in leadership and management. However, in the developing world, little is done about this factor which is significant for school improvement (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Wanzare and Ward, 2000; Lahui-Ako, 2001; Borden, 2002). Despite the importance of headship, the procedures used in appointing, training, inducting and in-servicing headteachers are inappropriate in many developing countries, especially those in the continent of Africa (Bush and Oduro, 2006). These practices are considered ineffective for the development of competent school leaders in these countries (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003). Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean regions have also recognised that there is a need to effectively prepare school administrators/principals to enhance their role in the realisation of the aims of the various education reforms being carried out (Borden, 2002).

In most developing countries, headteachers encounter many problems in managing schools (Harber and Davies, 2002). These problems are attributed to many factors, among the most significant, lack of good quality and appropriate resource materials on school management (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993). The Commonwealth Secretariat (1993) argued that 'such materials as were available tended to be outdated, in short supply, and in many cases written in language ill-suited to busy heads' (p.i). Therefore, in

1991 it organised training and support programmes for those in English-speaking countries in Africa (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993). The programme was attended by the representatives of seven Education Ministries in Africa, namely Ghana, Botswana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, Uganda and Zimbabwe (Oduro, 2003). The participants prepared resource materials covering the basic areas of managing schools in the continent. Despite the importance of resource materials for school management, De Grauwe argues that:

> Much research has demonstrated that the quality of education depends primarily on the way schools are managed, more than on the abundance of available resources, and the capacity of schools to improve teaching and learning is strongly influenced by the quality of leadership provided by the headteacher.
>
> (De Grauwe, 2000:1 quoted in Simkins et al, 2003:275)

Ghana carried out an educational reform in 1987 and introduced the Junior Secondary School (JSS) concept, among other aims, to improve the quality of education provision, but little emphasis was laid on the preparation and development of headteachers at that level. It was not until the introduction of the 'Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)' programme in 1992 that importance was attached to the improvement of efficiency of school management. The FCUBE policy requires headteachers to receive training in school management (Ghana Education Service (GES), 2001) to enable them to perform their tasks effectively. It also recommends the formation of School Management Committees (SMCs)/Governing Bodies, and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) by individual schools to work hand-in-hand with the headteachers, and guide them in school policy formulation (GES, 2001). Also, the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the GES produced a

Headteachers' Handbook in 1995 (Oduro, 2003) to facilitate the performance of their role in quality education provision.

Thus efforts are being made to support school leaders and managers in most developing nations, particularly Ghana, but such attempts have not been effective in equipping them with the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for their job. Bush and Oduro (2006), drawing on data generated through analyses of research literature in Africa, emphasised that:

> Preparation for school principals is inadequate throughout Africa. Most heads are appointed without any specific management training and few receive appropriate in-service training following appointment.
>
> (Bush and Oduro, 2006:371)

The above quotation further highlights the need to prepare and train headteachers in the countries of Africa, including Ghana to enable them perform their roles more effectively.

**Statement of the Problem**

Ghana is a developing country in Africa. It has been making efforts over the last decade to improve its education system in particular, to contribute to wider national development. The JSS system was introduced as part of a strategy to improve educational provision in the country (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana (RPCRERG), 2002). The JSS constitutes a three-year post primary education system which replaced the earlier four-year middle school system. This structural development was followed by the introduction of the FCUBE initiative (GES, 2001) which aims to provide good quality basic education to all children of school-going age in Ghana. Headteachers are perceived as

the principal instrument (RPCRERG, 2002) through whom leadership and management is carried out in schools. The introduction of new policies and subsequent changes place additional responsibilities on them so they need to be prepared for the new challenges. The changes in the education system in Ghana require highly-developed leadership and management abilities. However, there is no provision of formal pre-service training (PRESET) for headteachers (Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Oplatka, 2004; Bush and Oduro, 2006). Although all trainee teachers attend teacher training colleges (TTCs), there are no specific courses for those aspiring for leadership positions. Yet on completion of their programmes, some of them receive direct appointments to leadership and management positions in schools, especially in rural areas (Oduro, 2003). In-service training (INSET)/continuing professional development (CPD) courses are the only means for training headteachers. However, in most cases, only those in urban and semi-urban schools get access to such courses (Oduro, 2003).

Moreover, some universities in the country do offer programmes in school administration, but these graduates are not likely to become headteachers within any shorter period of service. In most cases, it is experienced and long-serving teachers who are favoured for headship positions (Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006), irrespective of relevant training or qualifications. In the changing educational context, the processes of pre-service, selection/ appointment and in-servicing of headteachers have not changed. This lack of emphasis on developing leadership and management in schools is one of the greatest challenges to the successful implementation of the Ghanaian government's quality basic education policy (RPCRERG, 2002). The realisation of this policy requires that the people responsible for the implementation of this policy, who in the Ghanaian context are headteachers, are well-prepared and adequately trained.

A recent review of the education system in Ghana indicates that many of the problems schools are faced with are linked to leadership and management. These problems include:

- Poor supervision by heads;
- Inadequate preparation and training of heads;
- Lack of commitment on the part of heads and teachers;
- Heads combining management with teaching at the basic level, leaving them little or no time for management and supervision; and
- Heads at the basic level not having sufficient authority in the discharge of their duties.

<div align="right">(RPCRERG, 2002:43-44)</div>

Yet, despite the threat the above problems could pose to the quality education provision, little is known about the issues responsible for such problems. Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997) argue that principals (headteachers) in developing countries face numerous problems, but little effort has been made to identify these problems and the responsible factors.

The above mentioned leadership and management problems draw attention to the need for effective preparation and training of headteachers to enable them to cope with changes and challenges in the Ghanaian educational context. However, none of the recent studies has explored ways of preparing and training headteachers, especially those at the JSS level. Oduro and MacBeath's (2003) case-study focused on traditions and tensions in educational leadership in Ghana, while the work of Oduro (2003) examined the perspectives of the primary school headteachers in one district on their role and professional development. The studies conducted by Dadey (1990, cited in Harber and Davies, 2002) and Abbey (1989, cited in Harber and

Davies, 2002) highlighted the problems faced by secondary school headteachers in Ghana, but Hobson et al (2003) argued that the problems facing headteachers are a function of many factors, including the school phase. Thus the problems facing JSS headteachers in Ghana and their professional development needs are an under-explored area.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to explore the problems facing JSS headteachers in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and their professional development needs. This research is a case study located in an interpretive-qualitative framework. It examines the issues and concerns for JSS headteachers in that municipality, as well as the factors responsible for the problems they encounter. In this way, understanding of the problems will be enhanced.

Additionally, relevant literature suggests that there are no formal pre-headship training programmes for aspiring headteachers in the Ghanaian educational context. Therefore, the study will explore ways for preparing them so that they can perform their roles more meaningfully. Finally, it will attempt to identify the training needs of and opportunities for practising headteachers with the aim of enhancing their professional growth and development.

The study seeks to:

- Provide better understanding of the issues and concerns for JSS headteachers;
- Identify the training needs of JSS headteachers; and

- Identify strategies for the professional development of JSS headteachers.

The research participants are JSS headteachers and Circuit Supervisors (CSs) (school inspectors in the Ghanaian educational context) in the Sunyani municipality. The research questions guiding this study are:

- What are the issues and concerns for JSS headteachers in a municipality in Ghana?
- What factors contribute to these issues and concerns?
- How can aspiring JSS headteachers be prepared to cope with the demands they face in the Ghanaian educational context?
- What are the training needs of practising JSS headteachers, and how can these needs be attended?

**Education System in Ghana and Sunyani Municipality**

Ghana's education system has undergone some changes since it gained independence in 1957. The current structure of the education system consists of two years of pre-school education (early childhood) (4-6 years olds); six years of primary education (6-12 years olds); three years of JSS education (12-15 year olds); three years of Senior Secondary School (SSS) education; and tertiary education, which consists of four years of university education or two to three years at polytechnic and TTCs. There are also a number of specialised institutions in nursing and agriculture (RPCRERG, 2002).

The MoE, which is responsible for education provision in the country, operates the same structure of education in all parts of the country, including the Sunyani municipality. It also exercises all financial control in respect of

education and formulates all national educational policies, making the education system more of a unitary type. The ministry, however, leaves policy implementation to agencies established within the education ministry, among them, the GES, which implements all pre-university educational policies formulated by the MoE. The GES has offices in the various municipalities and districts in the country, which are headed by directors of education, who ensure that schools are well-managed.

Sunyani municipality, like many others in the country, operate co-educational school which boys and girls attend together. The schools in the municipality can be categorised into public (government) and independent schools. Some of the public schools are solely established and managed by the government, while others are established by various religious organisations (mission schools), but managed with the support of the government. The religious organisations, therefore, have influence on the appointment of headteachers, teachers and other staff to the joint-managed schools in the municipality.

Headteachers in the municipality, particularly at JSS level, carry out many roles and responsibilities – they are both administrators and managers of schools. Specifically, the headteachers are responsible for maintenance of school-community relationships; physical facilities; curriculum implementation; instructional supervision and appraisal of teachers. They are also charged with the responsibility of managing finance, students and staff personnel (MoE, 1994; MoE, 2002). These roles and responsibilities are carried out with the support of assistant headteacher/s and a number of bodies, including the SMCs, Board of Governors and the PTAs, which also provide the schools with infrastructure and furniture, in some cases.

Teachers also help in the management of schools by managing the day-to-day teaching and learning environment.

Headteachers in Ghana, including the Sunyani municipality, work with both trained and untrained teachers (Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006); the untrained teachers are often recruited for the rural schools to meet the demand for teachers in those contexts. The national policy mandates single-stream schools (a single primary school or JSS) to have a teacher population of five, while double-stream schools have ten teachers. The size of teacher population in the municipality, therefore, varies - schools in the urban and semi-urban areas (big and small towns respectively) often have the required number of teachers because of the attractive social lifestyle in those contexts, among other factors. However, the teacher population tends to be smaller in the rural areas because of low student enrolment and unattractive social lifestyles in such settings. Therefore, teachers in the rural areas are, sometimes, compelled to teach more than three subjects, while their colleagues in the towns often handle two subjects, usually subjects of specialisation (Sunyani Municipal Education Office, 2006).

The student population in JSSs in Ghana, particularly Sunyani municipality, like the teacher population, varies in size. In the municipal capital, Sunyani, there are between 130 and 350 students in one school; in the semi-urban centres, it ranges from 90 to 240; and from 40 to 100 students in the rural areas. These variations influence class size in the municipality. In the urban and semi-urban areas, a class may be 40, 60 or more, while in the rural areas, it may range from 10 to 35 students (Sunyani Municipal Education Office, 2006). The small class size, coupled with a lack of teachers, has led to the implementation of multi-class teaching, particularly in the rural areas.

This strategy allows teachers to join classes together for instruction (RPCRERG, 2002).

Ghana's education system, especially the basic level (pre-SSS education), faces major challenges, which have slowed down the achievement of quality educational provision in that context.  These challenges are related to ineffective management of schools; poor academic preparation of teachers; and inadequate facilities, particularly workshops, laboratories and libraries (RPCRERG, 2002). Some of these challenges form the basis of the policy priorities faced by the education system and JSSs, which include improving the quality of teaching and school leadership; efficiency in management; and increasing access to education and participation (GES, 2001; RPCRERG, 2002). Although these policies were formulated many years ago, little effort has been made by the government of Ghana to introduce new ones to achieve its desired educational goals, making educational change notoriously slow.

**Sunyani Municipality in Context**

The Sunyani municipality is one of the administrative districts in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana. It is a highly-urbanised area located within the middle belt of the country, with heights ranging between 750 feet to 1235 feet above sea level (Sunyani Municipal Assembly (SMA), 2006). The area was created after independence in 1957, but it had a district status until 2004. The Sunyani municipality is bordered in the north by Wenchi and Tain districts; in the south by Asutifi; in the east by Tano North; and in the west by Dormaa and Berekum districts (Appendix A i). It covers an area of 2, 488 square kilometres (SMA, 2006).

The municipal capital, Sunyani, is the largest settlement in the region in terms of population (SMA, 2006) and also serves as the regional capital. The population census conducted in the year 2000 indicated that the population of the municipality was 179,165. The municipality has seven urban centres which hold about 74.3% of the population. The remaining 25.7% of the population live in rural areas.

The Sunyani municipality is a multi-ethnic community dominated by the Akans (Bono, Asante and Ahafo tribes) who constitute about 73% of the population. The rest of the population is composed of the Northers and others tribes who are mainly economic migrants. Religiously, most of the inhabitants are Christians with Moslems and traditional believers constituting the minority.

The municipality is located within a wet semi-equatorial climatic zone with two rainy seasons annually. The major rainy season begins in April and ends in July, followed by the minor one which begins in September and ends in October. The vegetation of the municipality is composed mainly of grassland, scattered forest, and forest reserves, making the land suitable for agriculture in which 57.5% of the population actively engage (SMA, 2006).

Educationally, the municipality strives to improve teaching and learning, school management, and supervision (SMA, 2006). To achieve this, the municipality has been divided into nine Circuits, each of which is headed by a Circuit Supervisor (CS) entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring that the educational goals of the Circuit are met. It boasts 151 pre-school establishments, 154 primary schools, 75 public Junior Secondary Schools (JSSs), 10 Senior Secondary Schools (SSSs), 4 Technical and Vocational,

and 3 Tertiary institutions. There are also a number of independent basic and secondary schools in the municipality.

**JSS Education: Evolution and the Context of its Leadership**

Formal education in Ghana was started by the merchants in 1529 in the castles along the coast (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1978). The aim of the merchants was to produce clerks to assist them in their trading activities and to introduce Christianity to the indigenous population (Graham, 1971; McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1978). These aims were considered to be parochial since they did not serve the socio-economic aspirations of the natives. Successive colonial masters made efforts to diversify the curriculum to address the situation. These efforts can be seen in the Educational Ordinances of 1852, 1887, and Guggisberg's 16 principles of Education.

After independence in 1957, the struggle for adequate education for a Ghanaian child was continued by successive governments. Therefore, in 1972 a committee under Professor N. K. Dzobo of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, was tasked to review the structure and content of education in Ghana and make recommendations (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1978). This was under the military regime of Colonel I.K. Acheampong. The report of the committee presented in 1974, suggested that the structure of education should constitute:

- Kindergarten Education : 18-24 months for children of 4 to 6 years;
- First Cycle Education: 6 years primary and 3 years JSS; and
- Second Cycle Education: JSS students entering this level will do a 2-year course at the Senior Secondary Lower to Ordinary Level and a further 2-year course to Advanced level or Teacher Training or Polytechnic education.

JSS education in Ghana was, therefore, the brain-child of Dzobo's committee. Dzobo's report was implemented in 1975, but it did not prove very effective because of shortages of teachers and textbooks and a poor infrastructure. Moreover, the JSS system was supposed to replace the middle school system, but it failed as it existed alongside it. JSSs were named Demonstration schools and existed in the cities and towns, while middle schools dominated in the rural areas (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1978). During the implementation of the report, the JSSs were led by headmasters who were previously experienced and long-serving teachers. They had been appointed as headmasters without undergoing any relevant professional training.

In the early 1980's, when the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government under the leadership of Flight Lieutenant J. J. Rawlings came to power, it decided to address the anomalies in the educational system with financial support from the World Bank. This exercise is known as the Educational Reform of 1987. This reform completely replaced all middle schools in the country with JSSs and introduced the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) as a requirement for entrance into Senior Secondary School (SSS).

Although the PNDC government was determined to make positive changes in the educational system, leadership of the JSSs remained as it was during the implementation of Dzobo's report. Headteachers were untrained and had limited opportunities to improve their leadership skills. The idea to improve the management of the JSSs, as already indicated, was emphasised in the 1992 Constitution which introduced the FCUBE initiative (GES, 2001). Management efficiency has been emphasised since the beginning of the FCUBE initiative, but literature suggests that it is still one of the problematic

areas in educational development in the country (RPCRERG, 2002; Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006).

**Background of the Researcher**

I was born and brought up in Ghana and obtained my first degree from a university in the central region of the country. Prior to starting my first degree in 1999, I taught as a secondary school teacher for three years in Berekum district, located near the context of the study, the Sunyani municipality. As a teacher, I contributed to the management of the school in diverse ways, including the formation of a Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) and school policy formulation.

While studying educational psychology at undergraduate level, I undertook several modules related to school leadership and management to fulfil the requirements of the programme. After graduation, I worked as a Teaching Assistant at an academic department of the same university. In particular, I assisted them in teaching modules in school administration and guidance and counselling. I also worked as a member of a team that supervised undergraduate students undertaking practicum in special education. My education and experience enhanced my understanding about school management in the Ghanaian educational context, especially at JSS level, and the cultural and political practices, beliefs and values upheld in many communities in the country. Prior to the study, I had neither worked nor established a professional relationship with any of my research participants.

**Overview of the Study**

This study is divided into 7 chapters. Chapter 1 discussed the background of the study. Specifically, it explained the problem under exploration, presented the purpose and the objectives of the study as well as the research

questions. Moreover, I explained the education system in Ghana and Sunyani municipality, in particularly, to highlight the specific contexts within which the headteachers operate. Finally, I discussed the socio-political context of the setting of the study, the development of the JSS system and its leadership as well as my positionality as the researcher.

Chapter 2 engages in a critical discussion of school management in Africa, headship problems, influencing factors, preparation of headteachers and their in-servicing. This chapter is intended to develop a conceptual framework to inform the study.

Chapter 3 explains the research methodology. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the semi-structured questionnaires, while chapter 5 presents the findings of the interviews. Chapter 6 provides the analysis and discussion of the questionnaire and the interview findings, while chapter 7 presents conclusion of the study.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review**

**Introduction**

In chapter one, the relevant educational context in Ghana was provided to locate the study. This chapter reviews relevant literature in the Ghanaian context to explain the situation in more detail. Further, international literature, particularly in developing countries and the UK, will be critically engaged with to find possible similarities and differences between the problems facing headteachers in those countries and Ghana. As there is limited literature on professional development of headteachers in Ghana, international literature, predominantly from developing countries and UK will be reviewed to identify issues and professional development activities in those countries and to develop a framework for engaging with the research.

The literature review will cover five areas. Section one will examine management practices within the African setting to set the scene of the review. Section two will discuss the problems facing headteachers. Section three will discuss the factors responsible for the problems identified. Section four will examine the concept of preparation and the ways headteachers are prepared in some countries. Section five will discuss some CPD/INSET programmes provided for headteachers. The final section will provide a summary of the literature review, stating how the previous studies give rise to issues which the present study investigates.

**School Management within the African Context**

Many of the studies in the field of educational leadership and management have been conducted in the advanced world (Harber and Davies, 2002; Simkins et al, 2003). In developing and third world countries, little attention has been paid to this field (Harber, 1993; Harber and Davies, 2002; Simkins, et al, 2003) and, therefore, such countries have been 'receivers and

beneficiaries' of Western leadership theories/principles. However, Harber (1993) argues that 'these two contexts are often very different from each other and it cannot be assumed that models and principles that apply in 'developed' countries necessarily apply elsewhere' (p.485). Coleman and Earley (2005) argue that the application of principles and models of educational leadership and management universally is a wrong assumption. Simkins et al (2003) specifically state that a health warning must be attached to any attempt to apply Western leadership theories/principles to developing countries because of contextual differences between the two worlds.

Blunt and Jones (1997) examined the extent to which Western leadership theories were applicable in Africa and East Asia. In their study, they compared how leadership was exercised in these two contexts and found that Western leadership theories could not be widely applied in African and East Asian contexts.

> The major reasons have to do with significant differences in values concerning authority, group loyalties and inter-personal harmony. Leadership in the West is follower - and performance-dependent, and therefore inclined to be more participatory. Concern for employee welfare masks an overriding interest in the performance of the individual and of the organization, whereas in East Asia, the maintenance of harmony and face have deep philosophical and cultural roots, which can override short-term commercial considerations but (paradoxically, perhaps) still in the long-term (performance) interests of the organization. Africa and East Asia are quite similar in this respect which, incidentally, is evidence that performance of economies and organizations is a function of much more than patterns of leadership alone.

The issue of the application of Western management theories and models to the African setting is taken further by Nzelibe (1986). He argues that the fundamental aspects of modern African management thought include traditionalism, communalism, and cooperative teamwork. According to Nzelibe, the failure to incorporate these dimensions into management practices has resulted in managerial problems such as nepotism, corruption, and indiscipline in organizations.

African countries have diverse cultural norms and values which impact on the behaviours of leaders operating in such contexts. Nzelibe (1986) argues further that African managerial thought is characterised by some elements which differ from those found in Western contexts. These elements are: the 'mythology' of a cultural group which influences people's horizontal relationships (how they relate to each other) and their vertical relationship (how they relate to the Supreme Being); the 'creative motif' which is the 'guiding symbolic modality', prevailing in a cultural context; and 'ethos' which is the 'perceived image of a cultural group' (Nzelibe, 1986:14). According to Nzelibe, 'whatever image a group holds of other people, that image is an element in the iterative process and in acceptance or rejection of influence by such a group' (p.14).

Many writers have also argued that leadership should be perceived in relation to local culture (Bajunid, 1996; Blunt and Jones, 1997; Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Shahin and Wright, 2004). In a study of primary school headteachers in Ghana, Oduro, for example, found that:

The headteachers' understanding of school headship is skewed towards the exercise of 'power and authority'. Their understanding is influenced by factors related to Ghanaian cultural orientation towards respect for and the exercise of power and authority, value for age and language.

<div align="right">(Oduro, 2003:204)</div>

Thus, although the countries in Africa might have some common norms and values which impinge on management practices, each of the countries has some unique norms and values which also affect management practices in those contexts. Therefore, some aspects of management practices might differ within the countries of Africa.

**Problems Facing Headteachers**

A number of studies have highlighted certain problems facing headteachers in many countries, including Ghana. These problems include complexity of administrative/ managerial roles (RPCRERG, 2002; Lahui-Ako, 2001); difficulty in collecting and managing school fees (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003); un-cooperative attitude of SMCs and PTAs (GES, 2001, RPCRERG, 2002); teacher management problems (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003); student management problems ( Abbey, 1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002); and limitedness of resources (Legotlo and Westhuizan,1996; Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997).

RPCRERG (2002) indicates that headteachers in Ghana combine teaching with administrative roles, making it difficult for them to make adequate time for management and supervision, as noted earlier. Lahui-Ako (2001) also

argues that most principals in Papua New Guinea (PNG) are burdened with many responsibilities. However, unlike the situation in Ghana, they are pre-occupied with broad administrative responsibilities resulting in the allocation of inadequate time to their instructional leadership role. According to Lahui-Ako, principals are mostly engaged in their administrative role, mainly:

> Planning infrastructure developments; organising necessary human, financial, and physical resources; directing and controlling staff performances through evaluation and providing feedbacks aimed to achieve desired results with the school rather than using their natural and learned ability, skill, and personal characteristics to influence people to take desired action.
>
> (Lahui-Ako, 2001:235)

Similarly, headteachers in some advanced countries perform complex and numerous roles. Dimmock (1996) points out that headteachers in England are torn between focusing on their instructional leadership role and professional matters, and concentrating on their administrative role. Whitaker (2003) adds that the 'increased financial, personnel, and site responsibilities coupled with pressure to focus on professional matters such as curriculum have left headteachers pulled in different directions' (p.40). However, the increasing responsibilities are not matched with equal remuneration (Dimmock, 1996).

Headteachers in Ghana are also entrusted with the responsibility of collecting and managing approved fees on behalf of the stakeholders such as the PTAs, MoE, district assembly, and SMCs without being trained for that task (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003). However, their salaries are often withheld or suspended in

the event of miscalculation or their inability to meet the financial expectations of the stakeholders. Sometimes, they are accused of embezzlement of public funds, tarnishing their image among their colleagues and the people in the community in which they operate (Oduro and MacBeath, 2003). Unlike the practice in Ghana whereby headteachers are 'school fees collectors', their counterparts in some countries, such as England, have professional accountants or business managers who are charged with the responsibility of managing school finances. This enables headteachers to concentrate on the performance of their leadership and management roles. The inability of headteachers in Ghana to employ professionals to manage school finances is attributed to insufficient budgetary allocations to the education sector – this affected school funding (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Harber and Davies, 2002).

Another problem encountered by headteachers in Ghana is the un-cooperative attitude of the SMCs and PTAs (RPCRERG, 2002). These bodies are expected to help in the day-to-day management of schools, school policy formulation and school financing. They are also charged with the responsibility of ensuring that schools serve the interests and meet the expectations of stakeholders (GES, 2001). The role of the SMCs and PTAs in the management and functioning of schools is, therefore, absolutely crucial. Harris and Lambert (2003) confirm this, arguing that successful school improvement requires a collaborative effort of both the constituents working in the school (headteachers, teachers, administrators and pupils) and those outside the school, such as the parents, governing bodies and community members. MacNeil and Patin (2005) believe that the involvement of these stakeholders is 'not only incremental in the development of the child but also motivates the schools to function at a higher standard by constantly improving practices' (p.1). However, RPCRERG (2002) notes that the SMCs

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and PTAs in Ghana fail to attend meetings organised by headteachers and their staff. This lack of cooperation of the SMCs and PTAs with headteachers might affect the management of the schools negatively.

Dadey (1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002) in his ethnographic study in three secondary schools in Ghana finds that headteachers encounter teacher management problems. According to Dadey, teachers engage in many forms of misbehaviour, such as absenteeism, lateness and alcoholism which affect their output negatively. This situation is aggravated by frequent and compulsory transfers of teachers without replacing them, creating staff shortages in some schools (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). Also, female headteachers in urban centres, in particular, encounter problems in managing their female staff. Oduro and MacBeath (2003) indicate that female staff sometimes do not accord female headteachers the needed respect and status, worsening their relationships. This situation was attributed to the perception held about female leaders in Ghana. Historically, women who occupied high positions of responsibility or wielded much authority were associated with witchcraft. This perception discouraged many able women from occupying leadership positions, especially in organizations dominated by men. Until the early 1990's, when the Women's Rights movements started campaigning for the empowerment of women, there was a wide gap between male and female leaders in the country – leadership of most organizations, including schools was dominated by men.

Headteachers in Ghana also face student management challenges (Abbey, 1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). One dimension of the problems, according to Abbey, is non-attendance by students, which is more prevalent among boys than girls. Another aspect of the problem is that students engage in violent riots and demonstrations (Abbey, 1989 cited in Harber and

Davies, 2002; Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). According to Abbey (1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002), these activities result in violent destruction of school facilities leading, in some cases, to the closure of schools.

Some studies conducted in some African countries have also identified problems encountered by principals (headteachers in those contexts). In their survey of problems faced by newly appointed secondary school principals in Kenya, Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997) asked both the newly appointed principals (NAPs) themselves and experienced principals to rate the problems identified. It emerged that the experienced principals gave a lower rating to most of the problems facing the beginning principals, as shown in the table below.

| Problems | Beginning Principals | Experienced Principals |
|---|---|---|
| | Rank | Rank |
| Students who cannot pay school fees | 1 | 1 |
| Shortage of school equipment | 2 | 4 |
| Students who cannot buy books | 3 | 2 |
| Shortage of physical facilities | 4 | 5 |
| Staff residential accommodation | 5 | 3 |
| Installing telephones | 6 | 12 |
| Parents' illiteracy | 7 | 8 |
| Students travelling long distances | 8 | 10 |
| Lack of playground | 9 | 6 |
| Use of English as a medium of instruction | 10 | 7 |
| Clean water programme | 11 | 9 |
| Locating social club | 12 | 13 |
| Inaccessibility of parents | 13 | 11 |

Table1: Serious problems facing beginning principals in Kenya.

Source: Adapted from Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997:255.

Legotlo and Westhuizan (1996) also identified the problems facing new principals in developing countries by administering 500 questionnaires to the beginning principals themselves and veteran principals in one of the regions in South Africa. Again the findings demonstrated that the new and veteran principals rated the problems differently. The table below shows the results of the study.

| Problem Statement | New Principals (Rank) | Veteran Principals (Rank) |
|---|---|---|
| Pupils who cannot buy books | 1 | 1 |
| Installing telephones | 2 | 4 |
| Shortage of physical facilities | 3 | 3 |
| Pupils who cannot pay fees | 4 | 2 |
| Shortage of teaching grants/posts | 5 | 6 |
| Dismissal of an incompetent teacher | 6 | 7 |
| Staff accommodation problem | 7 | 5 |
| Water-supply problem | 8 | 11 |
| Too much administrative work | 9 | 10 |
| Pupils travelling long distances | 10 | 8 |
| Handling political unrest | 11 | 9 |
| Pupils' residential accommodation | 12 | 12 |
| Handling party politics | 15 | 13 |
| Lack of sufficient time | 13 | 14 |
| Poor staff morale | 14 | 15 |

Table 2: Problems facing new principals in developing countries

Source: Adapted from Legotlo and Westhuizan, 1996:404.

Both tables 1 and 2 above show that the problems were rated differently by the experienced/veteran principals and the beginning ones. Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997) indicated that the differences in ratings emerged because the experienced principals had developed the capacity to handle the problems. A comparison of the ratings of the newly appointed and

veteran principals in tables 1 and 2 above, again, shows that principals face some common problems. These problems are: pupils/students who cannot pay fees; installing telephones; shortage of physical facilities; pupils/students who cannot buy books; water supply problem; staff accommodation; and pupils/students travelling long distances. Moreover, the tables show some differences between the problems identified in Kenya and those in other developing countries. This might be due to the fact that developing countries have some 'diverse cultures, political systems, economies, religions, and aspirations' (Oplatka, 2004:428).

Hobson et al (2003) examined existing literature on the problems facing NAPs in the UK, USA and some European countries, but the problems found differed from those facing their counterparts in Kenya and other developing countries. It emerged from their study that headteachers encountered some common problems, although there were differences in experiences, background and school contexts. These problems were:

> Feeling of professional isolation and loneliness; dealing with the legacy, practice and style of the previous headteacher; managing time and priorities; managing the school budget; dealing with (for example, supporting, warning) ineffective staff; implementing new government initiatives, notably new curricula or school improvement projects; and problems with school buildings and site management.
>
> (Hobson et al, 2003:24)

Hobson et al. also found some differences in the problems facing new headteachers, but unlike the studies conducted in developing countries, they attributed this situation to:

Differences in school phase and geographical location; variations in educational systems in the contexts of the studies or cultural differences; variations in how the headteachers relate to the other staff in their school; when data was gathered for each study; and differences in the duration of the research examined.

(Hobson et al, 2003: 25)

The discussion, so far, reveals that there are some commonalities and differences in the problems facing headteachers in developing countries. Also, the discussion points out that the problems facing headteachers in developing countries, including Ghana, are, to a greater extent, different from those in the advanced countries. The differences in the problems might be attributed to the differences in professional contexts and characteristics between the countries in those two worlds – developing world and developed world.

**Factors Influencing the Problems Faced by Headteachers**

Although headteachers in Ghana and other countries encounter many problems, little effort has been made to identify the causes of these problems. Whereas literature clearly points out the causes of some of the problems facing headteachers identified in the previous section, the factors responsible for other problems appear in the explanation of the problems.

RPCRERG (2002) indicates that headteachers in Ghana are burdened because they teach and manage the school at the same time, as already pointed out. Oduro and MacBeath (2003) believe that headteachers in rural areas, in particular, are compelled to teach many classes and manage simultaneously because they do not get an adequate number of teachers to work with. According to Oduro and MacBeath, newly qualified teachers

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(NQTs) refuse to accept postings to those areas because of unavailability of social amenities in such places. Although Lahui-Ako (2001) and Dimmock (1996) argue that principals and headteachers in PNG and England respectively face problems in performing their management function, they do not clearly identify the causes of such problems. Hobson et al (2003) argue that headteachers in the UK (including England) and other developed countries face problems because of the complexity of their role and its tasks.

Dadey (1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002) attributed the teacher management problems encountered by Ghanaian headteachers to their powerlessness in determining who they would like to work with, resulting in the posting of ineffective teachers to their schools. The posting of teachers is done centrally by the GES, giving the headteachers no chance to assess the capabilities of those they manage. Similarly, government headteachers in Pakistan lack the power required to manage their staff in relation to their appointment, disciplining and payment (Simkins et al, 2003). The similarities in the causes of teacher management problems faced by headteachers in Ghana and Pakistan might be attributed to the fact that they are both developing countries and, therefore, share some common socio-economic features (Oplatka, 1994).

Abbey (1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002) blames the student non-attendance problem on their engagement in agriculture. Abbey indicates that it is difficult to enrol students, especially during agricultural seasons.

> The traditional economy can cause widespread student absenteeism. The times of serious absenteeism and lateness due to pupils engagement in farming varies from region to region…….In the Kade area of Eastern region, for example, this occurs in the main rice

harvesting season (i.e. July to October). In the Asante-Akim area of the Asante region, this problem is at its peak during the snail season. During these times some schools are compelled to reschedule their start and finish time to accommodate the situation since the problem is understood by all.

(Abbey 1989 quoted in Harber and Davies, 2002:75)

The students' violent demonstrations and riots were attributed to the creation of authoritative school culture which makes students conform to the authority structure of the school (Abbey, 1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). Contrary to this view, Dadey (1990: 80 quoted in Harber and Davies, 2002:76) blamed the students' demonstrations and riots on the 'absence of information flow; breakdown in communications; headmaster keeping students at arm's length; and lack of interest in students.'

The problems encountered by the new principals in Kenya and other developing countries were also caused by lack of funds for the schools (Legotlo and Westhuizan, 1996; Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997). In most of these countries, governments do not allocate adequate funds to the education sector of the economy, resulting in the schools' reliance on parents for financial support by collecting school fees (Harber and Davies, 2002). However, high poverty levels, coupled with high birth rates characterising developing and underdeveloped countries (Oplatka, 2004), make it difficult for the parents to pay the fees (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). This places the schools in a difficult financial position.

The causes of the problems faced by new principals in the UK and other developed countries are different from their counterparts in Ghana and other developing countries. Apart from the role complexity and numerous tasks

performed by the headteachers noted earlier, Hobson et al. (2003) attributed the problems to 'external pressures and demands; and poor access to training and support, both before and after appointment ' (Hobson et al, 2003:iii).

**Preparation of Headteachers**

Leadership literature points to a strong need for professional development of headteachers to prepare them to manage the problems they face in their work situations. The term 'preparation' refers to all the professional development activities which take place before one takes up a position (Cardno, 2003). Cardno categorised preparation into two stages: 'pre-employment preparation which encompasses selection, formal qualification programmes and/or training, and post-employment preparation which comprises induction into their role' (p.2). Bush and Oduro (2006) also identified these components in a model of leadership preparation developed for Africa. Cardno (2003) stated further that 'within both the pre- and post-employment categories there are directed and self-directed forms of preparation and formal and informal aspects of elements of education, training, development and mentoring' (p.2).

The preparation of aspiring headteachers is highly recognised in most advanced countries because of the importance of headship in school improvement and effectiveness (Bush, 1998; Simkins, 2005). In some of these countries, teachers with headship ambition are required to obtain formal qualification in leadership before applying for such positions. Among the developing countries, Hong Kong and some South East Asian countries such as Malaysia and Singapore have PRESET for headteachers (Bush and Jackson, 2003; Wong, 2005). In Ghana and some other developing countries, no formal qualification and PRESET are required for headship

post; long-serving and experienced teachers are normally appointed to such posts (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006), as already noted. Moreover, there is no formal induction programme for newly appointed headteachers (NAHs) or NAPs (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; RPCRERG, 2002; Oplatka, 2004; Bush and Oduro, 2006). Therefore, they are left to either 'sink or swim' (Weindling, 2004) on their appointment.

Nevertheless, most of the developing countries in the continent of Africa and elsewhere have carried out educational reforms to improve the quality of education provision (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Lahui-Ako, 2001; Borden, 2002; RPCRERG, 2002), and they perceive that school heads have significant roles to play in the success of the new reforms. In this era of educational reforms, it is important that aspiring and practising headteachers are equipped with the knowledge, skills and competences required to meet the challenges in their educational contexts. The importance of a formal and appropriate recruitment/ selection process, as well as training and induction programmes in such contexts can, therefore, not be underestimated.

## i. Recruitment/Selection/Appointment of Headteachers

Oduro (2003) differentiates recruitment from selection and argues that the former involves making an effort to attract the most suitable applicants from whom the most suitable person is chosen for the job, while the latter involves choosing the most suitable from among the attracted applicants for the job. This process means that selection takes place after recruitment, but Oduro goes on to say that both recruitment and selection have a common goal - 'hiring the most capable to lead the school' (p.298). Dean (1995) highlights two strategies for effective recruitment, namely (a) job description and person specification, and (b) recruitment advertising. Much research has

consistently revealed that having a structured approach has the tendency to increase validity of recruitment/selection (Middlewood, 1997).

Different criteria are used for recruiting/selecting/appointing headteachers in different countries. Middlewood (1997) indicates that in a country like Canada, principals are required to undergo appropriate training and obtain relevant qualification, and be allocated to schools or colleges for a specific period before being re-posted to different schools or colleges. In England, the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH) course has been introduced for aspiring headteachers – the aspiring headteachers are mandated to undertake the course. Candidates for headship positions are selected by the governing bodies in a competitive situation. The criteria for recruiting/ selecting/ appointing headteachers in Canada and England differ from those used in Ghana. RPCRERG (2002) notes that the authority for appointing headteachers is vested with the Directors of Education (DoE) of various districts, although they manage education with the support of the Assistant Director in charge of specific schedules and the regional manager of education units of religious organizations. The governing bodies, thus, have no role in the recruitment/selection/appointment of headteachers.

Bush and Oduro (2006) indicated two approaches used by the GES directors to appoint headteachers in Ghana.

> The first step is appointment through direct posting, which involves appointing newly-trained teachers to lead schools, especially in the rural areas. The unattractiveness of rural life appears to have made working in rural schools non-competitive among teachers, who might otherwise have had aspirations to be appointed as headteachers. The second strategy is appointment through selection interviews, which is

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largely associated with the appointment of urban school headteachers. Candidates for interviews are selected through recommendation.

(Bush and Oduro, 2006:366)

Traditionally, teachers in Ghana rise to Senior Superintendent rank in the GES before they are appointed as headteachers. At that stage, they are considered to be experienced enough to manage schools. Some developing countries also appoint headteachers on the basis of their experience, in addition to some other criteria. For example, Lahui-Ako (2001) indicates that in PNG, inspection reports form the basis of promoting experienced teachers into headship positions, but this procedure is characterised by favouritism. In most cases, teachers who originate from the recruiters' community are favoured for headship. According to Lahui-Ako, this practice worsens the relationships between some principals and their teachers because the teachers believe that the principals do not deserve such positions. Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997) also note that in Kenya, 'traditionally, deputy principals as well as good assistant teachers are appointed to the principalship without any leadership training including managerial competencies' (p.251). Appointing headteachers/principals without equipping them with the relevant knowledge and competences affect the quality of leadership they provide.

Traditional beliefs about women and the processes of their socialization prevented them from rising to headship positions in some developing countries (Brown and Ralph, 1996). According to Brown and Ralph, women in Uganda, for example, were traditionally supposed to submit to men and recognise their authority. This traditional belief denied them school leadership opportunities, since they could not compete with their fellow men. However, according to Brown and Ralph (1996), since the mid-nineties, the

Ugandan MoE has been considering gender issues in the appointment of headteachers with the intention of balancing the imbalances in headship positions. Under this 'affirmative action' policy, where a male is posted as a headteacher, a female is likely to be posted as an assistant and vice versa. Also, the ministry ensures that co-educational institutions in the country are jointly managed by a male and female headteacher (Brown and Ralph, 1996). This policy enables the female headteachers to act as role-models to the female students. Yet the process of recruiting/selecting/appointing female headteachers in Uganda might undermine quality, especially with the education ministry's emphasis on increasing their number without giving them the necessary leadership and management training.

The criteria for selecting/appointing headteachers in Ghana and other developing countries differ from those in the developed countries, such as England and Canada. Among the developing countries, especially those in Africa, it appears that apart from using experience as the basis for selecting/appointment of headteachers/principals, some country-specific issues are considered in the process.

## ii. PRESET of Headteachers

Bush (1994) indicates that management programmes are related to management theories which shape the training approaches. The training of headteachers takes many forms because each country has a unique context (Bush and Jackson, 2003). Bush and Jackson argue that:

> Despite globalization, the striking feature is that nations and states have developed very different models to address their common need for high quality leadership in schools. This diversity undoubtedly arises from the very different political, social and professional contexts, which

have led to provision being tailored to the particular requirements of each society. In learning from the experience of others, it is vital to recognise that what works well in one country may not succeed elsewhere.

(Bush and Jackson, 2003:427)

As already indicated, literature suggests that only a few developing countries, including Hong Kong and Singapore, have formalised such programmes, but there are variations in the programmes offered in these two countries. In Hong Kong, since September 2004, any teacher with principalship aspiration has been mandated to obtain the Certificate for Principalship (Wong, 2005). In Singapore, formal preparation of principals began in 1984 and since then teachers with principalship ambition have been encouraged to undertake the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) (Bush, 1998). According to Bush, the DEA is a year full-time programme run by the MoE and the National Institute of Education in the country. The candidates for the programme are normally selected vice-principals who receive their full salary during the period of the training. The programme introduces them to issues in management, leadership and curriculum management. It also offers them internship in schools and mentoring opportunities.

In Malta, the Faculty of Education has been running courses in administration and management for teachers occupying management positions or intending to assume headship posts since the mid-eighties (Bezzina, 2001). Bezzina adds that the participants are awarded Diploma qualification.

The course aims to acquaint participants with theories and research in behavioural sciences that are related to the studies of the organization. Within the framework of current developments in educational theory and practice, it also aims to provide participants with opportunities to analyse situations and formulate strategies for tackling administrative and management problems in education.

(Bezzina, 2001:140)

An evaluation of the impact of the programme showed that the participants made significant improvement in their schools. According to Bezzina, many teaching professionals with leadership aspiration have been encouraged to undertake this course, but the programme is not formalised.

Contrary to the situation in many developing countries, PRESET of headteachers has received some attention in most developed countries. The governments of some of these countries have set up centres and established agencies which prepare headteachers (Bush, 1998; Bush and Jackson, 2003; Simkins, 2005). For example, in England and Wales, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) has recognised the link between the development of headteachers and the improvement of schools. Therefore, it has introduced the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH) initiative to provide aspiring headteachers with the skills and competences required for their roles (Gunraj and Rutherford, 1999; Bush and Jackson, 2003).

The NPQH courses are delivered at regional centres in both England and Wales through on-line, face-to-face, supported self-study and visits to other schools. The duration of the course, depending on an individual's needs, is between 6 and 15 months (Bush, 1998). Bush indicates that the candidates

take a compulsory module on Strategic Leadership and Accountability. Moreover, the programme provides opportunities for candidates to establish links with colleagues in other schools. Such networks are particularly useful for their professional growth and development when they assume office.

The candidates for the programme are required to have prior experience in leadership at the whole-school level (Bush, 1998), enabling anyone in the school management team or deputy head position to apply for it. According to Bush (1998), the background of the candidates implies that 'they are deemed to be 'ready' in certain respects while needing training in other aspects of headship' (p.326). Therefore, to make the programmes useful to them, their needs are determined at regional assessment centres and incorporated into the design of the courses.

### iii. Induction of Headteachers

Induction is a key issue in leadership development in recent times. It is a process 'which enables a newcomer to become a fully effective member of an organization as quickly and as easily as possible' (Earley and Kinder, 1994:143 quoted in Coleman, 1997:156). Kitavi and Westhuizan also define induction as:

> A well structured comprehensive professional development programme with concisely articulated goals designed for the purpose of helping beginning principals to develop among other things: knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to carry their roles effectively.
>
> (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997:13)

O' Neil et al (1994:68 quoted in Coleman, 1997:156) believe induction is meant for 'socialisation; achieving competence; and exposure to institutional culture'.

Despite the usefulness of induction programmes for headteachers, they have received little or no attention in most developing countries, including Ghana. Oduro and MacBeath (2003) indicate that the NQTs who lead schools in the rural areas of Ghana are often left to fend for themselves owing to the absence of induction programmes for them.  Also, there is no evidence of formal induction programmes for headteachers in the countries in Africa. Therefore, within the last decade, some researchers have made an effort to provide a guide for inducting headteachers in that context. Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997), for example, provided a framework for induction of principals in the Kenyan educational context. The features of the proposed framework were:

- Mentoring of newly-appointed principals by experienced principals.
- Organization of in-service programmes and other activities for them.
- Out-going principals facilitating transition of the newly-appointed principals.
- Helping them to establish links with experienced principals for their professional growth and development.
- Experienced principals helping the training of deputy principals, as future leaders.
- Visiting other schools to see how such environments operate.

Bush and Oduro (2006) also proposed some strategies for inducting headteachers in the African continent, but the strategies were similar to those proposed by Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997). These strategies were in-

service preparation, opportunity for new headteachers to establish links with their colleagues (networking) and mentoring by experienced principals. It is interesting that Bush and Oduro (2006) proposed generic induction strategies for headteachers in the continent despite the fact that they operate in different professional contexts. The proposals are inconsistent with Bush and Jackson's (2003) advice for contextualisation of professional development programmes offered for headteachers.

Induction of NAHs is a common practice in most developed countries. In England, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) introduced the Early Headship Provision (EHP) in 2006 to equip beginning headteachers with the knowledge and skills required for effective task performance. The EHP was developed following the evaluation of the Headteachers Induction Programme and resultant consultation of stakeholders of education in England. The basis for the introduction of the model was the recognition of NCSL and the stakeholders that the beginning stage of headship was very critical. The programme aims to build the confidence of new headteachers for their tasks; help them work collectively; and to support them individually and collectively through coaching. The six-day programme provides new heads the opportunity to examine their leadership, share knowledge with their colleagues and establish links with them.

Hobson et al. also examined support strategies for new headteachers in England and Wales and found that they consisted of:

- Detailed documentation for the appointee prior to the taking up the headship;
- Preparatory visits to the new schools prior to the new heads' start date;

- Bringing local headteachers together to provide peer support;
- Mentoring by more experienced headteachers;
- Training in specific areas, such as finance and personnel issues; and

(Hobson et al, 2003: iii)

Moreover, Hobson et al (2003) found that the support strategies for new headteachers in other advanced countries in Europe and North America were different. The support strategies were:

- Summer induction conferences prior to the first year;
- Principal support networks', involving regular meetings at locations away from the principals' schools;
- Programmes that were closely related to the context in which headteachers work;
- Instruction and curriculum development activities.

(Hobson et al, 2003: iii)

The strategies for inducting headteachers in England and Wales seem to differ from their counterparts in other developed countries. But there are some similarities in the strategies which have been proposed for inducting new headteachers in African countries and those used to support their counterparts in England and Wales.

**CPD/INSET of Headteachers**

Literature in the field of educational leadership and management points out that terms such as CPD, training, INSET, in-service learning and staff development are used interchangeably. All these terms refer to both formal and informal activities planned and implemented to equip and improve the knowledge, skills, competences and attitudes of professionals after taking up their positions. Erasmus and Westhuizan (1994) define CPD as an on-going

training and education which are aimed at updating and enhancing the knowledge, skills and competences of professionals to enable them to carry out their duties effectively. Bush and Jackson (2003) differentiate CPD from PRESET, but argue that headteachers and their staff need both to work effectively in the classroom and throughout their career. They categorise CPD into two kinds: those for practising principals and those for NAPs. This classification supports the argument of Stroud (2005) that the professional development needs of experienced headteachers are different from those at the beginning of their career. Hargreaves (2003) advises that the differentiation of professional development courses for headteachers is more useful than having a 'one size fits all' solution.

Many educational reforms have been carried out in many developing countries in the last two decades. Oduro (2003) argues that 'changes that occur in the society affect the school's aims, which in turn affect the nature of school administration' (p.307). In Ghana, the implementation of the 1987 educational reforms and the introduction of the FCUBE programme have increased the roles and responsibilities of headteachers in the educational context, as noted earlier. Therefore, headteachers need to be trained to enable them to acquire requisite knowledge, skills and competences so that they can cope with the challenges brought by these changes (Oduro, 2003). Similarly, Borden (2002) indicates that in Latin America and the Caribbean regions, the aims of the various educational reforms can only be realised if emphasis is placed by the governments and policy-makers on the introduction of measures for improvement of leadership and management of schools. Lahui-Ako (2001) supports this argument and highlights the importance of leadership training in PNG's educational reforms. He writes that:

With the implementation of the new educational reform in Papua New Guinea, the nature of school leadership is under-going significant change. Principals, in particular, need new kinds of knowledge, attitudes and skills to perform their work effectively and efficiently. The change in emphasis through the reforms justifies the need to re-examine the appropriateness, relevancy and applicability of the training preparation provided for beginning principals…….It is essential that beginning as well as practising principals are well-prepared with appropriate and relevant administrative and leadership knowledge, skills and attitudes to face the practical demands and challenges of the role that they perform in the schools.

(Lahui-Ako, 2001: 258)

In spite of this general consensus on the need for training headteachers/ principals in developing and underdeveloped countries, very few of these countries have paid attention to this area. In Ghana, CPD programmes are normally organised at district and municipal bases by CSs and other government officials 'as and when necessary'. Oduro (2003) argued that the programmes were inaccessible to headteachers in the rural areas, who were sometimes 'fresh' from the TTCs. This problem was attributed to the fact that the non-governmental agencies who initiated the programmes did not allocate adequate funds to cover all the headteachers. Similarly, Wanzare and Ward (2000) pointed out that only a few experienced principals in Kenya had access to professional development opportunities, although it was emphasised that such programmes were important for all principals in that educational setting. Looking at the headship challenges in the Ghanaian and Kenyan educational contexts, it was unfortunate that inexperienced headteachers/principals were denied CPD courses. This situation might limit the effectiveness of their headship roles and responsibilities.

Oduro (2003) indicated that CPD programmes in Ghana normally lasted for 'two days', 'ten days' or 'two weeks'. This duration was considered to be too short for the content of the courses. Similarly, Borden (2002) pointed out that the duration of programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean regions was very limited, making it difficult for the participants to comprehend the content of the programmes for effective implementation.

Kenya is one of the developing countries that have a formal policy of CPD for education professionals. In that country, many organizations such as the Kenya Educational Staff Institute (KESI), the Kenya Institute of Education, the Teachers Advisory Centres, and the Kenya National Union of Teachers (Wanzare and Ward, 2000) are involved in providing CPD for professionals in education. However, only KESI has been given the mandate to provide courses for educational administrators, including school principals (Ward and Wanzare, 2000). According to Wanzare and Ward, the CPD programmes provided by KESI focus on:

> Management theory and practice in education; human and public relations; communication as a tool of management; legal aspects of education; leadership in education; decision making and problem-solving; curriculum implementation; supervision and evaluation; national examinations; appointment, deployment and discipline of teachers; financial management and control; delegation of duties; guidance and counselling; motivation and staff development; discipline in schools and physical planning and development with the focus being school planning.
>
> (Wanzare and Ward, 2000:267)

Although the CPD courses are intended to equip principals with the knowledge, skills and competences required for their roles, the principals themselves have little influence on the selection and design of the content of such courses (Wanzare and Ward, 2000). Therefore, the courses have limited impact on the roles of the principals.

Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean regions have also designed training modules and courses for principals to enable them to assume greater responsibilities (Borden, 2002). These courses are run at schools, regional education centres, and through distant learning technologies when schools are on vacation. According to Borden, the duration of the programmes 'ranges from one to two day workshops to degree, certificate or diploma programmes that are offered during vacation periods across the years' (p.12). Borden indicates further that the programmes offered in these countries have some limitations, making them ineffective in enhancing the professional growth and development of the principals. Firstly, he argues that the content of the programmes has no bearing on the participants' professional practice. This situation suggests that the needs of the participants are not assessed and incorporated into the content and design of the programmes. Secondly, Borden (2002) argues that the curriculum and/or instructional materials provided during CPD programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean regions are too theoretical. Thirdly, he notes that there is a lack of supervision of participants to assess how effectively they have practicalised what is learnt during the programme. Post CPD training supervision, among other things, helps training providers to decide on the content of subsequent programmes. Failure to do this might also explain why Borden argues that the content of the programmes does not reflect the areas in which the participants need training.

Another country that has paid attention to CPD is Hong Kong, but the main focus is on the development of NAPs. In that country, the Education Department has been running training programmes since the year 2000 to equip NAPs with the skills and competences required to lead and manage schools effectively (Wong, 2005). The programme also helps NAPs to adapt themselves to their new roles. It is organised centrally by the Education Department, with the courses being delivered by government officials. The main features of the programme are outlined below.

- The needs assessment conducted at the beginning of their principalship to help the NAPs find out their development needs.
- The Induction Programme conducted in the first half year to familiarise NAPs with common issues faced by principals.
- The Leadership Development Programme conducted in a three-day residential camp to equip NAPs with leadership skills.
- The Extended programme conducted in the second year to provide a theoretical framework for NAPs to have a better understanding of their work and for the development of action learning skills.

(Wong, 2005:7)

Wong indicates that the NAPs are mandated to complete the first three aspects of the course outlined above before their appointment can be confirmed.

Whereas CPD for headteachers has received little attention in most developing and underdeveloped countries, it is a significant feature of the education systems in the Western world. For example, in England, the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH) has been developed as part of the commitment of the TTA to improving the

performance of headteachers for the improvement of pupils' academic attainments. The programme, implemented in 1998, aims to enhance the professional development and growth of headteachers and school improvement (Watkin, 2000). According to Watkin, the development of the programme was informed by Hay/McBer's research findings in 1996 which showed that 'leaders can sustain performance improvements by creating a climate that motivates, develops, and retains talented people' (p.13).

> The underlying hypothesis was that by developing the characteristics/ competences of headteachers to better match their job requirements and enhancing their use of appropriate leadership styles, the context for school improvement/climate will improve. This in turn would improve school performance in terms of teacher effectiveness, pupil behaviour and learning outcomes/achievement.
>
> (Watkin, 2000:13-14)

According to Watkin, the providers of the LPSH assess the development needs of headteachers using a questionnaire which focuses on competences, leadership styles and the context for school improvement (organisational climate). The British government makes funds available to ensure that many headteachers have access to the programme. Since the implementation of the programme, it has provided headteachers with opportunities to reflect on their practices and experiences, and to share knowledge with their colleagues. It has also helped headteachers who took the NPQH programme to build on their experience (Watkin, 2000).

Stroud (2005) highlighted other CPD opportunities for experienced headteachers in England. In the study, headteachers were asked to suggest optional training opportunities for themselves. Firstly, they felt that they

should be provided with mentors or coaches, who would help them to analyse their needs, and challenge and discuss issues with them. Secondly, they needed courses that would offer them opportunities to discuss issues and develop their experiences. Lastly, they suggested that breakfast courses should be developed for them as part of their professional development. These courses would allow them to start school earlier than the normal time to meet colleagues for discussion of issues relevant to their individual schools. The headteachers also felt that starting school earlier would enable them to have adequate time for the tasks they perform daily.

Thus, it is evident from the discussion that CPD programmes have been developed for headteachers in many countries. However, there are variations in the programmes in terms of organization, content, and delivery. It appears that each of the programmes is tailored to the needs of headteachers/principals in each context.

Headteachers in every educational context require some skills and competences for effective leadership and management of their schools. The identification of these competences is absolutely crucial for systematic development of both pre-service and in-service programmes. The term 'competence' is defined by the UK Training Agency as:

> A description of something which a person who works in a given occupational area should be able to do. It is a description of an action, behaviour or outcome which a person should be able to demonstrate.
>
> (Training Agency, 1988:5 quoted in Ouston, 1997:74)

Derek (1993) considers competence as 'being able to perform whole work roles, not just specific skills and tasks, to standards expected in

employment, in real working environments....' (p.19). Both definitions point out that competence is demonstrable and could be seen in one's output in an organization.

Derek (1993) argues that competences required by junior managers might differ from those required by headteachers because they perform different roles. Hay McBer (cited in Oduro and MacBeath, 2003) identified competences required by all headteachers worldwide. These competences were classified into four - administrative (problem analysis, judgement, organisational ability and decisiveness); interpersonal (leadership, sensitivity, stress, tolerance); personal breadth (range of interest, personal motivation and educational values); communicative (oral communication and written communication). However, Ba Banutu-Gomez (2002) argues that competences needed for managing organizations in the African continent are different from those required for managing organizations in Western contexts. Harris and Kumra (2000) also argue that the criteria for judging managerial competence might be unsuitable in all contexts and might lead to failure rather than the key to success. Ba Banutu-Gomez (2002) advises Western-trained leaders who intend to lead organisations in developing countries to adapt themselves to those settings. In order to be successful, they need to acquire new knowledge, skills and competences about the way people operate in those settings, as shown in the following quotation:

> The use of community teambuilding: group problem-solving, task autonomy, accountability and responsibility, is the best way to manage in a developing country because one is in a high-context situation.........Managing in this kind of situation requires being able to design and implement a bottom-up management system, which includes a two-way exchange of ideas, values innovation, nurtures

flexibility, sustains diversity and offers members the freedom to experiment.

(Ba Banutu-Gomez, 2002:39)

Contrary to the argument of Ba Banutu-Gomez that there is a need to identify competences required for successful management of organizations in developing countries as a whole, Oduro (2003) believes that competence is context-specific. In his study of primary school headteachers in Ghana, he found that the environment in which headteachers operated and the languages spoken affected their understanding of the concept of competence. He identified the competences required by the headteachers in that educational context. The table below presents the frequency of competences.

| Competences mentioned | No. of Headteachers |
|---|---|
| Financial administration | 14 |
| Knowledge | 9 |
| Public/ human relations | 8 |
| Professional capacity | 7 |
| Record keeping | 6 |
| Tolerance/patience | 5 |
| Fairness/firmness | 3 |
| Managing people | 3 |
| Skills for vetting notes | 3 |
| Skills for teaching adults | 3 |
| Appraising teachers | 2 |
| Conduct of staff meeting | 2 |
| Commitment to work | 2 |
| Teambuilding | 1 |
| Counselling skills | 1 |

Table 3: Competences required by primary school headteachers for effective task performance.

Source: Adapted from Oduro, 2003:159.

Bajunid (1996) also argues that headteachers in Malaysia require specific skills and competences that suit indigenous Malaysian experience because of the changes that have occurred in that context. He classified them into two: and these were the 'representative management competences' and the 'skills and competences key to managing job.' The components of the former were:

> Information search, environmental scanning, conceptual flexibility - considering alternatives simultaneously; interpersonal search - exploring and understanding others' viewpoints; managing interaction - involving others, building teams; and developmental orientation - helping others develop.
>
> (Bajunid, 1996:66)

In relation to the components of the latter (the skills and competences key to manage job), Bajunid pointed out that all managers were required to:

> Manage on international scale; manage cultural diversity; respond to multiple sources of authority; combine variety of leadership and team roles, act strategically; utilise technology; communicate internally; communicate externally; establish and develop values; act responsibly; distil complexity of information; manage across functions; manage their own careers; as well as personal and professional development.
>
> (Bajunid, 1996:66)

Thus, there might be some commonalities in the competences required by all headteachers on the globe because education is an international concept. However, the fact that they operate in different social, political, and

professional contexts (Bush and Jackson, 2003) means that there might be some differences in the competences they require. Oduro (2003) and Bajunid (1996), in particular, argue for the identification of context-specific competences for headteachers.

**Summary**

In this chapter, the influence of African culture on management practices in that context has been discussed. It emerged from the review that management practices in the countries in Africa are shaped by a variety of norms and values prevailing in those contexts. Moreover, the challenges facing headteachers and the factors responsible for these challenges have been traced. Most of the studies that explored these issues were conducted in secondary schools.  In Ghana, whereas substantial studies have been conducted into the problems facing primary and secondary school headteachers, little is known about the problems facing JSS headteachers and the factors responsible for them. But, as already pointed out, the problems facing headteachers depend on the phase of the school, among other factors (Hobson et al, 2003).

Eshiwani (1993) argues that 'the quality of education is heavily dependent on the quality of staff, their motivation, and the leadership they experience' (p.124). The review points out that for headteachers to perform their roles effectively, their preparation and CPD are significant. These issues have, however, received little attention in most developing countries. Headteachers in most of these countries in Africa, including Ghana are selected/ appointed without relevant training, yet they are not well-inducted into such positions. Efforts have been made to develop strategies for inducting headteachers/principals in Kenya (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997) and other African countries as a whole (Bush and Oduro, 2006). However,

Bush and Jackson (2003) argue for the development and provision of context-specific programmes/strategies for school leaders because they operate in diverse social, political and professional settings, as noted earlier. Similarly, Weeks (1988) argues that countries have reached different stages in development and face different issues and challenges. Therefore, it is difficult to identify a single theory or method which is able to address their varied needs.

Additionally, the review showed that efforts are being made to help practising headteachers to acquire knowledge, skills and competences needed for their role in many advanced countries and some middle income countries. In Africa, similar effort has been made in Ghana and Kenya, but the courses are not proving very effective in addressing the training needs of headteachers and principals respectively (Wanzare and Ward, 2000; Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006). The argument is that professional development is particularly important for headteachers/teachers in developing countries such as Ghana if they would be able to play a meaningful role in the search for a good quality basic education for all children of school-going age in the country. It could be argued further that the professional development courses offered for the headteachers need to be context-related, and the recipients need to be involved in exploring and determining their development needs and opportunities.

The review showed that a survey approach was employed for most of the studies which focused on the challenges facing headteachers/principals in Africa. Creswell (2003) argues that researchers who employ this approach often study large samples and aim to generalise their findings (Creswell, 2003). The survey approach is, however, inappropriate when there is the need to investigate a phenomenon in depth – the approach fails to explore

the complex interactions existing in societies and between individuals in those contexts (Walliman, 2005). Muijs argues that:

> To really get under the skin of the phenomenon, we will need to go for ethnographic methods, interviews, in-depth case-studies and other qualitative techniques.
>
> (Muijs, 2004: 9)

The review points out that a case study approach was employed for the studies conducted into the problems facing primary and secondary school headteachers in Ghana, and those that focused on their professional development. The same approach will be used to investigate the problems facing JSS headteachers in Sunyani municipality and their professional development needs. The case study approach will be discussed in detail in the next chapter, which focuses on methodological choices for this particular study.

## Chapter 3: Research Methodology

### Introduction

This study investigated the problems facing JSS headteachers in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and ways of providing training for them, both before and after appointment. Therefore, there was a need to find a research approach that would help to achieve these two-fold purposes. This chapter discusses philosophical and theoretical perspectives in research and how they influenced methodological choices in this particular study.

### Ontological and Epistemological Underpinnings

Social reality can be seen from different viewpoints and constructed in diverse ways (Cohen et al, 2000). Methodological choices are underpinned by philosophical and theoretical positions regarding knowledge and how it can be gained; these positions influence decisions regarding research approach/es, choices of methods and frames for analysis, among others, and guide research design at all stages. Ontology is concerned with the nature and essence of things in a social world (Cohen et al, 2000; Gray, 2004). There are two main ontological assumptions about social reality.

> Researchers could view social reality as external, independent, given and objectively real or socially constructed, subjectively experienced and the result of human thought as expressed through language.
>
> (Sikes, 2004:20)

The former ontological assumption relates to the realist school of thought, which argues that social reality has external existence and is independent of the researcher (Burrell and Morgan, 1979 cited in Cohen et al, 2000).The latter ontological assumption is linked to the nominalist school of thought,

which argues that social reality has no external existence such that it can be objectively and dispassionately accessed; it is rather the result of human thinking (Burrell and Morgan, 1979 cited in Cohen et al, 2000) and is referred to as interpretive paradigm. The present study was underpinned by this latter ontological standpoint about social reality and it informed methodological decisions in an attempt to gather 'valid data to make valid interpretation for the creation of valid knowledge' (Sikes, 2004:20). The ontological positions inform epistemological perspectives.

Epistemology is 'what constitutes knowledge and whether it is possible to know and understand and re-present' (Sikes, 2004:21). Gray (2004) identifies three epistemological positions. The first is objectionist epistemology which argues that reality exists independently of the knower and therefore research aims to discover such truth through a scientific approach. This epistemological standpoint is linked to the realist argument. The second epistemological position is subjectivist epistemology. This position accepts that participants have the ability to construct knowledge, but argues that meaning is imposed on the actors by the objects. The third is constructivist epistemology which dismisses the objectionist epistemology and argues that 'meaning is constructed not discovered, so subjects construct their own meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon' (Gray, 2004:17). This epistemological worldview is linked to the nominalist ontological position and informs the choice of a research paradigm to guide this present study.

**Research Paradigms**

Henn et al (2006) indicate that a paradigm is 'a set of assumptions about how the issue of concern to the researcher should be studied' (p.10). There are many research paradigms, each of which has an epistemological

foundation. The most common paradigms identified in research literature are, however, the positivist, interpretive/constructivist (Scott and Usher, 1999; Esterberg, 2002; Henn et al, 2006) and critical paradigms (Cohen et al, 2000). The positivist paradigm is located within the normative studies and is linked to the objectionist epistemological perspective. It argues that social reality exists 'out there' and is independent of the observer. Esterberg (2002) believes that 'the aim of the positivist researchers is to discover a set of laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human behaviour' (p.10). The studies located in positivist paradigm are ineffective for understanding the complexity of interactions existing in societies and individuals (Flick et al, 2004; Muijs, 2004). Therefore, positivist paradigm was inappropriate for the achievement of the purpose of this present study. Moreover, the studies informed by a critical paradigm aim to 'expose inequalities, malpractices, injustices, and exploitation; give a voice to the excluded and marginalized groups; and help explain generalised oppression in order to precipitate social change' (Henn et al, 2006:16). These goals do not reflect the purpose of my study. The purpose of this present study placed it in an interpretive paradigm, which is discussed next.

**Interpretive Paradigm**

The basis of the interpretive paradigm is constructivist epistemology (Gray, 2004). The history of this paradigm could be traced from the work of Max Weber (1864-1930), who argued that our understanding of the social world can be deepened when we make an effort to understand it from the perspectives of the people being studied rather than explaining their behaviour through cause and effect (Weber, 1949 cited in Henn et al, 2006). Interpretive paradigm argues that social reality is created jointly through meaningful interaction between the researcher and the researched on agreement (Grbich, 2007; Rugg and Petre, 2007) in the latter's socio-cultural

context. Social reality is experienced in a number of ways and interpreted 'often in similar but not necessarily the same' (Bessey, 1999:43) manner.

Interpretive research acknowledges the feelings, experiences and viewpoints of the researched as data (Verma and Mallick, 1999; Walliman, 2005). Therefore, researchers working within the interpretive paradigm collect data verbally. Bessey (1999) argues that the data collected are 'usually richer, in a language sense, than positivist data and, perhaps because of this quality, the methodology of the interpretive researchers is described as qualitative' (p.43).

Interpretive paradigm was chosen for this particular study for three reasons. Firstly, it allows researchers to access the experiences and viewpoints of the research participants (Verma and Mallick, 1999). Secondly, it recognises the role of the researcher and the research participants in knowledge construction, acknowledging interpretations as 'socially constructed realities.' The research participants – both the researcher and the researched – acquire active roles in this knowledge construction. Lastly, it is useful in an attempt to understand a phenomenon in all its complexity in a particular socio-cultural context (Creswell, 1998; Flick et al, 2004).

Several perspectives can be identified within the interpretive paradigm and these include symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, and hermeneutics (Gray, 2004).

> …….The essential tenets of *symbolic interactionism* are that: people interpret the meaning of objects and actions in the world and then act upon those interpretations; meanings arise from the process of social interaction; meanings are handled in, and are modified by, an

interactive process used by people in dealing with the phenomena that are encountered…….*Phenomenology* holds that any attempt to understand social reality has to be grounded in people's experiences of that social reality. Hence, phenomenology insists that we must lay aside our prevailing understanding of the phenomena and revisit our immediate experience of them in order that new meanings may emerge…………. According to *hermeneutics* perspective, social reality is seen as socially constructed, rather than being rooted in objective fact. Hence, hermeneutics argues that interpretation should be given more standing than explanation and description……….

(Gray, 2004:20-23)

Research literature shows that studies which are located in an interpretive-qualitative framework are based on a phenomenological school of thought. For example, Gray (2004) and Maykut and Morehouse (1994) contrasted the positivist paradigm with the phenomenological approach. Gall et al (2007) also indicate that 'phenomenological research is the antithesis of quantitative research' (p.495). To Oduro (2003), the phenomenological approach 'values context sensitivity that understands a phenomenon in all its complexity and within a particular situation and environment' (p.50). This is what qualitative research attempts to achieve. The next section focuses on the choice of a qualitative research approach for this particular study.

**Choosing a Research Approach**

Qualitative research is an umbrella term that encompasses many research approaches including historical research, phenomenological study, ethnographic study and case study. These approaches may have some related features, but different goal/s (Gall et al, 2007; Grbich, 2007). Out of these, the case study approach was chosen for exploration of the problems

facing headteachers in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and their professional development needs. The choice of this approach was in line with the ontological and epistemological assumptions underlying knowledge construction. Moreover, the approach allowed the use of multiple methods to collect data from both the headteachers and the CSs in their natural context – a defined geographical area – for the achievement of the purpose and objectives of the study. The experiences of participants in qualitative studies are shaped in their context and will be impossible to be understood if removed from that context (Kincheoloe, 1991).

## Case Study Approach

Case study is a form of qualitative research, which is widely used by researchers in social sciences. This approach has been defined in diverse ways. Gall et al (2007) provide a definition which is based on the characteristics of the case study. To them, a case study is '(a) the in-depth study of (b) one or more instances of a phenomenon (c) in its real-life context that (d) reflects the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon' (p.447). Punch (2005) gives a prescriptive definition of the approach. He indicates that:

> The case study aims to understand the case in depth, and in its natural setting, recognizing its complexity and its context. It also has a holistic focus, aiming to preserve and understand the wholeness and unity of the case.

(Punch, 2005:144)

Although these definitions differ, they agree that a case study explores an instance or a few instances of a phenomenon by interacting with the participants in their socio-cultural setting. Typically, case study researchers

neither aim at discovering generalisable truth, nor look for cause-effect relations as quantitative researchers do (Cohen et al, 2000); instead they focus on describing, explaining and evaluating a phenomenon (Gall et al, 2007). To achieve these aims requires the researchers to spend adequate time in the context of the study to collect extensive data using multiple instruments (Gall et al, 2007).

Several kinds of case studies are identified in research literature. Stake (1994 cited in Punch, 2005) identifies three kinds: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. Verma and Mallick (1999) also distinguish three forms of case studies: observational, historical and clinical. A case study is, therefore, an umbrella term which is fundamentally concerned about the relationships between events and situations (Verma and Mallick, 1999). The fact that case studies vary in form means that there is flexibility in that approach.

The case study approach is normally considered as the study of a 'single case' implying one person, one institution, or one event. However, Stake (2000) argues that 'the object of social inquiry is seldom an individual person or enterprise. Unfortunately it is often such objects that are thought of as cases' (p.23). The interpretation of a 'single case' has been expanded, especially in social sciences. Stake argues that a case 'can be whatever 'bounded-system'.....is of interest. An institution, a programme, a responsibility, a collection or a population can be the case' (p.23).

In conducting a case study, researchers can focus on multiple cases or a single case (Yin, 2003). Research that focuses on more than one instance is referred to as a multiple case study, while a single case study looks at an aspect of phenomena (Denscombe, 2003; Yin, 2003; Punch, 2005). This particular study focused on a single case for two reasons. Firstly, it aimed to

'capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday or commonplace situation' (Yin, 2003: 41). Secondly, it had to be completed within a specified time and, therefore, it was considered appropriate to focus on an aspect of the problem to explore it.

The case study approach has many advantages. Firstly, it is able to capture and explore the complexity of phenomenon for a better understanding (Verma and Mallick, 1999; Denscombe, 2003). This is what a large scale study like survey fails to achieve since it gathers superficial information about a phenomenon for the purpose of generalisation (Muijs, 2004). Secondly, using the case study approach requires the use of multiple methods to collect data, enabling it to be validated through triangulation (Denscombe, 2003; Yin, 2003). Thirdly, it is action oriented and therefore the findings are useful for improving practice (Cohen et al, 2000). Notwithstanding these advantages, the approach has been critiqued in diverse ways, which would be debated in the discussion of the limitations of this particular study, in chapter 7.

**Case Selection**
The quality of headship is very significant for the improvement of JSSs in Ghana and a study that covers the whole country would be worthwhile. However, it was impossible to involve all the headteachers and CSs in the country in this particular study because of time constraints and financial implications. Therefore, it was considered appropriate to conduct a 'bite-size' research covering the headteachers and CSs in one geographical location rather than an 'elephant size' study covering the whole country. Sunyani municipality in the Brong Ahafo region was 'handpicked' (O'Leary, 2005) as the case for the study.

Denscombe (2003) offers four ways in which to justify the selection of a case for a study. First, he notes that a case is selected because it is an extreme instance, implying it is contrary to the normal. Second, an area is selected because it is suitable for either 'theory-building' or 'theory-testing'. Third, a case might be selected to test the validity of a theory, especially in an area where it is unlikely to occur. Fourth, it is selected because it is a typical instance. Denscombe argues that:

> The most common justification to be offered for the selection of a particular case is typical. The logic being invoked is that the particular case is similar in crucial respects with others that might have been chosen, and that the findings from the case-study are likely to apply elsewhere.
>
> (Denscombe, 2003:33)

The Sunyani municipality shared some similar characteristics with other municipalities and districts in the country. Educationally, they all operated similar educational structures and had both independent and public schools, some of which were mission schools. Moreover, the municipality had been divided into Circuits like other municipalities and districts in the country. However, it has fewer and smaller Circuits than most places, particularly those within the region. The municipality also differed from others geographically – it was the smallest administrative district in the region, but the most developed. It also had a strong commitment to education, particularly compared with other districts in the region. According to the SMA:

> The vision of the educational Directorate in the municipality is to provide an enabling environment to promote quality of teaching and

learning and also to adopt strategies that would enhance effective management and supervision in educational institutions in the municipality.

<div align="right">(SMA, 2006:8)</div>

It was expected that gaining access to conduct a study in that setting would be less problematic because of its strong commitment to provide high quality education. Moreover, the selection was, to a certain extent, influenced by some pragmatic factors (Denscombe, 2003; O' Leary, 2005). Firstly, the size of the municipality meant that it was manageable within the duration of the study. Secondly, it was geographically convenient – the transportation system was developed, compared to other districts in the region, making it less difficult to reach the participants to collect data.

After selecting the case, an effort was made to seek the consent of the education authorities in the municipality to conduct the study, and the CSs and JSS headteachers to participate in it.

## Access Issues

In conducting a qualitative study, Creswell (2005) advises researchers to seek and obtain permission from the authorities in charge of the site of the study because it involves a prolonged and extensive data collection. Accordingly, I obtained permission from the Director of GES who was in charge of education in the municipality to conduct the study. In August 2006, a formal letter was sent to the Director providing the details of the study, including data collection, and issues of confidentiality and anonymity. The approval letter to conduct the study was sent to me a month later (Appendix A ii).

Cohen and Minion (1994) argue that data collection is facilitated if people get prior knowledge about their involvement in the study. Therefore, after permission had been granted to conduct the study, I sent a letter to each of the participants (CSs and headteachers) to seek their consent to take part in the study and to inform them of the impending questionnaire. This prepared their minds for what was ahead. However, the details of the study were not provided at this stage.

**Methods for Data Collection**

A researcher working in a qualitative interpretive framework is present with all his/her own understandings, convictions and conceptual orientation (Miles and Huberman, 1994), interacting with participants in a socio-cultural context to seek understanding and construct knowledge with them. The voice of a researcher cannot be ignored in any piece of qualitative research.

Every research aims to extend the boundaries of knowledge (Creswell, 2005). This could be achieved by ensuring that methods used are in conformity with a theoretical framework and philosophical arguments. Blaxter et al (2001) argue that 'underpinning research tools are more general philosophical questions about how we understand social reality, and what are the most appropriate ways of studying it' (p.59). The choice of methods is also informed by contextual and personal constraints.

Guba and Lincoln (1987) argue for matching methods to methodological choices to avoid mixing inquiry approaches at paradigm level. Sikes (2004) adds that consistency and coherence are very important in assessing the quality of research, implying that approaches and methods selected for a study must agree with the research paradigm. Conversely, Creswell (2005) argues that the choice of method for a study is influenced by the purpose of

the study, the information needed to address the research questions and the resources available, rather than by philosophical considerations. Verma and Mallick take this argument forward by indicating that:

> If a researcher decides to use a quantitative approach to the investigation of a problem, there is no obligation to ignore the qualitative data that are collected in the process. Similarly, if in another study it was decided that qualitative approach was best suited to the topic being investigated, it could still include quantitative data.
>
> (Verma and Mallick, 1999:27)

This argument implies that researchers can be flexible and adaptable, but with some restrictions.

> Both qualitative and quantitative methods can be used in the service of any paradigm, whatever its presumptions and assumptions may be. The only criterion that ought to constrain their choice of methods is their fit to the axiomatic structure of the paradigm selected to guide the enquiry.
>
> (Guba, 1992 quoted in Greenfield and Ribbins, 1993:179)

Informed by this argument, a semi-structured questionnaire and interview were chosen to gather qualitative data for the study. The latter instrument explored in greater depth the key issues which emerged from the data generated by the former.

**Semi-structured Questionnaire**

Cohen et al (2000) locate a semi-structured questionnaire between structured and open questionnaire. With semi-structured questionnaire:

A series of questions, statements or items are presented and the respondent is asked to answer, respond to or comment on them in a way that she or he thinks best. There is a clear structure, sequence, and focus, but the format is open-ended, enabling the respondent to respond in her/his own terms.

(Cohen et al, 2000:248)

The questionnaire for this study was constructed (Appendices A iv & Av) to gather data in the first phase of data collection.

Semi-structured questions have a number of strengths. One of them is that 'respondents can offer any information, express any opinion they wish, although the amount of space provided for an answer will generally limit the responses' (O'Leary, 2005:159). Moreover, such types of questions are used to enhance understanding of the general context of research (Peterson, 2003). Also, semi-structured questions enable researchers to unearth important information (Gillham, 2002). However, the analysis of the data gathered through such questions is time consuming because it has to be intensively read, categorised and coded as part of the analysis. Therefore, 'their number and kind has to be restricted to justify the 'cost'' (Gillham, 2002:5).

In designing the questionnaire, my prime aim was to collect data that would answer the research questions posed in chapter one. Therefore, 11 questions were developed from the research questions to elicit the desired responses and opinions of the participants: these covered issues and concerns for the headteachers and the responsible factors; training of aspiring headteachers; their selection/appointment; induction of NAHs; and training of practising headteachers. Two similar questionnaire schedules

were constructed – one for headteachers and the other for CSs (Appendices A iv& Av). Each of the schedules was divided into three sections. Section 'A' gathered background information of the respondents. Some of the questions in this section required the respondents to choose from a range of responses, while others required them to supply short responses. Section 'B' was based on the first two research questions; and Section C dealt with the last two research questions.

### i. Piloting the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was piloted in October 2006 in Berekum district, which lies west of the setting of the study, after being granted permission by the DoE of the district. The permission was sought through a letter written by myself. The choice of that district for the pilot exercise was influenced by two factors. Firstly, it was thought that piloting the questionnaire in the context of the study would give the participants fore-knowledge about the information required, leading to pre-determined responses. Opie (2004) also argues that 'those undertaking the pilot will have become sensitised to the questions so that any answers they give in the main study will be influenced in a different way from those who have not' (p.105). Secondly, I had a professional relationship with many of the headteachers and some CSs in that district, making it easier for me to contact the experienced and knowledgeable ones to critically comment on the instruments.

The pilot questionnaires, accompanied by covering letters were sent to 6 headteachers and 2 CSs for response. Also, I gave them an opportunity to comment on the appropriateness of the schedule in generating the expected qualitative data for the study. Therefore, a separate sheet was attached to the questionnaire schedule; this contained questions to elicit comment on the physical lay-out of the schedule, the ordering of the questionnaire, length

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of time taken to complete the questionnaire, and how the questions were posed (Cohen et al, 2000; Opie, 2004). The responses helped to clarify some of the questions in the schedule. One of the respondents made a comment that indicated her preference for structured questionnaires. She wrote 'wished you provided questionnaires that would demand 'yes' or 'no' answers. Not all can get time to write on such issues you are seeking for'. This comment drew my attention more to the time demand placed on respondents, especially as the schedule contained open-ended questions.

## ii. Questionnaire Administration

The Sunyani municipality has both government and non-government JSSs. The former are established and managed by the government, while the latter by private entrepreneurs. There are 75 government JSSs in the municipality. Also, the municipality was divided into 9 Circuits each of which was led by a CS. This study focused only on the headteachers of the government JSSs and the CSs in the municipality. In the first phase of data collection, postal questionnaires were sent to all 75 JSS headteachers and the 9 CSs. My aim was to gather broader views and responses of these participants to identify issues and to develop themes for semi-structured interview schedules. Moreover, it was my intention to make the headteachers and CSs who would be interviewed to reflect on their responses in the questionnaire. Thus, the instrument created some understanding and awareness among the participants during the interviews.

Each of the questionnaires was accompanied by a covering letter (Appendix A iii) explaining the purpose of the study, its significance, the steps taken to ensure confidentiality of the data collected and to protect the anonymity of the respondents in the study and other relevant issues. Also, each of the questionnaires was put in an envelope addressed directly to the participant

concerned. Because of the cost involved in posting them individually, they were all packaged into a box and posted to two of my friends in the country for re-posting to the individual participants in November, 2006.

Blaxter et al (2006) argue that postal questionnaires may lead to a low response rate. However, by the second week of December in the same year (2006), 69 out of the 75 questionnaires sent out had been returned. This number represented a high response rate. Two steps were taken to maximise the response rate. Firstly, I offered small financial incentives in Ghanaian currency to the participants as a token of appreciation for the information provided (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The money was sealed in envelopes and added to the questionnaires. This was consistent with the advice of Creswell (2005) that researchers can encourage participation in their studies by adopting a number of strategies, including provision of financial incentives. The participants of a study conducted by Oduro and MacBeath (2003) in the same country – Ghana - expressed their dissatisfaction with items such as Cambridge-inscribed wallets and pens given to them, and rather asked for 'brown-envelope', symbolising financial incentives in the Ghanaian context. Financial incentives were demanded because the researchers were residents in the UK – a place perceived as a land of affluence by many Ghanaians. Without the financial incentive, the return rate to my questionnaire could have been lower.

Secondly, I realised that it would be unfair on my part to expect the respondents to buy their own envelopes and stamps for posting the completed questionnaires. This could have reduced the return rate as well. Therefore, I added a stamped envelope addressed to my friends to each of the questionnaire schedules (Cohen et al, 2000), so that the respondents could seal the information provided. The sealed questionnaire schedules

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received by my friends were posted to me in December, 2006 as already noted. Adding stamped envelopes to the questionnaires and giving financial incentives placed an additional financial constraint on me.

The next section discusses semi-structured interview, highlighting its strengths and weaknesses.

**Semi-structured Interview**

The second instrument used to gather data for the study was a semi-structured interview (Appendices A vi & A vii). O'Leary (2005) argues that:

> Semi-structured interviews are neither fully fixed nor fully free and are perhaps best seen as flexible. Interviews generally start with some defined questioning plan, but pursue a more conversational style of interview that may see questions answered in an order natural to the flow of the conversation. They may also start with a few defined questions but be ready to pursue any interesting tangents that may develop.
>
> (O'Leary, 2005:164)

Wragg (2002) notes that this instrument allows the interviewer to ask initial questions, followed by probes meant to seek clarification of issues raised. Probes are either pre-stated or posed in the course of the interview, making the interview process flexible.

Flick (2006) indicated that the psychologists, Brigitte Scheele and Norbert Groeben, developed the technique for 'studying subjective theories relating to the school and other professional fields. The term 'subjective theories' refers to the fact that interviewees have a complex stock of knowledge about

the topic under study' (p.155). According to Flick, this knowledge contains both explicit and implicit assumptions which are expressed when interviewees are offered an opportunity to respond to open questions. The participating headteachers and CSs had lived in their communities and worked in the schools and therefore possessed extensive knowledge about the phenomenon under exploration. Using a semi-structured interview schedule offered them an opportunity to construct their own world. The choice of this technique was also influenced by the interpretive paradigm in which this study was located and further influenced by the ontological and philosophical assumptions regarding knowledge construction.

Semi-structured interviews have some usefulness. Firstly, Wragg (2002) indicates that it is mostly used by researchers in education 'as it allows respondents to express themselves at length, but offers enough shape to prevent aimless rambling' (149). Secondly, semi-structured interview offers investigators an opportunity to clarify or probe and expand the interviewee's responses in order to ascertain their feelings (Opie, 2004). This is what structured questionnaires and interview schedules fail to achieve. However, the openness of some of the questions in the schedule leads to gathering of massive volumes of qualitative data, which is time consuming to analyse. Also, the flexibility of the instrument makes it difficult for researchers' bias to be dealt with (Opie, 2004).

**Developing the Semi-structured Interview Schedule**

The study required an on-going dynamic design and analysis. The initial analysis of the questionnaire data was significant for capturing an overview of the setting of the study and for identification of issues to be explored through semi-structured interviews. The major issues which emerged from

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the questionnaire data were related to managing teachers and students; complexity of headteachers' role; financial and material acquisition; pre-headship training; selection/appointment; induction of headteachers, and existing INSET programmes (pp.91-129). These issues were explored further in the interviewing stage.

Two separate but related semi-structured interview schedules were constructed for the headteachers and CSs (Appendices A vi & A vii). Each of the schedules contained seven (7) main questions. The questions in the schedule had multiple features – some had sub-questions, while others were followed by probes which were intended to seek further clarification of issues.

**Sampling of Interviewees**

The personal information of headteachers who responded to the questionnaire indicated that their ranks consisted of Superintendent, Senior Superintendent, Principal Superintendent, and Assistant Director. Their academic and professional qualifications were Certificate 'A', Diploma, and Degree, while their length of service ranged from 1-30 years. The CSs, on the other hand, had reached Principal Superintendent and Assistant Directorship ranks in the GES; their length of service ranged from 3-15 years, while they held Certificate 'A', Diploma and Degree qualifications (pp.90-91).

I selected for the interview 15 of the headteachers and 6 CSs who responded to the questionnaires. This sampling size was selected because it was manageable. Also, as the study was qualitative, it was necessary to select a sample that would enable the phenomenon under study to be explored for a better understanding. Creswell (2005) argues that selecting a

large number of interviewees will 'result in superficial perspectives….the overall ability of a researcher to provide an in-depth picture diminishes with the addition of each new individual or site' (p.207). Additionally, a massive amount of data was expected to be generated by the interview schedule because the interviewees were given an opportunity to express their views on issues. To do the transcription, coding and analysing of such data manually would be extremely difficult within the duration of the study, especially if many interviewees were involved. 'Collecting qualitative data and analysing it takes considerable time, and the addition of each individual or site only lengthens that time' (Creswell, 2005:207).

My aim was to access the multiple perspectives (Creswell, 2005) of the selected interviewees, who had different academic and professional qualifications and experience, and held various ranks in the GES, about key issues in the questionnaire data. Therefore, maximum variation sampling strategy, a purposive sampling procedure (Creswell, 2005), was selected to build this complexity into the study. Creswell defines maximal variation sampling strategy as:

> A purposive sampling strategy in which the researcher samples cases or individuals that differ on some characteristic or trait ……The procedure requires that you identify the characteristic and then find sites or individuals that display different dimensions of the characteristics.
>
> (Creswell, 2005:204)

Using the demographic data provided, the two groups of respondents were first categorised according to their different academic and professional qualifications –Certificate 'A', Diploma, and Degree holders. Then those with

different ranges of experience and who occupied different ranks within the GES were selected for the interviews.

**i. Composition of Headteachers Interviewed**

- 5 Certificate 'A' holders:
  - o 2 newly appointed ones at Superintendent rank (1 female with 2 YoS and I male with 4 YoS);
  - o 2 long-serving males occupying Assistant Director rank – the highest rank serving headteachers can reach (1 with 16 YoS and the other with 27 YoS);
  - o 1 female at Senior Superintendent position with 10 YoS.
- 5 Diploma holders:
  - o 2 newly appointed males at the same rank as the newly appointed Certificate 'A' holders (1 with 2 YoS and the other 4 YoS);
  - o 2 long-serving males at the same rank as the long-serving Certificate 'A' holders (1 with 17 YoS and the other 30 YoS); and
  - o 1 female at Principal Superintendent rank with 9 YoS.
- 5 Degree holders:
  - o 2 newly appointed at Senior Superintendent rank (1 male with 2 YoS and 1 female with 4 YoS) (degree holders start serving from this rank on completing their education);
  - o 2 long-serving males at Assistant Director rank (1 with 18 YoS and the other with 30 YoS); and
  - o 1 male at Assistant Director rank with 10 YoS.

**ii. Composition of CSs Interviewed**

The CSs were highly-educated or experienced officers in the Ghanaian educational context. The minimum rank for such officers was Principal Superintendent. The CSs interviewed composed of:

- 1 male Certificate 'A' holder at Assistant Director rank with 15 YoS;
- 3 male Diploma holders at Principal Superintendent rank (1 with 5 YoS, 1 with 6 YoS and 1 with 10 YoS); and
- 2 Degree holders at Assistant Director rank (1 with 3 YoS and the other with 7 YoS).

The demographic data provided by the CSs indicated that two of them held Certificate 'A' (p.90). Therefore, I decided to interview both of them, in accordance with the proposal. However, during the interview, I realised that one of them had been awarded a diploma by a university. Since there were no more Certificate 'A' holders, I selected one more Diploma holder for the interview.

Also, the setting of the study had both urban centres and a number of rural areas. Therefore, the sample of the headteachers and CSs interviewed was drawn from both settings.

**Piloting the Interview Schedule**

Cohen and Minion (1994) argue that when using interviews to collect data, bias results from sources including 'misconceptions on the part of the interviewer of what the respondent is saying and misunderstandings on the part of the respondent of what is being asked' (p.282). Two examples of ways to reduce bias are to clarify the questions for the interviewees, and for the researcher to train himself/herself to be acquainted with possible problems (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Piloting the interview schedule helped to achieve this.

Before piloting the interview schedule, I gave it to two of my lecturers to examine and comment on it. Their comments were useful in modifying some of the questions before the field-work in Ghana. On my arrival in the country on 15<sup>th</sup> February 2007, I spent two days in the same Berekum district where the questionnaires were piloted to pilot the interview schedule. The choice of this district was influenced by similar factors to those indicated in the section on questionnaire piloting. The interview schedule was piloted with two headteachers (1 male and 1 female) and two CSs (both males). These professionals had all responded to the initial pilot questionnaires so they had fore-knowledge about the research. The pilot exercise was intended to check the clarity of the questions; the length of time taken to respond to the schedule; the extent to which the information provided could be kept confidential; and the measures taken to maintain their anonymity during the study (Opie, 2004). No changes were made in the schedule after the pilot exercise.

**Organising and Conducting the Interviews**

After the pilot exercise, I moved to the Sunyani municipality on 17<sup>th</sup> February 2007. The following day, I met the DoE of that municipality in his office and introduced myself to him. Then, I was informed that a two-day workshop was being organised for all the headteachers of JSSs in the municipality in Sunyani. Therefore, I went to the workshop venue to meet the selected interviewees individually and confidentially to introduce myself to them. Then, each of them was given a letter informing them about their selection for the interview phase. Also, I asked them for convenient dates and times for the interviews. Meeting all of them at the venue was economical for me in terms of finance and time.

The interviews were conducted on a face-to-face basis. This encounter was

'directed towards understanding informants' perspectives on their lives, experiences, or situations as expressed in their own words' (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984:77 quoted in Kumar, 2005:124). The face-to-face interviewing was preferred to other strategies such as telephone interviewing, because telephone interviewing was considered as impersonal and difficult to record. Also, the non-verbal aspects of the communication would be lost.

Each of the interviewees was interviewed on one occasion in either their office or a location which was free from distractions. Each interview situation lasted 50-60 minutes. To ensure consistency during the interview, I developed an interview protocol (Yin, 2003; Creswell, 2005) to guide me. Prior to each interview situation, I re-introduced myself, described the research, its purpose, category of interviewees, steps being taken to maintain confidentiality and their anonymity, and notified them about the duration of the interview (Creswell, 2005). Then I asked the interviewee concerned to read and sign the consent form developed, and sought their consent to tape-record the interview. Moreover, brief notes were taken in the event of tape recorder malfunctions (Creswell, 2005). On completing each interview situation, I expressed my appreciation to the interviewee for his/her cooperation and participation. Some of them expressed interest in the findings of the study, so I promised to deposit a copy of the findings at the municipal education office for them to access, when necessary. The duration of the field work was five weeks.

**Power-relations**

In qualitative research, the relationship between the researcher and the researched is very important. This relationship influences the research process and the quality of data gathered. The research participants and I were unknown to each other in any way when the study began. However,

my going there from a top university in the UK, perhaps, made them perceive me as one of the 'leading' academics. Therefore, my relationship with them was that of power, drawing attention to how I should present myself to them, particularly during the interviewing stage. The way a researcher presents himself/herself to participants has ethical implications.

> The decision of how to present oneself is very important, because after one's presentational self is "cast" it leaves a profound impression on the respondents and has great influence on the success (or failure) of the study….He/she must be able to put him - or herself in the role of the respondents and attempt to see the situation from their perspective, rather than impose the world of academia and preconceptions upon them.
>
> (Fontana and Frey, 1994:367)

As a researcher entering the world of the participants to seek an understanding, I equated myself and, perhaps, presented myself as 'a learner' to them; not as an academic who has come down to 'collect my data' (Herod, 1999:321). Presenting myself that way was necessary because of the position of the interviewees as the source of knowledge or information which was being sought.

My relationship with the interviewees made them feel less threatened, especially during the interview situations, as some of them were more open and demonstrated their preparedness to share information. Prior to answering the questions in the interview schedule, some of them freely asked about my future aspirations. This conversation reinforced the initial rapport I established with them, making me and the participants co-partners in the production of knowledge (Herod, 1999).

**Pseudo-insider Researcher**

Much research literature indicates that investigators are perceived predominantly as either an 'insider' or 'outsider' (Herod, 1999; Sharan et al, 2001). This dualism is often referred to as the 'positionality' of the researcher (Herod, 1999). Mahar and Tetreault (1994:22 quoted in St. Louis and Barton, 2002:3) define 'positionality' as the 'knower's specific position in any context as defined by race, gender, class, and other socially significant dimensions.' In relation to interviewing, positionality refers 'to the personal, physical or social characteristics of the interviewer (class, gender, nationality, age, etc.)' (Mahar and Tetreault, 1994:22 quoted in St. Louis and Barton, 2002:3). The researcher's positionality influences the research process, particularly data collection and analysis.

I began the data collection as an 'outsider' researcher – I had neither lived nor worked in the context of the study. However, this positionality shifted during the interview stage of the study because of my race. The clan system is highly cherished and preserved by the people of Ghana, especially those in the region in which the setting of the study was located. It is believed that most natives of the region have common ancestors and belong to the Bono tribe. Therefore, all members of the tribe speak the same language with different accents, and have similar values and norms. Being a Bonoman by racial definition, I was drawn closer to the context of the study and the participants, most of whom belonged to the same tribe, than I had earlier thought. Prior to the interview situations, one of the interviewees made an effort to trace my family line using my name. Thus, in reflecting on my own positionality, I realised that I was positioned in a racial context. This supports the argument of St. Louis and Barton (2002) that one of the factors that positions people before or during interviewing is race.

Moreover, through my communication and interaction with the participants before and during the interview situations, I became professionally close to them. Some of them even felt free to ask me questions about the educational system in the UK before and after the interview situations. My professional closeness was consistent with Herod's argument that:

> Whereas a researcher may initially be perceived very much as an 'outsider', over time her/his positionality may change. This situation is likely to arise when a researcher is conducting follow up interviews with sources with whom s/he has already developed a working relationship.
>
> (Herod, 1999:234)

Thus, my racial definition and the professional relationship developed with the participants changed my positionality during the interview stage from a 'complete outsider' to a 'pseudo-insider' (Herod, 1999). This agrees with Herod's argument that:

> It is apparent that the positionality of the researcher can shift depending upon a number of considerations, in the process disrupting the supposedly stable dualism of "insider"/ "outsider."
>
> (Herod, 1999:320)

My positionality as a 'pseudo-insider' was useful in several ways, similar to what Herod discussed in his study of foreign elites. Firstly, the participants were very receptive and cooperative. One of them told me that he wished everybody could make time for the interview quickly so that I could return to the UK to continue my studies. Also, since I was not a 'complete' member of their community, they perceived me as a harmless researcher and therefore

discussed issues openly and dispassionately. Lastly, I took advantage of my 'unfamiliarity' with the issues in the context to ask many questions for extra clarifications. An 'insider' might overlook some of the questions because of his/her familiarity with the context.

**Data Presentation and Analysis Framework**

Researchers have analysed qualitative data in diverse ways. For example, Bryman and Burgess (1994 cited in Walliman, 2005) employed two main processes: the building of typologies and taxonomies, and the generation of concepts and theory. Miles and Huberman (1994) based their analyses on 'transcendental realism' which comprised data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.

Walliman (2005) argues that the analytical frame chosen for a study depends on the theoretical and philosophical perspectives which inform it, the goal of the study, the questions addressed and the methodology used. This study was informed by the ontological assumption that knowledge was acquired, subjective in nature and the results of human cognition (Cohen et al, 2000; Sikes, 2004). This was further informed by the interpretive paradigm which argued that knowledge was created through the interaction between the researcher and the researched. The instruments used in the data collection produced mainly qualitative data. This data was analysed thematically (Creswell, 2005; Grbich, 2007).

The findings of the questionnaire and the interview schedules were presented in separate chapters. Both the data presentation and analysis were done manually. This strategy was chosen for several reasons: firstly, I did not possess knowledge about qualitative computer soft-wares; secondly, the volume of data collected was manageable, making it less

difficult to identify relevant text passages; and thirdly, my desire was to interact and have a hands-on feel for the data (Creswell, 2005). The problem associated with analysing data manually is that it is laborious (Creswell, 2005; Marshall and Rossman, 2006).

Since both instruments generated mainly qualitative data, the presentation went through the same stages. The first stage was a preparatory stage, where the responses to each of the questionnaires were written on separate sheets to make reading through them easy. Then the respondents were categorised into four – male headteachers in the urban centres; male headteachers in the rural areas; female headteachers and CSs. This was followed by collating, writing down and word processing of the responses of each of the respondent categories to the questions/items in the schedule. This approach facilitated the management of the huge amount of the questionnaire data and meaningful comparisons.

The preparation of the interview data for presentation began with the organisation and transcription of the audio-tape recordings. The transcription also involved listening to each tape repeatedly to familiarise myself with the conversations and carefully writing them down in the words of each interviewee. The interview data was then categorised into four types of respondents like the questionnaire data for effective management and comparisons.

The next stage involved intensive and repeated reading of the data with the aim of immersing myself in it. The aim of this activity was to determine analytical categories or themes (Schmidt, 2004; Creswell, 2005) using my professional judgement (Denscombe, 2003); these are often referred to as 'analyst-constructed typologies' (Marshall and Rossman, 2006).The

development of the themes was guided by the research questions and the literature review.

The coding process began after determining the themes. The codes consisted of short phrases expressed by the participants in their words (in vivo codes) (Creswell, 2005) and others self-generated based on text passages. The codes were assigned to each manuscript, but they were further reduced when they overlapped. Then related codes were aggregated under each of the dominant themes to form a framework. The codes assigned to the questionnaire data included 'school funding', 'powerlessness', 'student behaviour', and 'teacher attitude.' For example, the following extract from the questionnaire data was coded under 'school funding':

> ….Some JSSs in the deprived areas of the municipality have low enrolment and as such receive very scanty capitation grant (at times between 500,000 and 1,000,000 cedis annually) from the government. Therefore, headteachers cannot purchase anything substantial to develop the dilapidated structures of the schools (Rural headteacher).

The codes assigned to the interview data also included 'parents' attitude', 'teacher cooperation', and 'role conflict.' For example, the following extract from the interview data was coded under 'role conflict':

> '…….By all means one will suffer – either the administration or the classroom suffers. When headteachers perform very well administratively, the classroom suffers. On the other hand, when they perform very well in classroom, administration suffers. It is not

easy for headteachers to combine roles. One will suffer at the expense of the other! (A CS)

Samples of responded questionnaires and interview transcripts are attached to this research (Appendices A viii; Aix; and A x).

In the next stage, I gave a detailed description of each of the major themes. Brief quotations from the data were used to add realism (Creswell, 2005) to the description. Since the data was collected from different categories of respondents, it was analysed from their perspectives in order to build some kind of complexity into the study (Creswell, 2005). Also, some of the data were summarised using diagrams for transparency and verification (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Schmidt, 2004).

In the data analysis and discussion stage, which was contained in a separate chapter, the findings of the questionnaires and the interviews were re-categorised to develop new themes. In the discussion, I made reference to the questionnaire and the interview findings for detailed explanation and validation. Also, I compared and contrasted issues and ideas with the existing body of knowledge.

**Trustworthiness**

The criteria for examining the rigour in both qualitative and quantitative studies have, traditionally, been internal and external validity, reliability (Punch, 2005) and objectivity. Esterby-Smith et al (1994) argued that these concepts were originally associated with positivist research and therefore interpretive researchers were reluctant to consider them in their studies as it

would mean accepting positivism as the only absolute source of knowledge. However, Brock-Utne argues that:

> The questions of validity and reliability within research are as important within qualitative as within quantitative methods though they may have to be treated somewhat differently. The commonly held assumption that qualitative methods pay attention to validity and not reliability is false.
>
> (Brock-Utne, 1996:612 quoted in Bush, 2002:60)

However, Gall et al (2007) are of the view that these terms are weakly applied in qualitative research which uses open-ended instruments to collect data. Similarly, Merriam et al (2002) argue that 'reliability is particularly problematic in the social sciences simply because human behaviour is never static, nor is what many experience necessarily more reliable than what one person experiences' (p.27).

Wolcott (1990) argues against the use of reliability and validity in qualitative research on axiomatic grounds. He indicates that these criteria do not satisfy qualitative research methodology because of differences existing between the axioms of interpretivism and positivism. It is impossible to use the criteria established to judge the quality of a positivist study to judge the rigour of qualitative inquiry. According to Lincoln (1992) 'accommodation between and among paradigms on axiomatic grounds is simply not possible' (p.81). Therefore, Gall et al (2007) argue that 'qualitative researchers generally reserve selection of the criteria for determining the soundness of their research to themselves depending on the topics, methods, audiences and performers of the research' (p.473). Guba (1992) used 'trustworthiness criteria' to judge the quality of a study located in an interpretive paradigm.

The elements of the criteria include credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability (Guba, 1992). These were applied alongside other strategies, to ensure the quality of this particular study.

The first strategy adopted to ensure the credibility of this study was triangulation (Cohen et al, 1994; Scaife, 2004; Silverman, 2005; Gall et al, 2007). This involves 'the use of two or more methods of data collection in a study of some aspect of human behaviour' (Cohen et al, 2000:11). Employing this strategy helps researchers to offset the limitations associated with using one method to collect data (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2005) and to determine the veracity of information gathered (Bush, 2002). The application of the concept of triangulation is discussed more thoroughly in the next section.

Apart from triangulation, another strategy employed to achieve credibility of this study was peer examination (Merriam et al, 2002; Gall et al, 2007). Regarding this strategy, a colleague on a Doctor of Education programme at the same university was given the tentative findings to review and comment on them in relation to the raw data. The comments increased my confidence in the findings of this study.

Transferability of findings, a feature of qualitative research, is equivalent to generalisability of findings in quantitative study (Merriam et al, 2002). As indicated earlier, the opponents of a case study, which is an example of qualitative research, argue that its findings are very difficult to generalise since it mostly focuses on one instance or a few instances (Verma and Mallick, 1999; Denscombe, 2003; Punch, 2005). However, in recent times attempts are being made to apply the findings of such a study widely. Denscombe (2003) argues that the ability to generalise the findings depends

on how similar the other settings are to the setting of the study. Although the case studied might be similar to others in Ghana, my aim was not to generalise the findings of the study; it was rather to enhance an understanding of the problem in that municipality. However, if readers find sufficient similarities between their contexts and the context of the study, then it is reasonable for them to transfer the findings to their individual contexts.

As this was a qualitative research project, it was difficult to generate objective results. I was embedded in prejudices, and have my own knowledge, values, biases and convictions which could impact, to some extent, on the findings of the study. However, I endeavoured to ensure that its meanings were not changed by my knowledge and experiences. I ensured that 'the results, accepted as the subjective knowledge of the researcher, can be traced back to the raw data of the research, that they are not merely a product of the observer's worldview, disciplinary assumptions, theoretical proclivities and research interests' (Charmaz, 1995:32). This was achieved by using an audit trail, which provided a means of ensuring that constructions could be seen to have emerged directly from the data, thereby confirming the research findings and grounding them in the evidence or raw data (Schwandt and Halpen, 1988; Merriam et al, 2002).

Dependability or consistency of qualitative research findings corresponds to reliability of findings in quantitative research (Merriam et al, 2002). Dependability of the conclusions was ensured by asking clear questions; triangulating the data; reduction of bias and subjectivity during the data collection; peer examination; explanation of my position; audit trail (Schwandt and Halpin, 1988; Merriam et al, 2002); and reporting the research process and findings transparently.

**Triangulation**

Triangulation is a useful technique when a phenomenon is studied through a case study approach. It is considered to be a fundamental principle in collecting data in case studies (Yin, 2003). Merriam et al (2002) add that triangulation is an important strategy for establishing the credibility of data and its interpretation.

Two types of triangulation – method and respondent triangulation - were incorporated into this particular research. Method triangulation involves using multiple instruments to collect data for a study (Merriam et al., 2002). McFee (1992) referred to it as 'between triangulation' and argued that it enables researchers to compare and validate the outcomes in terms of the outcomes of one another. Using two methods to collect data is an 'attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint' (Cohen and Manion, 1994:233). Method triangulation was achieved through the combination of semi-structured questionnaire and interviews for data collection. The questionnaire was used to generate initial data to guide the development of the interview schedule and field-work, as already noted, but the data was analysed to add another perspective to the information collected. The combination of two methods affected the quality of the data collected for the study.

Bush (2002) points out that 'respondent triangulation' involves using the same instrument to collect data from different participants. 'Respondent triangulation' is consistent with McFee's 'within triangulation' which:

> Takes as its starting point the claim that the 'reality' of a situation is not to be apprehended from a single viewpoint. Thus it brings to bear

two or more viewpoints on a particular occasion (say those of teacher, pupil and observer), with a view to characterising the occasion so as to accommodate, or account for, all these viewpoints.

<div align="right">(McFee, 1992:216)</div>

Using each of the instruments (semi-structured questionnaire and interview) to collect data from both the headteachers and the CSs agrees with 'respondent triangulation'. This strategy enabled similarities and differences in the views of the participants to be ascertained.

Although triangulation was a useful strategy for achieving credibility of this study, it could have become problematic if contradictions were to appear in the data collected from the two sources – questionnaire and interview schedules, - resulting in differences in interpretation and analysis of the information. This could have represented methodological confusion.

**Summary**

In this chapter, I have detailed my research design to explain the research process, choices of methods and the direction of the study. I have also discussed my approaches to data analysis. In addition to that, I have discussed my claims about the trustworthiness of the data collected in the research design. In the next chapter, I will present the responses of my research participants to the questionnaires.

# Chapter 4: Presentation of Questionnaire Findings

## Introduction

This chapter presents data collected from JSS headteachers in Ghana to explore the issues and concerns facing them. The data also highlights the underlying causes of these issues and concerns, indicating the professional development needs and possible development opportunities for the headteachers.

As already indicated, the data was collected in two phases. In the phase one, semi-structured questionnaires were administered to 75 headteachers and 9 CSs; 69 completed questionnaires were returned. This represented a return rate of about 82%. Out of those who returned the questionnaires, 60 were headteachers (51 males and 9 females), while 9 were CSs. The questionnaire data is categorised into three parts. Part one presents the background information of the respondents. Part two covers the themes on the issues and concerns for the headteachers as well as the responsible factors, while part three contains professional development needs and provisions of both aspiring and practising headteachers.

## Part One: The Headteachers and CSs in Sunyani Municipality

Section 'A' of the headteachers' questionnaire contained seven items (a-g), while that of the CSs had five items (a-e) (Appendices A iv & Av), but both questionnaires sought background information on gender, age groups, academic and professional qualifications, length of service, ranks in the GES and, in the case of the headteachers, their location within the municipality and how they were appointed.

It emerged from the data that most of the headteachers were over 50 years and were located in both urban (36 males and 9 females) and rural (15 males) areas. In terms of qualifications, the majority of them held Certificate 'A' (graduates of Teacher Training College (TTC) while a few of them held diplomas and degrees. The responses showed that none of the headteachers held Masters, Doctoral or any other Postgraduate qualifications. Only 4 out of the 12 diploma holders and 1 out of the 13 degree holders were females. The length of service of the headteachers varied from 2 to 30 years, but most of them had served between 2 and 15 years. The majority of headteachers who had occupied their positions for less than 5 years were located in the rural areas. The unattractive lifestyle in these areas might explain why many headteachers did not stay there for a long period. The ranks of the headteachers consisted of Superintendent, Senior Superintendent, Principal Superintendent, and Assistant Director. There was consistency among the ages, length of service and ranks of the majority of headteachers. For instance, all the headteachers who were more than 50 years old had reached Assistant Directorship and were the longest serving among the headteachers.

In the case of the CSs, all of them were males. Their ages ranged from 40 to 59 years, but the majority of them were over 50, while their qualifications ranged between Certificate 'A' and degree. The majority of them held diploma and degree qualifications, with 2 holding a Certificate 'A' qualification. Their length of service also ranged from 3 to 15 years. The data revealed that the CSs belonged to two main ranks - Principal Superintendent and Assistant Director, but the majority of them belonged to the latter rank. There was inconsistency between the ranks of the CSs and their ages. Some younger CSs had attained Assistant Director status

because they held high professional and academic qualifications, while some older ones were at lower ranks.

Several themes emerged from the responses of both the headteachers and CSs to the questionnaire. These themes were generally linked to the research questions set out in the introductory chapter of this study. Part two and three bring together the data collected by questionnaire and presents it using these themes as sub-titles.

**Part Two: Issues and Concerns for JSS Headteachers and the Causes**
Several themes relating to the issues and concerns for the headteachers and the factors accounting for them emerged from the data. These were:

- Teacher Management Issues and Concerns
- Teacher Management Issues and Concerns: Influencing Factors
- Student Management Issues and Concerns
- Student Management Issues and Concerns: Responsible Factors
- Complexity of Headteachers' Role and Contextual Factors
- Paucity of Financial and Material Resources and Underlying Causes

**i. Teacher Management Issues and Concerns**
The majority of responding CSs and headteachers highlighted issues relating to teacher management. The teacher management problems reported by both the male and female headteachers in the urban areas were similar, implying that gender did not determine their responses. The data showed some similarities and differences among problems identified by the urban headteachers, the rural headteachers, and the CSs. In the diagram below, the area labelled 'A' shows the problems indicated by the CSs and all the headteachers - Urban Male Headteachers (UMHs)/Female

Headteachers (FHs) and Rural Male Headteachers (RMHs) ; 'B' signals the problems indicated specifically by RMHs; 'C' the problems noted by the CSs, while 'D' the problems identified specifically by UMHs.

B (RMHs only)

- Teachers come to school late but sign correct time
- Ineffective dealings with teachers reported by heads to the education officials
- Teachers' anxiousness to further their studies
- Indiscriminate transfer of teachers
- Delay in replacing transferred teachers

A

- Teachers' lack of concern about students' progress
- Teacher lateness and absenteeism
- Teachers' failure to prepare lesson notes
- Ineffective use of instructional time

Headteachers & CSs

- Teachers disrespect their heads
- Low headteacher confidence in dealing with staff
- Lack of regular support for heads in dealing with staff

- Teachers leave school before time
- Limited staff knowledge about some subjects taught
- Rebellious attitudes of teachers with SSS background

C (CSs only)                              D (UMHs/FHs only)

Fig 1: Problems encountered by the JSS headteachers in managing their teachers.

The main concerns expressed by all the participants were teacher-related and seemed to be shared by all. Some differences between the concerns expressed by the UMHs/FHs and RMHs in the diagram could be attributed to variations in the social-cultural contexts in which they operated. The rural areas in the country are mostly deprived, making social life unattractive (most places have no access to electricity, lack conducive accommodation, portable water, etc), as already noted. The schools in those contexts are, in most cases, under-resourced materially and lack proper infrastructure, as pointed out by the respondents on page 109. Unlike the rural areas, social life in the urban centres is quite attractive and schools are better resourced. The unfavourable situation in the rural areas seemed to have affected the motivation and attitudes of the teachers towards their work. The prime concern of the rural headteachers was, therefore, how to deal with the problem of serious staff-turn-over (teachers were transferred indiscriminately, but were not replaced in the appropriate time; teachers applied for study leave to avoid the unattractive lifestyle in that context). It appeared that these concerns were less important to the UMHs/FHs because they operated in a context, which differed from the RMHs.

The diagram above (Fig1) also shows that the RMHs particularly highlighted officers' ineffective dealings with teachers. It seemed that the headteachers were helpless and lacked authority over their teachers. Therefore, they expected the education officers to support them in disciplining their staff. On the other hand, the UMHs/FHs were concerned about the rebellious attitudes of teachers with SSS background, and teachers leaving the workplace before the end of school day, which, as with the RMHs, implied their lack of authority over teachers. The response of the CSs - lack of regular support for headteachers – implied  that they clearly recognised the problems headteachers faced in managing and disciplining teachers in  both

the rural and urban settings, but it appeared that they were not accepting the responsibility of supporting the headteachers, raising questions about their role as supervisors in that context. The response of the CSs suggested that they also lacked power to discipline teachers reported to them by the headteachers - power to discipline teachers resided with leading education officers in the municipality, as evident in comments made by the respondents on pages 94 and 95.

Generally, most responses of the headteachers (both urban and rural) and CSs in the table above suggested that teachers were not serious about their work and failed to cooperate with their headteachers. However, headteachers were not supported in addressing these problems. The teacher management issues were attributed to many factors, as presented below.

**ii. Teacher Management Issues and Concerns: Influencing Factors**

Headteachers believed that their lack of power in being able to discipline teachers was responsible for the negative attitude of teachers towards their work and their uncooperative attitudes. The data, however, suggested that the education authorities were unwilling to support them in discipling teachers because of their relationship with particular teachers. Those teachers took advantage of their relationship with the officers to indulge in indiscipline behaviour. FH-7 expressed this concern:

> Support for a headteacher to exercise his or her power may not come from regional and district office because the offenders may be the wives or relatives of the senior officers at the office. Because such teachers have relatives 'at the top', they 'kick against' the rules and go unpunished.

UMH-3 complained:

> When you report the attitude of any teacher to the Director for action to be taken, nothing is done and this encourages others to misbehave. All this happens because those teachers relate the Director and other officers.

One of the CSs confirmed the headteachers' view and explained why headteachers found it difficult to discipline some of their teachers:

> Relatives of the Director and 'top-men' in the municipality and the regional offices are posted to the urban centres. Headteachers find it difficult to discipline such teachers. The teachers just misbehave because they know they will not be punished!
>
> (CS-3)

Whereas some respondents blamed the attitude and apathy of teachers on the failure of education officers in that municipality to deal with them, others attributed it to inappropriate leadership styles of headteachers.

> Heads treat teachers unequally when they commit the same offences. Apart from that most of the headteachers do not practice open-door administration.
>
> (RMH-10)

> Some heads 'lord' their positions on their teachers. Such headteachers practice autocratic leadership styles.
>
> (UMH-35)

These comments agreed with the observation of CS-9 that 'some headteachers are autocratic and as such do not delegate power.' On the other hand, some of the CSs and headteachers indicated that teacher supervision had not been intensified in the schools in that municipality and therefore most of them relaxed and took things for granted. CS-7, for example, remarked that 'headteachers are not supervising their teachers as expected. Therefore, the teachers do what they like!'

Some of the CSs added another dimension to the causes of teachers' inappropriate attitudes: they believed that when a headteacher had lower educational qualifications than his/her teachers, it caused problems in that context.

> The GES only considers ranks, but not qualifications in the appointment of headteachers. Where the headteachers have lower qualifications (certificates) than some of their teachers, they lose confidence in themselves. Some of the teachers have higher certificates than their headteachers and, therefore, they do not submit to their headteachers!
>
> (CS-1)

Rural headteachers highlighted some further factors which were uniquely responsible for problems specific to the rural setting. They noted that rural settings lacked decent accommodation and, therefore, teachers commuted to school from urban centres, causing many problems.  One of the rural heads summed up the accommodation problem and its consequences:

> There is a problem of lack of proper accommodation for teachers in some communities within the municipality. Therefore, the teachers

commute to school from nearby towns. This causes lateness, and truancy.

<p style="text-align: right">(RMH-11)</p>

The rural headteachers also believed that an unattractive social environment affected the attitude of some teachers towards their work. They complained that teachers normally applied for further studies or transfer after serving for a few years in those areas as an expression of their reluctance to teach in such communities. When their applications were turned down, they would resort to truancy or lateness and would refuse to comply with their headteacher's instructions.

The data also highlighted issues and concerns relating to management of students, as shown in the following theme.

### iii. Student Management Issues and Concerns

Diverse student management concerns were expressed by the respondents. There was a consensus between the CSs and headteachers that absenteeism and lateness constituted some of the major problems from students. The urban male and female headteachers believed that students absented themselves to engage in petty trading, especially on market days. However, the rural headteachers believed students absented themselves from school in order to engage in farming activities.

Another perspective of the student management problem which emerged from the responses of both the CSs and RMHs, in particular, was low moral standards among both male and female students; this included sexual misconduct, mainly among female students. However, they disagreed about the people with whom female students established such relationships:

whereas the CSs believed that female students established sexual relationships internally (with staff), the headteachers were of the view that it was normally done externally (with some members of the community). Respondent CS-8 believed that 'immorality among school children sometimes results in teenage pregnancy and subsequent drop-out.'

Also, the CSs and headteachers agreed that the general attitude of students towards learning was negative. The headteachers complained about students' academic performance in their schools. For example, one of them remarked that:

> There is a problem of spoken English by the students because they do not make any effort to speak it. Many of them are not able to read fluently, nor are they able to write compositions so well to merit their present level in JSS.
>
> (UMH-4)

Others rather complained about poor academic performance of female students. FH-7 complained:

> The female students do not study hard in school and this reflects in their final examinations. Because of their poor performance some of them find it difficult to secure admissions into SSSs.

The CSs confirmed the view of some headteachers that the female students performed poorly. One of them made the following comment to illustrate his point:

> The young girls nowadays do not work hard and this has negatively
> affected their studies and their performance in the final BECE. Many
> of them do not perform!
>
> <div align="right">(CS-8)</div>

The comments from some of the female headteachers and the CSs suggested that the male students performed better than the female students, which will be debated in the analysis chapter.

According to the headteachers in rural areas, the challenge had been how to generate students' interest in learning and improve BECE results. One of them lamented:

> I encourage my students to study hard, but they fail to adhere to my
> instructions. This tends to impede our effort to achieve high academic
> performance in the BECE examination.
>
> <div align="right">(RMH-5)</div>

However, RMH-2 believed his school performed well in the final examination, but he still strived for improvement. 'My students have been doing well in the BECE exams, but my challenge is how to achieve the highest possible results '(RMH-2).

Some of the CSs and the headteachers complained that any attempts to discipline students for their lateness and absenteeism, immorality and failure to study hard were violently resisted by some parents, as the following examples of comments revealed:

Parents frequently attack headteachers when their wards are made to undergo corporal punishment for their lateness, for their immoral behaviour, for failing to come to school and study hard. They assault us all the time!

(RMH-10)

Some parents turn schools into boxing arenas when headteachers make moves to discipline their wards for their lateness and absenteeism, for failing to study hard and when they establish sexual relationships.

(RMH-3)

The factors causing student management problems are discussed in the next section.

### iv. Student Management Issues and Concerns: Responsible Factors

The student management challenges identified in the previous section have multiple causes. The majority of headteachers blamed the lateness, absenteeism and immorality on the part of students on the ban on corporal punishment in schools following the rigid enforcement of the 'Right of the Child' policy in the country. They believed that the GES was keen on ensuring that headteachers recognised this policy. One headteacher explained in detail the effect of the introduction of the 'Right of the Child' policy on students' behaviour:

Sometime ago, students knew that when they absented themselves from school or came to school late, they would be caned. Female students even feared to walk with men! But now the GES is saying we should stop caning them because of the government's 'Right of the

Child' policy. This has led to indiscipline on the part of most of the students in the form of absenteeism and lateness, teenage pregnancy and subsequent drop-out.

<div align="right">(UHM-28)</div>

CS-7 confirmed this view:

Discipline among students is very weak because the government has introduced the 'Right of the Child' policy which bans headteachers and teachers from inflicting pain on their children in the educational context.

Different views were expressed by respondents on the causes of poor academic performance from students. The majority of headteachers believed that students occupied themselves with other activities at home, instead of their academic work. One of them complained:

Because of the scientific and technological advancement, our children occupy themselves with so many irrelevant activities. Students in the Junior Secondary Schools do not learn at home; they watch videos and play games so when you give them homework, they fail to do it.

<div align="right">(FH-2)</div>

UMH-31 supported this view adding that parents did not support their wards at home:

The students spend few hours in school daily, but instead of continuing their studies at home, they occupy themselves with films

and video games. I expect parents to ensure that their wards study at home, but this does not happen!

The majority of the CSs agreed with the views of the headteachers and expressed serious concerns about parents' failure to encourage their wards to study at home. For instance, CS-4 made the following remarks to put his view across:

> The students spend all their time playing computer games, draft and in watching adult films, but their parents do nothing to stop them or advise them to study. This is hindering their academic progress!

However, some CSs believed the students performed poorly because their parents did not support them materially. The headteachers and CSs who complained about poor academic performance on the part of female students attributed the problem to their parents' failure to encourage and support them because they attached low value to girls' education.

The frequent physical attacks on headteachers and teachers were attributed to a communication breakdown between parents and school. Some respondents highlighted this communication gap between parents and teachers/ headteachers, stating that sometimes students sent misguided information to their parents on why they were disciplined, causing enmity between them and the school.

> Most of the parents do not attend PTA meetings to find out why disciplinary actions are taken against their wards; they depend on the wrong information sent to them by their wards. This leads to

misunderstandings and conflicts between them and we the headteachers and our staff.

<div align="right">(UHM-33)</div>

CS-6 confirmed this view:

> The parents and the headteachers fight each other because the former neither attend meetings nor visit the school to ask about their children's behaviour and why they are disciplined. The parents always misinterpret what their wards tell them about the headteachers and teachers. This lack of communication increases problems in managing students.

In addition to highlighting teacher and student management problems, the data indicated that the headteachers performed multiple and complex roles and responsibilities, as discussed next.

**v. Complexity of Headteachers' Role and Contextual Factors**

Another problem encountered by the headteachers was related to the complexity of their roles and responsibilities. The data showed that some of the headteachers in that municipality were also classroom teachers, making their work-load too cumbersome. For instance, UMH-5 indicated that:

> The government has mandated some of us to work as classroom teachers and administrators at the same time because our schools are single stream. This role is too difficult for us! Why should we be asked to do that? ...

RMH-9 added:

I teach for many hours each school day and administer the school at the same time. My work is extremely difficult!

The problem of combining both teaching and administrative roles was more prevalent in the responses of urban headteachers than their counterparts in rural settings. Such headteachers explained what their dual role entailed to highlight its complexity:

We perform school management duties by supervising the work of teachers and students, attend meetings and workshops, and liaise with the community and prepare lesson notes for our teaching role.

(RMH-3)

….we the heads of single-stream schools teach, mark exercises and perform administrative roles. We perform these numerous and difficult roles every day.

(UMH-5)

The rural headteachers who combined teaching and administrative roles believed that their roles were even more difficult because they always had to travel to the municipal capital to attend meetings or meet the education officers to discuss issues with them.

The data also indicated that other headteachers were mandated to administer/manage more than one school simultaneously. For example, FH-9 indicated that:

Interestingly, I have been asked to manage a kindergarten, a primary school, and the JSS in my locality. They consider those of us who manage many schools as double-stream headteachers.

The responses of some CSs confirmed this view. CS-4, in particular, summarised the two kinds of views expressed by the headteachers on their roles and responsibilities:

The teachers in my Circuit are heavily burdened. Some of them play dual roles - they teach and manage at the same time, while others are heads of more than one school in the clusters.

The headteachers who administered/managed many schools simultaneously also explained what their role entailed to draw attention to its complexity. UMH-12, for example, explained:

When I wake up, I think about how to meet the needs of the JSS teachers, primary school teachers, and the teachers at the kindergarten. Apart from that I meet the needs of the students in those phases of schools and look at how I can encourage their parents to support them. At the same time I attend meetings and workshops. My responsibilities are numerous!

CS-4 agreed with the headteachers, explaining that:

Leading schools in different phases requires those headteachers to consistently attend meetings, meet parents, and coordinate the activities of many teachers of different school phase at the same time. This makes their role extremely difficult.

Thus, the data suggested that two forms of headship existed in the context of this study: some of the headteachers combined teaching and administrative/ managerial roles and led single-stream schools, while others confined themselves to administrative/managerial functions and led double-stream schools which encompassed a kindergarten, a primary and JSS in the same catchment area. Both forms of headship were associated with multiple and complex roles and responsibilities.

Because of the complex nature of the headship role, the majority of headteachers complained about the inadequate responsibility allowance. The single-stream headteachers indicated that they received an allowance of 10,000 cedis per month (about 60p), while the double-stream headteachers noted that they received 20,000 cedis per month (£1.20p) as their responsibility allowance. According to the headteachers, the paucity of their responsibility allowance affected their motivation to work. For example, RMH-2 remarked that 'our responsibility allowances are too meagre, and they do not even pay them on time. It must be reviewed if they want us to work harder.' Thus complex and multiple roles and responsibilities emerged as a complex issue affecting performance and motivation. Lack of funding and resources further added to these challenges, as discussed next.

**vi. Paucity of Financial and Material Resources and Underlying Causes**
The majority of respondents (both headteachers and CSs) believed that one of the challenges facing headteachers was a lack of funds for school development. They noted that the government of Ghana had abolished collection of school fees, which was the major source of income for schools, because of the introduction of the 'capitation grant' and the implementation of the FCUBE initiative in the country, yet the grant was inadequate. The

respondents attributed the problem of inadequate school funding to the general economic stagnation experienced in the country, which had led to the government's inadequate budgetary allocations to the education sector. On the other hand, a few of them believed the government did not consider education a priority.

The data indicated that since schools were poorly funded, headteachers were compelled to depend on parents for additional funding by asking them to pay examination and registration fees for their wards. However, there were some comments from both headteachers (male and female) and CSs, indicating that whereas some parents found it difficult to pay the fees, most of them were reluctant to do so, making it difficult for the headteachers to raise the needed funds. Those respondents attributed the parents' unwillingness to support their wards financially to their misconception about the objective of the capitation grant given by the government to schools - most parents believed that the capitation grant covered all that their children would need in school.

> The grant given by the government is inadequate and since parents are aware of such money, they are unwilling to contribute in support of their children's education. They are saying the government has paid everything for them.
>
> (FH-6)

One of the CSs confirmed the views of the headteachers:

> Parents have misconstrued the 'capitation grant' for everything of the child. They even insist the grant is also for pens, pencils, uniforms, etc and fail to provide them (CS-7).

The respondents, especially in the urban centres complained that student enrolment had increased because of this misconception about the objective of the grant. They were of the view that parents who had previously denied their children access to education because of financial reasons had enrolled them since the introduction of the capitation grant, putting pressure on schools' existing infrastructural facilities. Lack of physical resources for the number of students was a serious problem:

> Most parents think the government has paid for their wards' education so they are sending them to school. My concerns these days are the number of students in the classrooms, but there are inadequate classrooms for some of the students.

(FH-6

> Enrolment has increased these days because of the capitation grant. However, the funds received cannot cater for all that is needed to promote effective teaching, especially conducive classrooms.

(UMH-9)

Some of the CSs agreed with the view of the headteachers. For example, CS-6 noted that 'students' enrolment in most of the schools, especially in the urban centres is more than what they (the schools) can accommodate.'

In addition to the problems caused by an increase in enrolment, both the headteachers and CSs pointed out multiple barriers to teaching and learning. Firstly, they complained about late supply of teachers' lesson notebooks and registers. The problem was blamed on the practice of centralising the distribution of such materials – the materials were distributed from the GES headquarters in Accra to schools in all parts of the country.

Secondly, the respondents complained about lack of funds to maintain the existing infrastructure. The problem of dilapidated infrastructural facilities was raised mostly by the rural headteachers. Some respondents attributed the problems with teaching and learning materials, and school infrastructure to the effect of the government's inability to allocation adequate funds for education. Other issues highlighted were related to the training and development of aspiring and in-service headteachers at different stages of their professional career.

**Part Three: Professional Development Needs and Provisions**

As already noted, issues regarding professional development of headteachers came out of the data. The issues are presented under the following themes:

- Pre-headship Training;
- Selection/Appointment of JSS Headteachers;
- Induction of JSS Headteachers;
- Weaknesses of Existing INSET Programmes; and
- INSET Strategies and Headship Competences.

**i. Pre- headship Training**

All the participants emphasised the need for training before appointment by ticking 'yes' to the relevant question. According to the respondents, pre-headship training was important for the improvement of the headteachers' competences for addressing problems.

> The absence of pre-service training makes many headteachers struggle, especially when they assume office. Such training will provide them with the competences required for the position. Because

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of the absence of pre-service training, new headteachers lose confidence in themselves, leading to frustration.

(UMH-7)

If the aspiring headteachers will be able to perform their tasks competently and confidently, the importance of pre-service training cannot be underestimated. They need to be equipped with the relevant competences through pre-service training programmes. Headteachers' work becomes more difficult in the initial stages because of the absence of such programmes.

(RMH-3)

The responses of the majority of CSs confirmed the view of the respondent headteachers and further suggested that such programmes will expose the aspiring headteachers to their roles.

The aspiring headteachers do not possess the competences needed for such role so pre-headship training is very important for them. Also, most of them do not know what the headship position entails, especially in the early stages of their career and this is making their work very difficult. It is surprising to see and hear that some of their teachers do their work for them when they are appointed as headteachers!

(CS-6)

The quotations above suggested that the absence of PRESET opportunities for headteachers to acquire relevant knowledge, skills and competences affected the effectiveness of their roles, particularly in the early headship period.

The respondents indicated the skills and competences which should be provided through any potential pre-service programmes for the aspiring headteacher. The data from differently positioned respondents showed commonalities and differences in the skills and competences required by aspiring headteachers. In the diagram below (Fig 2), the area labelled 'A' shows the common competences the respondents (UMHs, RMHs, FHs and CSs) believed the aspiring headteachers required; 'B' shows the competences mentioned specifically by the CSs; 'C' the competences noted by UMHs/FHs, while 'D' the competences indicated by RMHs.

C (UMHs/FHs only)

B (CSs only)

D (RMHs only)

| C (UMHs/FHs only) |
| --- |
| • Conflict management<br>• Communicative skills<br>• Supervising and appraising teachers |

| B (CSs only) |
| --- |
| • Managing students<br>• Guidance and counselling<br>• Motivating teachers |

| D (RMHs only) |
| --- |
| • Develop effective headship qualities<br>• Maintenance of discipline<br>• Planning time-table |

A

| |
| --- |
| • Financial management<br>• Record keeping<br>• School-community relationship<br>• Time management<br>• Dealing with students' misbehaviour<br>• Creating positive school culture<br>• Carry out roles and responsibilities effectively<br>• Dealing with teachers from various backgrounds<br>• Promoting team work<br>• Exercising power meaningfully<br>• Developing teacher leadership<br>• Use diverse leadership styles<br>• Decision making skills<br>• Prepare school performance improvement plan |

A

Headteachers and CSs

Fig 2: Common and specific skills and competences that pre-service training programme/s should provide for aspiring JSS headteachers.

The diagram (Fig 2) shows that there is extensive agreement on skills and competences required for aspiring JSS headteachers. However, there were some areas of disagreement among the CSs, PUMHs/FHs, and RMHs. This might be attributed to differences in positions (CSs and PHTs) and contexts in which they operated (urban and rural areas). The diagram indicates that

priority was given to financial management skills followed by a list of multiple skills. Financial skills were also identified for practising headteachers (Figs 4 &5, pp.127 & 149). In the Ghanaian educational context, headteachers at the basic level are required to manage finance – they prepare budgets for capitation grants, and collect and manage printing and registration fees (p.107) on behalf of the stakeholders such us  the PTAs, SMCs, and district assemblies; the headteachers are, in a sense,  accountants or business managers in that context. This role is very important and, yet, very challenging for the headteachers, as admitted by PFH-1(pp.161-162). This might be attributed to the fact that little emphasis is laid on financial management in teacher training programmes in that setting. Because managing finance is a key aspect of the role performed by a Ghanaian headteacher, the respondents thought that headteachers, particularly the aspiring ones, needed to be prepared for it.

However there were certain skills which were emphasised by urban heads only. The diagram (Fig 2) shows that conflict management skills were identified only by the UMHs/FHs for both aspiring and practising headteachers (Fig 5, p.149). The UMHs/FHs expressed dissatisfaction about the rebellious attitude of teachers who went through the SSS system (Fig 1, p.92). Interestingly, the RMHs also raised concerns about attacks by parents (pp.99-100 & 140), which could also require conflict management skills, and one would expect both the urban and rural headteachers to mention 'conflict management skills' since it emerged as one of the major problems in both contexts. However, these skills were highlighted only by the UMHs/FHs. It appeared that the urban headteachers mentioned conflict management skills because of the rebellion aspiring headteachers might encounter in managing teachers with SSS background (Fig 1, p. 92). With the majority of the newly-trained teachers being SSSs graduates, this particular problem might be

more prevalent and, therefore, aspiring headteachers needed to be prepared to deal with it. The RMHs were silent on those skills - it appeared that managing conflict would not be the priority of aspiring headteachers in that setting, since they might be pre-occupied with other serious challenges or understood conflict management differently in that rural context.

Moreover, the diagram shows that all the respondents believed aspiring headteachers needed to be equipped with skills and competences to carry out their roles and responsibilities as headteachers more effectively. As suggested by some CSs (pp.109-110), headteachers found it difficult to perform their roles at the initial stages of their headship career, because they did not undergo any headship training. The interview data also suggested that informal induction was an opportunity for CSs to expose headteachers to their roles and responsibilities. Because of the challenges headteachers encountered in carrying out their roles and responsibilities, it appeared that the respondents wanted any potential training for aspiring headteachers to prepare them to overcome early headship challenges. Understanding headteachers' roles and responsibilities was particularly important to those aspiring headteachers who might be posted direct from the TTCs to the rural settings. Since they were often inexperienced, NQTs with little knowledge about what headship entails, it was important to expose them to their roles and responsibilities and equip them with the skills and competences to carry them out effectively. Their level of experience appeared to underlie the suggestion by the RMHs that training should equip aspiring headteachers with skills to identify the characteristics of an effective headteacher.

The respondent headteachers also highlighted the way they were selected / appointed for their positions and, together with the CSs, suggested strategies for selecting/appointing aspiring headteachers.

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**ii. Selection/Appointment of JSS Headteachers**

The demographic data revealed that headteachers were appointed through a variety of procedures.

- Some respondent headteachers were appointed through recommendations by CSs to the DoE of the municipality for approval (in the case of rural headteachers), or recommendations by the regional manager to the DoE (in the case of urban headteachers).
- University graduates or diploma holders were directly appointed as headteachers, especially in the urban centres, using their qualification/s as the main basis for appointment. Those headteachers used phrases like 'on merit'; 'my qualification', 'direct appointment after completing university' to describe the procedures for appointing them. Also, the data showed that some of the newly-qualified TTC graduates had been appointed directly as headteachers in the rural areas.
- Some of the headteachers, who formed a majority, were appointed through long service or experience. According to those headteachers, they were appointed directly by the DoE in the municipality. They were Certificate 'A' holders who had attained an Assistant Director status in the GES.
- Other headteachers, especially in the urban centres, indicated that after a long period of service, they applied for the headship positions and attended interviews before their appointment.

The data revealed that most headteachers who had served for more than 10 years had applied for headships, and attended interviews before they were appointed to such positions. However, some female headteachers noted that they were appointed through upgrading courses and long service. This

might be the period of implementation of an 'Affirmative Action' policy in Ghana, when women were encouraged to aspire to leadership positions. The headteachers with less than 10 Years of Service (YoS), on the other hand, were appointed through either recommendation or direct appointment by the DoE in the municipality. Generally, the bases of the appointments of those headteachers were qualification/s, long service, or high sense of duty.

The data suggested that PRESET programmes were not considered as the only prerequisite for headship positions; all the respondents indicated that aspiring headteachers should also possess some academic and professional qualifications, and teaching experience, as well as some professional and personal attributes. It appeared that participants' responses in relation to academic and professional qualifications were influenced by their academic backgrounds. This was because certain comments made jointly by degree and diploma holders were not found in the responses of Certificate 'A' holders. The majority of respondents (all of them degree and diploma holders) noted that 'high professional and academic qualification' was required for headship positions. Some of them specifically indicated that aspiring headteachers must possess a qualification above Certificate 'A'. They used expressions such as 'must hold diploma qualification' (UMH-33), and 'should have at least a degree' (UMH-12), while expressions such as 'academically sound' (RMH-14), 'aspiring to higher academic levels' (UMH-20), and 'professionally trained' (UMH-36) were common in the responses of Certificate 'A' holders. The expressions used by Certificate 'A' holders seemed to imply that they were opposed to the criteria suggested by the degree and diploma holders, since those criteria would disadvantage all aspiring headteachers with Certificate 'A' qualification. Their expressions meant that one should not necessarily have a higher academic and

professional qualification in order to become a headteacher; anyone who was 'academically sound', for example, could become a headteacher.

Although the degree and diploma holders disagreed with the Certificate 'A' holders on the academic level of aspiring headteachers, they agreed that they should occupy higher ranks in the GES and have long teaching experience. For instance, RMH-14, a Certificate 'A' holder, who mentioned 'academic soundness' added that '….teachers with headship aspiration should at least be within the ranks of Principal Superintendent and Assistant Directorship.' FH-7, a degree holder, also added to her comments: '….he/she should have served for at least 10 years and must be above Principal Superintendent ranks of GES.' These suggestions implied that a 'good' academic background without experience was inadequate for those aspiring to headship positions.

There were similarities and differences between the responses of the degree and diploma holders (both CSs and headteachers), and the Certificate 'A' holders (both CSs and headteachers) with regard to the professional and personal qualities required by teachers with headship aspiration, as the diagram below (Fig. 3) demonstrates. In the diagram, the professional and personal qualities noted by the respondents irrespective of their qualification/s are indicated in the centre. Those listed on the right (adjacent to the centre) are those mentioned by the Certificate 'A' holders only (both headteachers and CSs), while those left to the centre are the specific professional and personal qualities noted by the degree and diploma holders (CSs and headteachers). The similarities and differences suggested that 'recruiters' of headteachers needed to consider candidates possessing a variety of professional and personal qualities.

**Professional qualities**

| **D** |
|---|
| **E** |
| **G** |
| **R** |
| **E** |
| **E** |

- Good work   ethics
- Staff development skills
- High sense of responsibility
- Self - confidence
- Good communicative skills
- Encourage team spirit
- Work with people with varied characteristics

**Professional qualities**

- Punctuality
- Problem - solver
- Democratic
- Good sense of judgement

Common professional qualities

- Experience in teaching
- Good human relationships
- Sense of vision
- Fair and firm

- Good moral standard
- Tolerant
- Trustworthy

Common personal qualities

- Command respect
- Emotionally stable
- Peaceful and prudent

- Honest
- Humble
- Mentally and physically sound

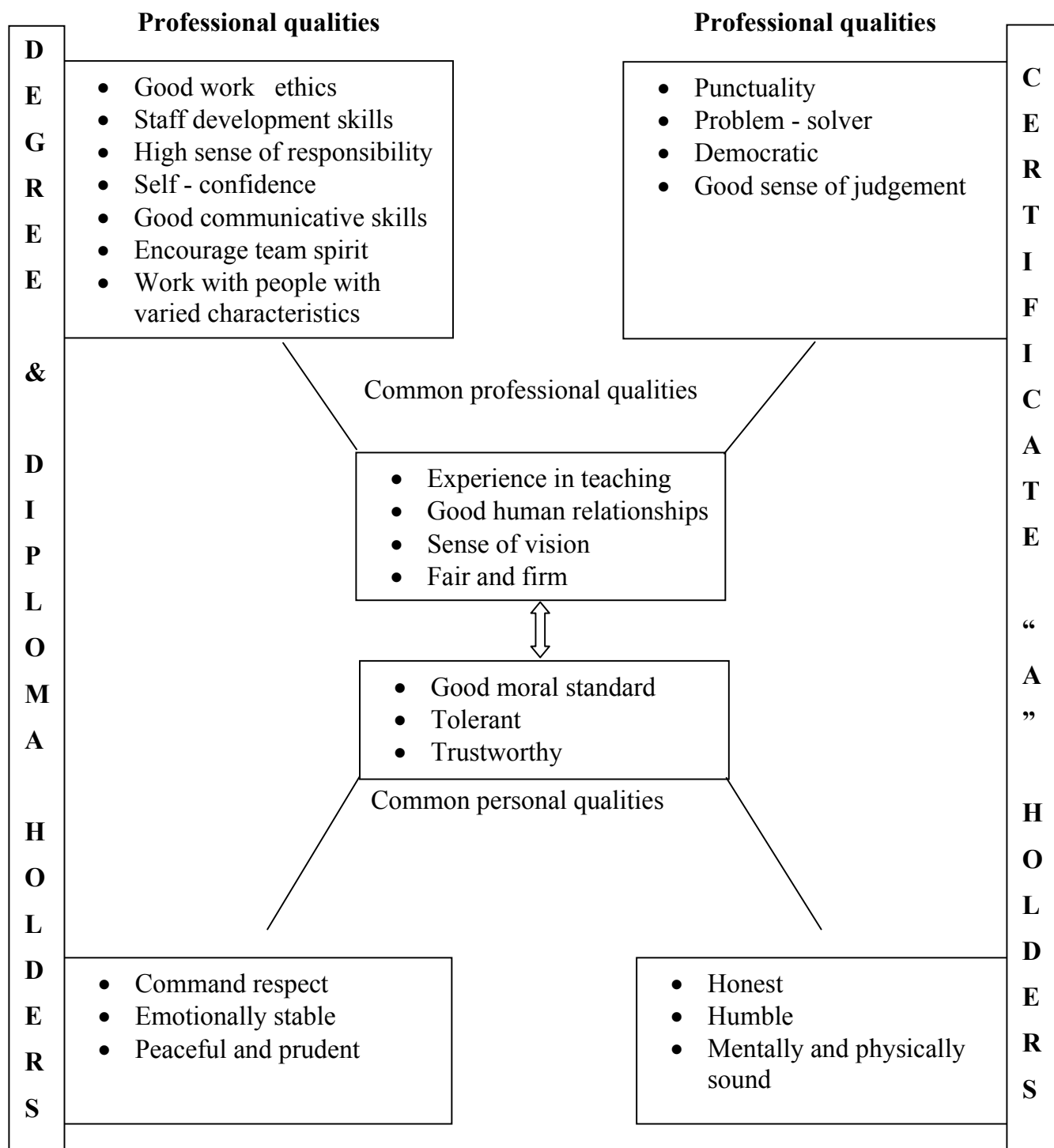**Personal Qualities**                              **Personal Qualities**

Fig 3: Professional and personal qualities required by aspiring JSS headteachers

The diagram (Fig 3) points out that the degree and diploma holders expressed a wide range of leadership qualities needed for headship, including having the ability and confidence to help teachers (staff development) and showing a clear sense of direction (good work ethics – able to promote team working and show flexibility in person management). It appeared that because of their education and higher status, they were more confident about leadership issues and articulated the characteristics of aspiring headteachers more clearly than the Certificate 'A' holders (those with lower academic and professional qualifications).

Moreover, less difference was shown in the identification of personal qualities of aspiring headteachers. Nevertheless, there still appeared a characteristic (command respect) which directly involved other colleagues. The Certificate 'A' holders referred to positive qualities which conveyed slightly passive notions overall, without referencing others. The degree/diploma holders seemed to be slightly more 'confident' in their outlook; this might simply come from the fact that they had already achieved something, which was explicitly prized in the culture at large, as well as in the field of education (academic status).

The diagram above also shows that all the respondents emphasised multiple qualities (including a 'sense of vision') that aspiring headteachers needed to possess. This quality, sense of vision or 'visioning', was reinforced by the CSs, when identifying competences for practising headteachers (Fig 4. p.127). A 'sense of vision' is one of the attributes of strategic leaders – such leaders think about the future destination of their organizations; articulate their vision to their followers and work with them to accomplish the vision. This implies that strategic leaders have greater control over organisational policy. However, in the Ghanaian educational context, headteachers have

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limited influence over policy issues. Therefore, it was intriguing that the respondents suggested that aspiring headteachers must have a 'sense of vision'. Perhaps this headship quality was mentioned because of the newly-mandated role of headteachers in the Ghana educational context, which involves preparation of 'School Performance Improvement Plan', usually on a yearly or short-term basis. This responsibility requires them to think about where they are taking the school in each academic year (visioning) and initiate ideas for the fulfilment of that 'vision'. Thus, it appears that a 'sense of vision' as an attribute of a headteacher, to some extent, has a different meaning in the Ghanaian educational context.

The diagram also shows the Certificate 'A' holders believed aspiring headteachers needed to have a 'good sense of judgement' (i.e., ability to make rational and reflexive decisions/judgments). In the Ghanaian educational context, headteachers are required to make judgements in cases involving members of staff and students, in addition to making other rational and reflexive decisions/judgments. In carrying out this role, they are required to demonstrate maturity in judgement. It seemed that because this role is very significant in that context, the Certificate 'A' holders believed that aspiring headteachers should demonstrate the quality needed to perform it effectively. The degree and diploma holders, however, appeared to consider 'good sense of judgement' as less important.

In most countries, selection/appointment of headteachers is often followed by their induction to expose them to the nature of their roles, among other issues. The next section highlights the respondents' views on the relevance of induction for NAHs in the context of this particular study.

### iii. Induction of JSS Headteachers

Another aspect of headship preparation which emerged from the questionnaire data was the induction of NAHs. All the respondents considered such an activity necessary by responding 'yes' to the relevant question. The headteachers believed that inducting the NAHs would facilitate their transition from teaching roles into headship position. For example, RMH-3 emphasised this view, citing her personal example: 'inducting new headteachers will help them to avoid early headship challenges. Since I did not attend any induction programme, I could not avoid problems in the early stages of my career.' UMH-5 also noted that ″induction is necessary for beginning headteachers, if they would be able to deal with the early headship challenges.' This view was supported by some of the CSs.

> Since there are no formal induction programmes for the heads, many of them cannot avoid problems in the early stages of their career. There is the need to develop induction programmes to support the beginning headteachers in particular.
>
> (CS-5)

The comments made by both the respondent headteachers and CSs suggested that beginning headteachers would encounter problems without developing induction programmes for them.

The respondent headteachers also noted that inducting NAHs was particularly important because of the absence of formal pre-service programmes for headteachers in general. They viewed such activity as another training opportunity.

Since headteachers are not trained before their appointment, induction programmes are necessary to expose new headteachers to their roles and responsibilities, making them work confidently.

(UMH-24)

This view was also highlighted by some of the CSs. For instance, CS-4 expressed his view as follows:

In the absence of training programmes for teachers with headship aspirations, the importance of induction for those teachers cannot be underestimated - it would equip them with the skills and competences required for dealing with the early headship challenges.

Thus, the respondents considered the induction of NAHs relevant because it would serve as an avenue to equip them with the knowledge and competences required for addressing the early headship challenges.

The existing INSET programmes for headteachers were also mentioned and their weaknesses were pointed out, while suggestions were made about strategies for training practising headteachers, as well as the competences they might require to carry out their roles and responsibilities effectively.

## iv. Weaknesses of Existing INSET Programmes

All the respondents indicated that the INSET programmes organised for headteachers in the municipality had many limitations. The majority of headteachers and CSs indicated that the programmes were often ill-timed because they took place during teaching time. This situation, according to the respondents, made the headteachers who had teaching responsibilities lose many contact hours. Therefore, such headteachers had to make time to

cover the hours lost. The respondents indicated that the programmes should be held when schools were on vacation. Some headteachers further complained that the programmes were organised at short notice and they were therefore always ill-prepared for them.

The headteachers indicated that the resource persons used for the INSET programmes were incompetent. Some of the comments concerning resource persons were: 'lack of good and knowledgeable resource persons' (UMH-12), 'poor handling of activities by the resource persons' (RMH-13), and 'resource persons are inadequate and ineffective' (FH-9). Unlike the headteachers, the CSs did not highlight any weakness on the part of the resource persons, but rather indicated that they were not available. For example, CS-5 noted that 'it is extremely difficult to get resource persons to handle pertinent issues relevant to the headteachers.' Similarly, the CS-3 remarked that 'resource persons who have the expertise to deal with the issues raised are not readily available'.

Another weakness of the INSET programmes highlighted by the headteachers and CSs was regarding the methods employed by the resource persons for delivering the programmes in the municipality. Generally, three methods – lecturing and discovery methods, and seminars – appeared in their responses. However, the majority of them believed that the lecture method was the most dominant, yet they considered this method inappropriate, because it did not allow them to participate in the programmes – it made them passive recipients of knowledge. CS-3 agreed with this view, commenting that 'the lecture method is too isolated because the headteachers only sit there to listen to the resource persons' (CS-3). However, some headteachers and CSs believed this method was appropriate because resources were unavailable to facilitate activity-oriented

approaches. The respondents who mentioned seminars and discovery approaches were of the view that such approaches were suitable for INSET delivery since they encouraged trainer-trainee and participant-participant interaction.

A majority of the respondent headteachers and CSs believed that the INSET programmes were poorly attended. The majority of them blamed this problem on diverse factors: inappropriate course content, low travelling allowances, and poor refreshments. For example, UMH-13 noted that:

> Headteachers are not given any incentives or transport and travelling allowances. Apart from that, we are not well-fed. These lead to lack of interest in the whole programme.

Other headteachers, however, stated that some headteachers believed that they were more knowledgeable than the resource persons (trainers) who were normally the CSs in the municipality, making it unnecessary for them to attend the programmes.

The participants also suggested strategies for organising INSET programmes and competences needed by headteachers for effective performance of their roles, which are discussed below.

**v. INSET Strategies and Headship Competences**

Strategies for organising INSETs appeared in the responses of the headteachers and CSs. The respondent headteachers raised the need for the training providers to conduct 'needs assessments' prior to the programmes, suggesting:

In-service must be held after compiling information on the type of in-service training the headteachers wanted.

<div align="right">(RMH-8)</div>

The personal and administrative problems identified by headteachers should be taken into consideration in INSETs.

<div align="right">(UMH-16)</div>

CS-9 supported the headteachers' view:

Before the INSET programmes are organised, there is the need to determine the type of training the headteachers need for effective performance.

The rationale was that assessing the training needs of the participants prior to the programmes would make the programmes more useful to them.

Moreover, some of the headteachers emphasised that INSET programmes should be Circuit-based. The rationale of this approach was to enable the needs of the participants to be effectively met and to avoid some associated problems.

The programmes should be Circuit-based so that the training providers will be able to respond to questions more effectively and manage the group of participants.

<div align="right">(UMH-17)</div>

Our needs are different from our colleagues in the urban centres. Therefore, we must be separated from them during INSET

<div align="center">125</div>

programmes. Also, we come to the programmes very late so if the authorities could organise the programmes on Circuit basis, that problem will be avoided.

<div align="right">(RMH-7)</div>

Some of the female headteachers also suggested Circuit-based INSET, but no reason was assigned to that. Contrary to the suggestions of the headteachers, the CSs argued for cluster-based INSET. CS-4 commented that 'the in-service training should be done at cluster levels so that problems that are related to particular schools could be addressed.' The rationale for this approach was, to an extent, similar to those of the need Circuit-based strategy proposed by the respondents – to identify context-specific problems and address them adequately.

The skills and competences which practising headteachers require for effective performance of their roles, and which must be developed through INSET were identified. In the diagram below, the area labelled 'A' signals the skills and competences identified by all respondents; area labelled 'B' skills and competences identified by UMHs/FHs; 'C' skills and competences noted by CSs; and 'D' skills and competences indicated RMHs.

A (Headteachers and CSs)

- Record keeping
- School-community relationship
- Financial management
- Instructional supervision
- Managing human resources
- Preparing and vetting lesson notes
- Conflict management and resolution
- Staff development
- Promoting accountability
- Managing instructional time
- Promoting discipline
- Organising meetings

Decision-making skills;
Effective listening;
To be proactive

Visioning;
Effective communication;
Delegate duties;
Use and vary leadership styles;
Transparency;
Promote teamwork.

Skills for preparing teaching/learning materials;
Managing limited material resources;
Setting targets for teachers;
Fair and firm in dealing with teachers

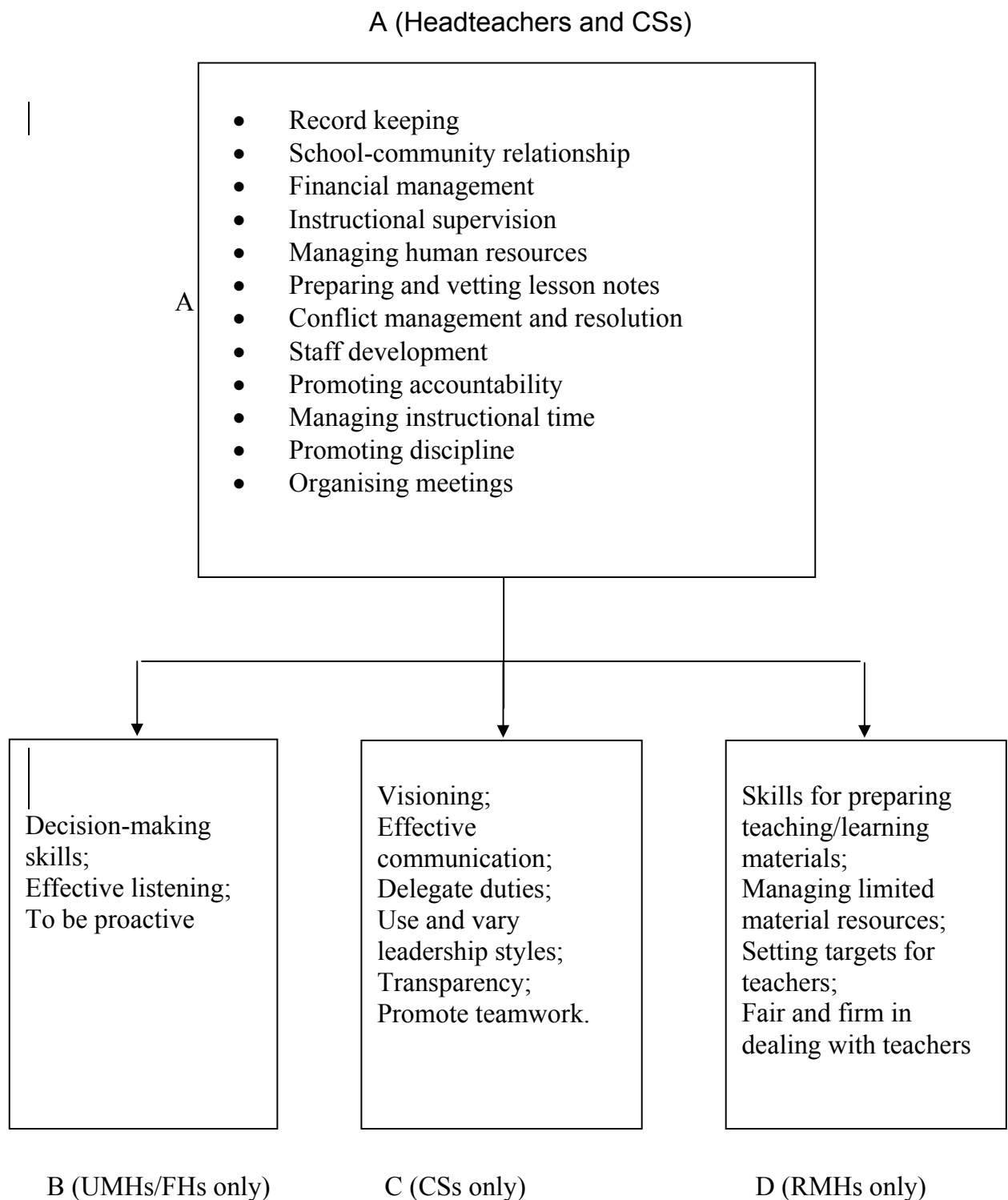B (UMHs/FHs only)          C (CSs only)          D (RMHs only)

Fig 4: The skills and competences required by the practising JSS headteachers for effective task performance.

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In spite of a wide consensus regarding skills and competences required by the practising JSS headteachers for effective task performance, the data (Fig 4) shows some differences identified by the UMHs/FHs and RMHs. This could be attributed to differences in the contextual challenges faced by the headteachers. For example, in Fig 1 (B) (p.92), the RMHs particularly expressed concerns about teachers, including 'coming to school late but signing correct time'; 'anxiousness on their part to further their studies'; 'indiscriminate transfer of teachers'; and late replacement of transferred teachers, while the UMHs/FHs expressed concerns about teacher management, including the rebellious attitudes of some teachers. Since the RMHs encountered some unique challenges, the skills and competences they required to address those problems might differ from those of the UMHs/FHs. It appeared that the RMHs were constrained by their context-specific situation to identify some unique skills and competences required by practising headteachers for effective performance of their roles - they needed specific skills and competences such as 'managing limited material resources' and 'fair and firm in dealing with teachers' to address the unique challenges they were faced with. The urban headteachers, on the other hand, seemed to be less concerned about the issues raised by the RMHs. This supports the argument put forward by both the respondents and interviewees for the need to differentiate INSET programmes organised for practising headteachers in that context (pp.125-126 &176-177).

One of the skills and competences that emerged from the RMHs' responses was target setting for teachers. Target setting, like visioning, requires high-level strategic thinking and, therefore, it was intriguing that they identified that skill, considering the educational and professional background of most of those headteachers. This particular skill and competence appeared to have arisen from some of the context specific situations. For example, in Fig

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1 (p.92), the RMHs complained that 'teachers came to school late but signed correct time'. It seemed, therefore, that setting targets for teachers would help the headteachers to monitor their activities/behaviour. Also, to deal with the misbehaviour of teachers, for example, headteachers needed to be 'fair and firm' with them.

Moreover, the diagrams above (Fig 4) and Fig 5 (p.149) show that whereas the UMHs identified 'effective listening' as the skill and competence required by practising headteachers to function effectively, the CSs believed that headteachers needed to be equipped with skills to communicate effectively. It could be argued that effective listening is an aspect of effective communication and, therefore, it appeared that the urban headteachers believed they possessed other aspects of communicative skills - except listening effectively. On page 149, the skill of 'effective listening' was reinforced by the headteachers. The CSs, however, believed that the headteachers needed to be equipped with broad communicative skills to function effectively. It appeared that both the headteachers and the CSs were projecting their image of effective headship.

**Summary**
This chapter has presented the findings of the questionnaires administered to both the CSs and headteachers. The major themes that emerged from the questionnaire data relate to 'staff and student management issues', 'complexity of headteachers' role', 'financial and material resources issues', 'pre-headship training', and 'selection/appointment', including issues concerning 'induction of headteachers', and 'INSET programmes.' The development of the interview schedule was based on, and informed by these themes. The data collected through interviewing is presented in the next chapter.

# Chapter 5:  Presentation of Interview Findings

## Introduction

Chapter four was concerned with the presentation of the semi-structured questionnaire findings. A massive amount of data was gathered through the interviews on the issues and concerns for the headteachers in the setting of the study, the factors responsible for such problems, as well as the professional development needs and opportunities for aspiring and practising JSS headteachers.  At this stage of the analysis, some of the themes in the questionnaire data were refined based on the field-work data. Moreover, some new themes emerged, but they were linked to the research questions. The interview findings are divided into two parts. Part one contains the issues and concerns for headteachers and the factors responsible for them, while part two covers their professional development needs and provisions.

## Part One: Issues and Concerns for Headteachers and Responsible Factors

As already noted, the data highlighted several issues and concerns for headteachers and their causes. These are presented under the following themes:

- Teacher Management Issues and Concerns;
- Teacher Management Issues and Concerns: Causes;
- Student Management Issues and Concerns;
- Student Management Issues and Concerns: Influencing Factors;
- Material Resource Acquisition Issues and Underlying Causes;
- Addressing Headship Challenges: Competences Required;
- Educational Decision Making and Contextual Factors; and

- Complexity of Headteachers' Role and Contextual Factors.

## i. Teacher Management Issues and Concerns

The responses of the interviewees emphasised that the headteachers in the context of this study encountered problems relating to management of teachers. The majority of the headteachers interviewed said that headteachers found it particularly difficult to win the cooperation of the teaching staff in the early stages of their professional career. Some of them highlighted this problem when citing personal experience:

> We, headteachers, face many unique challenges in the early stages of our career. I encountered some challenges when I was appointed as the head of this school. Some of the teachers who had been here for many years did not cooperate with me - they undermined my authority.
>
> (Participant Urban Male Headteacher (PUMH) -6)

> The greatest challenge of every new headteacher has been how to control their staff. I had problems with most of the teachers in my school when I was appointed. Most of the teachers did not want to accept me as their leader - in fact, I faced fierce resistance from them.
>
> (Participant Female Headteacher (PFH) -2)

Some of the responses of the Participant Circuit Supervisors (PCSs) supported the headteachers' concern. For example, Participant Circuit Supervisor (PCS-6) said that:

> One major challenge for headteachers when they are appointed is how to win the cooperation of their staff. In fact, they find the early

stage of their career very tough because of resistance from their teachers.

Some of the Participant Female Headteachers (PFHs) rather complained about lack of commitment on the part of their teachers, resulting in lateness and absenteeism. PFH-4, one of those headteachers, remarked:

> My teachers are not committed to their work. For example, teachers have to arrive here before 8: 00 AM, but most of them get here around 8: 30 AM. Some of them do not come to work at all! This brought a quarrel between me and some of them.
>
> (PFH-4)

Another dimension of the teacher management problem faced by headteachers was related to supervision. Both the Participant Headteachers (PHTs) and the PCSs described the supervisory role of headteachers as involving checking teacher attendance, monitoring their classroom activities, and offering professional support to them. The majority of headteachers, most of whom were in rural areas, added that their teacher supervisory role was ineffective.

> …….Let me concede this! The way I supervise my teachers is ineffective. I need to work hard to improve upon it.
>
> (Participant Rural Male Headteacher (PRMH) -5)

> …..I have to be honest with myself. My teachers are not working hard so I cannot say I supervise them effectively.
>
> (PRMH-2)

The PCSs confirmed the headteachers' view on their supervisory role. PCS-2 commented that:

....I think the way the headteachers supervise their staff is ineffective. They need to improve upon it. At the moment they find it difficult to control their staff and monitor their performance.

On the other hand, a few of the headteachers highlighted their supervisory role, emphasising that it was effective. PUMH-4, for example, said that:

I am here to ensure that my staff work well. I go round to monitor teaching and learning, check teachers' attendance and interact with students. I will say that the way I supervise my staff is very effective.

PUMH-1 also added:

My teachers are working very hard because I support them, interact with them and monitor them. This school always get a very good BECE results and it is an indication that my supervisory role is effective. I monitor the teachers very well.

All the headteachers who saw their supervisory role as effective were in the urban centres and held higher academic qualifications. However, there was no evidence in the data suggesting that location and higher academic qualification led to effective supervisory role.

Thus, the teacher management issues encountered by headteachers were related to teachers' uncooperative attitude; their lateness and absenteeism;

and ineffective teacher supervision. The interviewees attributed these challenges to many factors, which are presented in the next section.

## ii. Teacher Management Issues and Concerns: Causes

The majority of headteachers attributed the problem relating to teachers' uncooperative attitude to the practice of appointing teachers as headteachers from their own professional contexts – their own schools. Some of them cited their personal examples to substantiate their views. PFH-3, a Certificate 'A' headteacher, as an example, said:

> We find it difficult to win the cooperation of our staff because most of us are normally appointed from our own schools. In my case, because I worked with them as a teacher for a long time, they found it difficult to accept my instructions. The diploma-holders on my staff are those giving me problems!

PUMH-5 also remarked:

> I will say most of us emerge as leaders from our own schools. You see, I was made a head from the school where I was teaching. This happened when the substantive head was transferred. Under this circumstance, the teachers with whom I was working were not satisfied with the fact that I have been elevated. Therefore, they found it difficult to take my instructions. They thought we were equal so it was very difficult for them to work under me. But I will say I have been successful since I am still the head.

Some of the PCSs confirmed this view, adding that the headteachers maintained unprofessional relationships with their staff after occupying that position:

> I believe some of the headteachers encounter problems in managing their staff because they emerged as heads from their schools. Apart from that, they are too free with their staff. They taught with them but when they became headteachers, they could not break that extremely cordial relationship. Therefore, those headteachers find it difficult to deal with them professionally.
>
> (PCS-3)

However, some of the headteachers said they found it difficult to win their teachers' cooperation because of cultural norms prevailing in that context.

> Most of my teachers are too old and I think that is why they do not cooperate with me. You are an Akan so I think you know it is not the best to control the elderly. There is nothing I can do if they refuse to cooperate with me!
>
> (PUHM-2)

The causes of staff management problems were different in the opinion of some of the PCSs. They attributed the problems to three main factors. First, they believed that most teachers, especially in the urban centres, were more qualified than their heads; second, the headteachers lacked power to discipline their teachers; and third, knowledge to perform their roles and responsibilities.

In some of the schools, there are teachers who are more educated than their heads. Sometimes you find graduates in the classroom, while a Certificate 'A' holder leads the school. Therefore, winning the cooperation of such teachers is very difficult. The headteachers also lack power to discipline such teachers and do not possess the knowledge and skills required for their roles. Mr Kusi, if you visit some of the schools you will find that the teachers are doing the work of their headteachers for them. This makes such teachers undermine the authority of their headteachers.

(PCS-1)

PCS-2 added:

I will say that most of the headteachers work with teachers who are more educated than themselves, making it difficult for them to instruct such teachers. Because some of the teachers are more knowledgeable, they guide their headteachers in performing some of their roles. Apart from that, the GES has not empowered the headteachers to take any disciplinary measures against their teachers who misbehave.

The ineffectiveness of the headteachers' supervisory role was also attributed to their powerlessness in disciplining their teachers coupled with lack of support from the local education office, as the following comment by PUMH-5 exemplified:

We do not have power to sanction the teachers who misbehave. When teachers do something wrong we get no support from the DoE

in disciplining them. We are powerless! Unlike the headteachers of private schools, we cannot sanction our teachers!

The majority of the PCSs agreed with the headteachers' complaints, adding they failed to instruct their teachers to perform their roles effectively.

> The GES has not empowered the headteachers to take disciplinary actions against teachers, yet they do not get any support from the education office. Apart from that, I always use the word 'coward' to describe most of the headteachers. I tell you, Sir, they see that the teachers are not performing, but they lack courage to tell them to improve upon their performance.
>
> (PCS-2)

> Headteachers are powerless, so how can they supervise their staff effectively? I will add that teacher supervision has not been effective because the headteachers are not bold to tell them to do the right thing!
>
> (PCS-4)

Some headteachers, who were mostly in the rural areas, believed that teacher supervision was ineffective because those responsible for inspection of schools, the CSs, failed to visit their schools.

> Although we the headteachers are responsible for teacher supervision, we expect the CSs to come here to see what is going on. However, I would say that my area has been cut off from the Sunyani municipality - the CS has not been coming here at all. I admit that this Circuit is very large, but I expect him to try his best! (PRMH-2)

These diverse factors contributed to increased problems in teacher management. Another dimension of the issues and concerns for the headteachers was related to the management of students, as discussed next.

### iii. Student Management Issues and Concerns

Issues relating to student management were also highlighted in the interview data. There were multiple factors leading to issues in student management, some of which were gender-specific and context-related as well. The headteachers in the rural areas, particularly complained that some parents were reluctant to educate their female children and encouraged or permitted them to drop-out of school to marry. Some of the headteachers added that some parents occupied their wards with farming activities instead of encouraging them to be regular at school. PRMH-3, for example, complained that:

> Parents put premium on marriage and farming. Some of them send their teenage girls to the North to marry when they are 15 years. Others prefer taking their wards to farm to sending them to school.

The PCSs agreed with this view. PCS-3, for instance, made the following remark:

> These days most parents, especially those in the rural areas prefer encouraging their children to marry to getting knowledge and skills that will affect their future positively. Some of the parents also send their children to farm instead of encouraging them to be regular at school.

Some of the interviewees, however, complained that some male students had cultivated smoking and drinking habits, which had affected their studies. PFH-2 expressed this concern:

> Some of the boys smoke and drink when they are coming to school. About a year ago, I found two packets of 'Indian herb' in the pockets of two of my students so I excluded them straight-away from the school. These habits prevent them from studying hard!

PUMH-6 also shared this view, adding that it was difficult to discuss these problems with parents because they did not maintain regular contact with the schools:

> The students have got many problems like smoking and drinking which affect their studies, but we find it difficult to discuss these problems with their parents because they fail to visit the school regularly.

It also appeared in the data that some parents, especially in the rural areas failed to support their children financially, and, therefore, some of headteachers had to take on such responsibility.

> Sir, before God and man, the parents are not helping us at all – they do not want to pay any money towards their wards' education. Right now the students are writing their Mock examinations, but two of them could not pay their examination fee so I had to pay for them with my own money. It is very difficult here!
>
> (PRMH-4)

Similarly, some of the PCSs were dissatisfied that some parents failed to support their wards financially.

> I understand that in our part of the world money is difficult to come by. But we expect the parents to support their children by paying their examination fees. However, the headteachers often complain that they do not have money to print examination questions which is very sad.
>
> (PCS-4)

Another dimension of student management problems pointed out in the data was parents' collaboration with their children to attack headteachers and their staff. The headteachers believed this happened when they disciplined students for misbehaviour such as lateness. This problem was very common in the responses of headteachers in the rural areas. PRMH-2 emphasised the importance of disciplining students while complaining:

> It is good to discipline students. Without it, the students' performance cannot be enhanced. But, at times, the parents become offended when children are disciplined for misbehaving. For example, when students come to school late continuously, we ask them to go home the next time they repeat such behaviour. This annoys some parents to the extent that they sometimes join their children to attack us and the teachers at night.

Thus, the headteachers encountered diverse problems in managing students. These problems were related to female students drop-out for marital reasons; parents engaging their wards in farming activities; students' habits of drinking and smoking; parents' failure to support their wards

financially; and parents' collaboration with their wards to attack headteachers and their staff, among many others. The causes of these concerns are presented in the next section.

**iv. Student Management Issues and Concerns: Influencing Factors**

The data revealed that some parents encouraged their female wards to marry early because they believed that their education was unnecessary. Parents believed that they would not benefit from it; their husbands would be the beneficiaries in the long run, instead of them (the parents). Therefore, they made little effort to encourage girls to go to school. PRMH-1 highlighted this issue, indicating effort he had made to encourage parents to educate their female wards:

> Why should they encourage their daughters to get an education if they would get married and be committed to their husbands finally? This is the problem so I move with my teachers from community to community to talk to people to take the education of their female children serious as the boys, but nothing positive is happening.

PCS-3 confirmed the headteachers' view that parents did not value girls' education and therefore failed to invest their income in it:

> There is a belief among most parents in some rural communities that girls' education is irrelevant because they would not be committed to them after marriage. Therefore, they encourage them to marry so that they do not spend their little income on them.

Those interviewees who complained that parents engaged their wards in farming activities attributed that problem to lack of educated role models in

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such communities. They argued that most of the rich people in such places were farmers so the parents saw no need to encourage their children to be educated.

> Most parents send their wards to farm because the role models in such places are normally farmers; not the educated. The farmers have cars, many wives and houses. No educated person can be compared to such people in terms of riches so they see no reason to educate their wards.
>
> (PRMH-3)

The comment by PCS-1 agreed with this view:

> Some of the parents do not consider education for their children a priority because the teachers and their heads who are supposed to be role models to their children are extremely poor, unlike the local rich farmers, so they do not see the importance of education.

The interviewees who complained about some parents' failure to support their wards financially also attributed their behaviour to their negative attitude towards education. PUMH-6 for instance remarked that 'the parents do not want to spend their income on their children because they do not value education!' Similarly, the headteachers who complained about students and their parents' attacks on them and their staff said that the parents did not consider education relevant and therefore saw no reason for their wards to be disciplined by their teachers. Others believed that those parents failed to visit the schools frequently for the headteachers to discuss issues concerning their children with them, but became offended when disciplinary measures were taken against their children.

The parents do not visit the school regularly so if there is the need to discuss issues about their children with them, it becomes very difficult. Because they do no communicate with us they become offended whenever we take any disciplinary actions against their wards.

(PRMH-2)

The interviewees who raised concerns about students' smoking and drinking habits blamed such problems on the effect of the banning of corporal punishment owing to the implementation of the 'Right of the Child' policy in the country.

The government is saying that we should not give students corporal punishment because of the 'Right of the Child' policy. The students are taking advantage of the implementation of this policy in the country - they do whatever they like!

(PFH-2)

PCS- 6 shared this view:

Some of the students have cultivated smoking and drinking habits because of the introduction of 'Right of the Child' policy by the government. The headteachers and their staff cannot 'cane' students as they used to do.

These comments implied that the way the headteachers used to discipline their students prior to the implementation of the policy had changed. The headteachers and their staff had been disempowered from disciplining students through the 'old ways' owing to the implementation of the policy.

Besides the local socio-economic scenario, and changes in the education policy, resource acquisition problems also added to the difficulties encountered by the headteachers in managing students, as discussed in the next section.

**v. Material Resource Acquisition Issues and Underlying Causes**

One of the major issues that emerged from the interview data was related to acquisition of material resources. All the interviewees were particularly concerned about late supply of teachers' notebooks. They believed that this situation put pressure on headteachers to mobilise funds to purchase such materials for their staff in a context where resources were limited.

> We are working very hard as headteachers, but the government is not supporting us as expected. As at now, we have not received teachers' notebooks and other logistics from Accra, so I am now moving up and down to find money to buy exercise books for my staff in the interim. However, they are inappropriate for lesson notes!......(PRMH-3)

> We are in the second term, but we have not received teachers' notebooks. Therefore, I have made temporal provision by soliciting for funds from friends to buy exercise books, but they are not suitable for lesson notes preparation.
>
> (PUMH-4)

PUMH-2 also shared this view, adding that the education authorities had placed restrictions on the resources they could use every term:

> Since the school re-opened, I have not received teachers' notebooks. Therefore, I have made temporal provision by buying exercise books

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for my staff. The problem is that the exercise books are not suitable for lesson notes. Also, we have been restricted to a certain amount of stock every term. If we overuse such stock, we need to provide for ourselves, which is not the best policy.

The PCSs supported the headteachers' agitation about late supply of teachers' lesson notebooks and the pressure on headteachers to manage the situation. PCS-3, for example, made the following remark:

We are in the sixth month of the academic year, but the head office has not supplied teachers' notebooks; they are yet to be received! Sometime ago the headteachers got them before the schools re-opened, but now they have to wait for months! Some of the heads are now looking for funds to buy notebooks for their teachers.

Whereas some headteachers made or were making effort to buy new notebooks or exercise books for their staff to use for preparation of lessons, others had asked their staff to continue using those supplied in the previous academic year.

Sir, we are now in the second term, but we have not received teachers' notebooks so I have told my staff to continue using the old ones – those supplied in the last academic year!

(PFH-1)

The headteachers who expressed concerns about late supply of teachers' notebooks believed that some of their teachers were using the situation as an excuse for failing to prepare lesson notes.

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….some of the teachers do not prepare for lessons because of the late supply of the notebooks. They do not plan their lessons and when we ask them, they tell us in Akan language 'Master yenni notebooks' [literally, 'Master, we do not have notebooks.]

<div align="right">(PRMH-3)</div>

The late supply of teaching and learning resources was attributed to two main factors. The majority of headteachers said that whenever they asked the education authorities in the municipality for resource materials, they were told to exercise patience until the materials were brought from the national headquarters, or to pursue it with the national headquarters, as reflected in these responses:

I have been to the office many times, but I was told they are yet to receive them from Accra so I should exercise patience!

<div align="right">(PUMH-1)</div>

We have been to the office several times, but they tell us that they do not have any notebooks, so we should call our government to bring them from Accra!'

<div align="right">(PFH-1)</div>

The responses of some of the PCSs confirmed this.

When the headteachers reported the problem of late supply of teachers' notebooks to us, we informed the Director. When he rang the head-office, they said they notebooks were not ready so we should tell the headteachers to wait. Some headteachers are also told

to contact the education ministry for the materials! This is what happens all the time!

<div align="right">(PCS-2)</div>

The responses of both the headteachers and the PCSs suggested that the supply of resources was delayed because their distribution was centralised – they were distributed from Accra, the national capital. Other headteachers thought the government was expecting that the capitation grant introduced would be used by headteachers to purchase those materials.

> I think we receive inadequate support from the government because of the introduction of the capitation grant. The government authorities might be thinking that the grant will be used to buy such resources from the market. It is as simple as that!

<div align="right">(PRHM-1)</div>

Some of the PCSs shared this view, expressing further concern that the capitation grant had not been given to headteachers since the beginning of that academic year.

> The government might be expecting that part of the capitation grant introduced will be used for acquisition of teaching/learning resources. I think that explains the delay in the supply of the materials. However, since the beginning of this academic year, no money has been given to the schools so, where will the headteachers get the money to buy the resources?

<div align="right">(PCS-3)</div>

Thus, lack of resources, particularly lesson notebooks for teachers, and absence of a clear process for making them available on time, was a serious problem for headteachers in the setting of the study and affected teaching and learning negatively.

The next theme discusses the competences that the interviewees believed headteachers needed in addressing these resource acquisition problems, and those highlighted above.

**vi. Addressing Headship Challenges: Skills and Competences Required**

The data highlighted multiple competences needed by the headteachers in the context of the study to address the challenges they faced in relation to the management of teachers and students, and to the acquisition of material resources. There were some similarities and differences in the skills and competences identified by the headteachers (Participant Urban Male Headteachers (PUMHs), Participant Rural Male Headteachers (PRMHs), PFHs and the PCSs, as shown in the diagram below (Fig. 5). The centre of the diagram (labelled 'A') shows the skills and competences, which were common to the responses of both the headteachers (PUMHs/PFHs/PRMHs) and the PCSs. The areas labelled 'B' and 'C' represent the skills and competences mentioned specifically by the PHTs and the PCSs respectively.

A (PHTs and PCSs)

A
- Relating professionally with teachers
- Record keeping
- School-community relationship
- Vetting lesson notes
- Disciplining teachers
- Managing conflicts
- Delegating duties
- Managing limited material resources
A

- Monitoring students' performance
- Fund-raising
- Educating parents on importance of education
- Effective listening
- Promoting teacher collaboration
- Time management

- Supervising and appraising teachers
- Staff development
- Equating themselves with teachers
- Changing teachers' attitudes
- Filling log-book

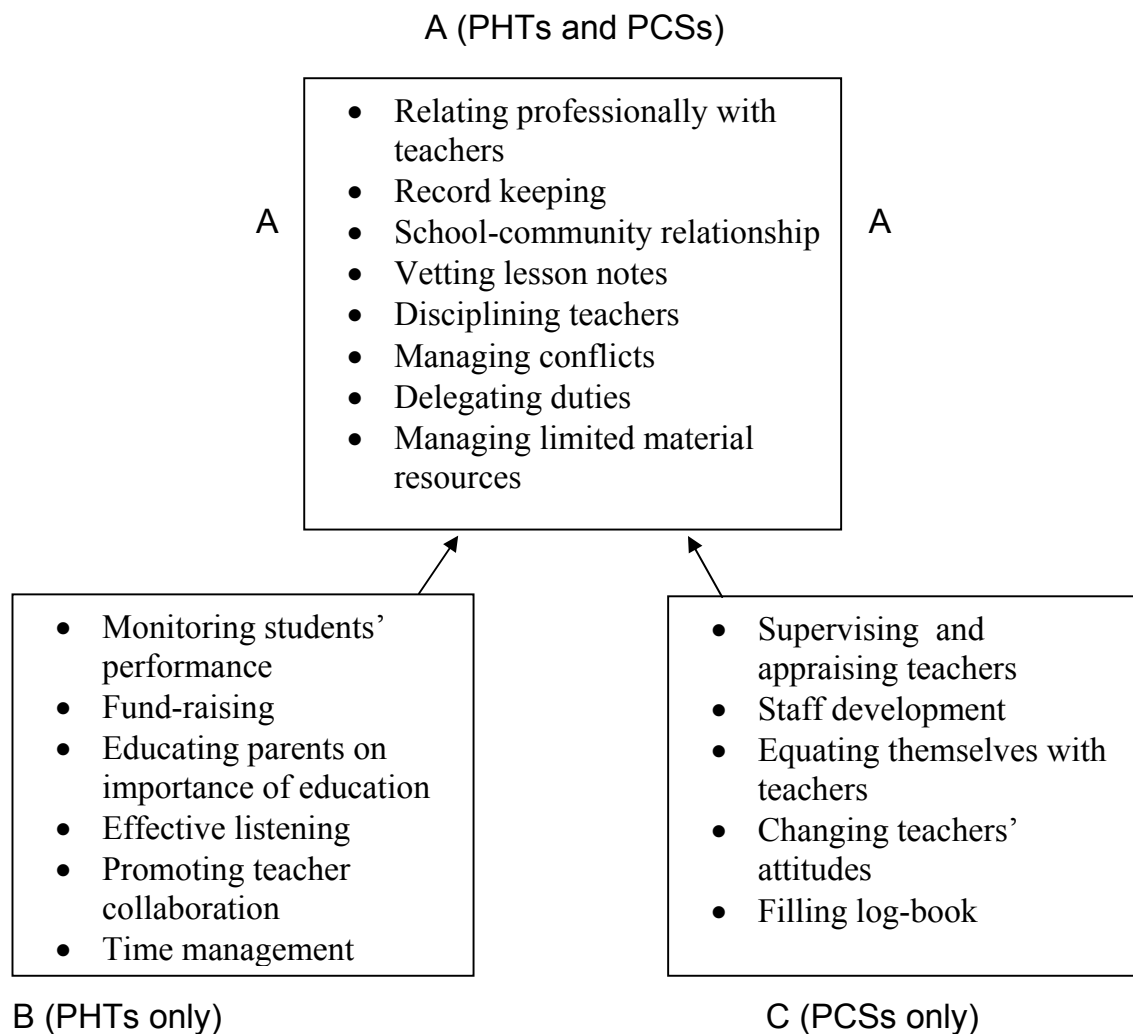B (PHTs only)                    C (PCSs only)

Fig 5: Skills and competences required for addressing the identified headship challenges

In spite of the general consensus in relation to the skills and competences required by the headteachers to address the problems they encountered, there were some areas of differences between PHTS and the PCS. These differences in the skills and competences identified might be attributed to variations in the position/status and roles performed. Whereas the headteachers directly administer and manage the schools, the PCSs supervise the headteachers and train them. It appeared that these

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differences in status and roles led to differences in the causes of some of the problems identified. For example, whereas some headteachers attributed teachers' uncooperative behaviour to cultural norms, the PCSs blamed this problem on some headteachers having lower academic and professional qualifications than some teachers as well as their lack of expert knowledge (pp.135-136). Because the PCSs and the PHTs attributed some of the problems facing headteachers to different factors, they needed to identify different skills for addressing such problems.

Also, the PHTs operated in different contexts within the municipality and consisted of males and females. However, it was interesting that there were no differences in the competences they identified unlike the questionnaire data. This might be attributed to the fact that the sample size for the interviews was smaller compared with that of the questionnaires.

In the diagram above (Fig 5), all the interviewees suggested that practising headteachers in both the urban and rural contexts required skills to manage limited resources, whereas in the questionnaire data, this skill was highlighted only by the RMHs. This difference in response might be attributed to the differences in the periods when the data was collected. The questionnaire data was gathered at the beginning of the academic year and, therefore, the UMHs/FHs were not constrained by any situation to manage limited resources - it was the RMHs who needed such skill because of their peculiar context-specific situation. The interview data was, however, collected around the middle of the academic year, when resource supply to the schools had been delayed. For example, some responses on pages 144-148 suggested that the resources had not been supplied to the schools in the urban and rural settings by around the middle of the academic year. It appeared that because there were limited resources available in the schools,

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the headteachers required skills and competences to manage them to avoid disruptions in teaching and learning.

The diagram also indicates that record-keeping appeared as one of the most important skills required by practising headteachers to address the problems they encountered – this skill also appeared in the skills identified by the respondents for both the aspiring and practising headteachers in that setting, implying that it was very significant. Unlike the situation in some developed countries like UK, where schools have secretaries or administrative staff, charged with administrative duties / responsibilities, headteachers in Ghana are mandated to work as administrators, as noted earlier, implying that record-keeping is one of the key roles they performed. The records they are mandated to keep include log-books, admission registers, teachers' movement books, and farm record books, yet they are often not trained for such roles, making such roles cumbersome. In most cases, it was after appointment that headteachers were introduced to these skills by their supervisors (pp.170-173). It appeared that training programmes for headteachers neglected record-keeping skills, although it was a very important part of the headteachers' role. Therefore, they needed to be prepared for it.

The diagram (Fig 5) also shows that the PCSs highlighted the need for practising headteachers to be equipped with skills to supervise and appraise teachers, but Fig 2 (p.112) shows that only the UMHs/FHs identified these skills for the aspiring headteachers. The interview data suggested that some of the concerns expressed by the PHTs were linked to teachers' supervision and appraisal (pp.132-133). Therefore, the fact that none of them mentioned skills for appraising and supervising teachers in their identification of skills required to address the problems they were faced with might imply that those skills were either less important to them or were taken for granted. Perhaps, the PHTs attributed the problems relating to supervision and appraisal to their powerlessness in disciplining teachers and lack of support

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from the education officers (pp.94-95 &136-137), rather than lack of skills in those areas. The PCSs, however, thought skills for supervision and appraisal were particularly important for the practising headteachers. It appeared that their response was influenced by their position as external supervisors and trainers of the headteachers.

The interviewees expressed concerns about headteacher involvement in decision making in the Ghanaian educational context, as discussed below.

## vii. Educational Decision Making and Contextual Factors

The above theme emerged unexpectedly from the data. Some of the headteachers complained that the government and the GES failed to consult them when making decisions in the educational context. They added that although they implemented those decisions, they had no power to change them if they were unfavourable. Interestingly, in their agitations, each of the interviewees cited an instance of a decision which had been made without headteachers' involvement and expressed dissatisfaction about it.

> Decisions are taken without consulting headteachers. We want to be involved in any decision taken by the government and the GES. Sometimes, their decisions are not favourable to us, but we implement them. In fact, if they consulted us before the introduction of the so-called 'Right of the Child' policy, I think most heads and parents would reject it because we know the problems it would cause in the school and the societies as a whole.
>
> (PHM-2)

> One thing is that we are on the ground, but I think we are too distant from our officers. I am saying this because our authorities do not

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consult us when making decisions. All what they do is programmed, so it becomes difficult for us to influence their decisions. Whatever instructions we receive from the authorities is what we must carry out! For example, the government and GES officials have instructed us to stop collecting printing fees and write all the examination questions on the chalkboard instead of printing it. They just instructed us without allowing us to share our views on this issue! How many questions can we write on the chalkboard? In fact, we have seen that the system will not promote teaching and learning so we have agreed with PTA to return to the old system whereby we printed questions.

(PUMH-4)

The PCSs confirmed the concern expressed by the headteachers. PCS-1, for example, cited an example of action taken by the GES without consulting the headteachers:

The government and the GES have dispatched furniture to most of the schools in the region, but sadly enough they might not reach the rural schools. If the authorities in Accra consulted the headteachers at the district level, I am sure they would suggest that a specific number should be allocated to the rural schools…………

Most of the headteachers attributed the authorities' failure to involve them in decision making to the unitary political system which was practised in the country – they believed that the system made it difficult for the education authorities to 'come down' to involve headteachers in decisions. PUMH-2, one of those headteachers, for instance, said:

I will blame the situation on the existing unitary political system. It does not always allow the authorities to travel to this place to gather our views on educational issues and factor them into decisions made.

The PCSs shared similar views. For example, PCS-1 made the following remarks:

I think the headteachers are not involved in educational decisions because of our political system – it is always difficult for the education officials to consult headteachers at the local level for their views on educational issues.

However, one headteacher thought that the education officers, who were often highly-educated and experienced, underestimated the contributions the headteachers could make to educational decision making:

The officers think that they are more educated and experienced than we the headteachers so we cannot make any useful contribution to decisions.

(PRMH-3)

Thus, the interviewees were dissatisfied that headteachers did not contribute to decisions made in the Ghanaian educational setting and blamed this situation, mainly, on the unitary political system practised in the country. Besides lack of participation in decision making, the headteachers faced many other challenges linked to their multiple and complex roles and responsibilities.

## viii. Complexity of Headteachers' Role and Contextual Factors

It emerged from the data that the headteachers' roles varied in different schools and situations, which added to the complexity of the debate. Some headteachers were mandated to combine both instructional and administrative roles, while others were mandated to combine the administration of many schools, usually a JSS, primary school and a kindergarten in the same catchment area. PCS-1 explained the underlying principle:

> The policy is that when you have a double-stream school, the head should not teach – the term normally used is 'detached'. However, where a school is a single-stream school then the heads manage and teach at the same time and were known as 'undetached'. So, in every Circuit, you find both double-stream and single-stream headteachers.

According to those headteachers who had dual responsibilities (teaching and management), their roles had been complicated by regular meetings and workshops they were required to attend, making it difficult for them to get adequate time to perform their teaching roles. They believed that their administrative/managerial functions were given more attention than their teaching functions because they were solely held accountable for whatever happened in their schools. PRMH-5, for instance, explained:

> Actually, I am the headteacher of this school so if anything goes on wrong, I am held responsible and accountable for it. Therefore, I spend more time on my administrative functions than the teaching functions.

PFH-1 shared this view and detailed her roles:

I am the headteacher, so I account for whatever goes on here. Therefore, when they are drawing the time-table, I always advise them to give me few lessons because of my administrative work. I am an administrator, a teacher, a mother, a nurse, a counsellor and a secretary to myself, so I have a lot of work to do.

Some of the PCSs confirmed the view of the headteachers that they paid more attention to their administrative/managerial roles than their teaching roles:

If you visit some of the schools, you will find that most of the headteachers are occupied with their administrative roles. They always leave their class vacant! They pay little attention to their teaching roles!

(PCS-3)

The responses of the interviewees suggested that whereas the teaching roles of the 'undetached' headteachers were less effective, the administrative/ managerial roles were effective because adequate attention was paid to them:

Obviously, I do not get adequate time to prepare for teaching so that has not been the best. We attend meetings and when that happens we leave the class vacant! My administrative functions are, however, very effective because I give them the necessary attention.

(PUMH-6)

PCS-4 confirmed the headteachers' view:

Already, the teaching task is difficult so if they add another tedious responsibility to that, it affects their output. The headteachers who manage and teach always attend meetings and when it happens that way, they leave the students in the classroom. I will say their teaching role is ineffective. However, their administrative role is better because they focus more on that than the teaching role.

The heads who managed many schools in the same catchment area did not have any teaching responsibilities – they focused mainly on administrative and instructional supervisory roles. Those headteachers complained that such roles were difficult for them.

> I used to manage one JSS in this locality, but now I have been asked by the education officers to add the management of the primary and kindergarten to my already-complex roles. These roles are very difficult for me!
>
> (PFH-2)

> I manage the JSS, primary, and kindergarten in this locality at the same time. Therefore, I have works to do all the time - even when I get to my house. My role is very tedious for me!
>
> (PUMH-6)

The PCSs shared the headteachers' view:

> Majority of the headteachers in my Circuit combine the management of JSS, primary, and where there is a Kindergarten, they add that one as well. They struggle to combine these multiple roles!
>
> (PCS-4)

The majority of headteachers who managed/administered many schools complained that the multiplicity and complexity of their roles had affected their performance negatively:

> How can one person manage three different schools simultaneously and effectively? I must say that I did well when I was a single-stream headteacher than my current role. Things are difficult for me now!
>
> (PFH-3)

> I leave this compound after 5: 00 PM everyday instead of 2: 30 PM so that I can accomplish some of my tasks. But I do not think my performance has been effective.
>
> (PUMH-3)

The PCSs shared the headteachers' view on their performance:

> Although some of my headteachers focus on only administration/ management roles, I will say their performance is not satisfactory. They are not performing at all! Something has to be done about the situation!
>
> (PCS-2)

Whereas the majority of headteachers generally considered their role ineffective, others believed that management of JSSs was effective, unlike the primary and kindergarten. They indicated that they focused more on the management of JSSs than the others, because the JSS students took their first external examination at that stage. For example, PRMH-2, explained:

I tend to focus more on the management of JSS than the lower schools because that is the stage the JSS students write their BECE examination. I work very hard to make sure that they do well in that examination so I will say the JSS management is effective, unlike the primary and kindergarten.

Although the headteachers performed numerous and complex functions, they pointed out that the government and the GES authorities had failed to reward their efforts. The headteachers were particularly dissatisfied with their responsibility allowance, which they said had de-motivated them from working hard:

> As you will understand, our burden is very huge so we expect the government to recognise our effort. However, I tell you, Sir, the responsibility allowance I receive for all this effort is very insignificant. You will never believe! We the headteachers want the government to recognise our effort and reward us before we kill ourselves for it.
>
> (PRMH-5)

> In fact, our job has become complex, but it seems the authorities do not recognise it. Why should they give us 10,000 cedis as responsibility allowances? So if they motivate us we would appreciate it and commit ourselves fully to the tasks.
>
> (PFH-4)

Some of the PCSs agreed with the views of the headteachers.

> We are human beings and we need motivation, but for all these numerous and complex roles and responsibilities, the single-stream

headteachers are given 10,000 cedis each month, while the double-stream headteachers receive 20,000. Even such allowance does not come at the expected time. The heads need motivation so that they can work and work well!

<div align="right">(PCS-5)</div>

Some of the headteachers wanted an increase in their responsibility allowance, and wanted the allowance to be added to their monthly salaries, instead of it being paid separately.' PUMH4, as an example, suggested:

> We want the government to increase the responsibility allowance and add it to our monthly salaries instead of paying it every six months.

<div align="right">(PUMH-4)</div>

The data revealed that the multiplicity and complexity of the roles and responsibilities of the headteachers, coupled with inappropriate motivation, affected their performance. Other issues highlighted in the interview data were professional development needs of headteachers at various stages of their career and their provisions, as presented in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

**Part Two: Professional Development Needs and Provisions**

This part of the chapter presents the interview findings relating to the professional development needs of both aspiring and practising headteachers. The themes which emerged from the data were as follows:

- Pre-headship Training Opportunities;
- Selection/Appointment of JSS Headteachers;
- Induction of JSS Headteachers; and

- INSET/CPD of JSS Headteachers.

The pre-headship training opportunities emerging from the data follow.

**i. Pre-headship Training Opportunities**

Based on the questionnaire findings, I asked the interviewees to suggest ways for providing the knowledge, skills and competences required by aspiring headteachers. Several pre-headship training opportunities emerged from their responses. In the first place, there was a consensus between the majority of headteachers and the PCSs that one way to equip aspiring headteachers with the relevant knowledge, skills and competences was through aspiring-headteachers-only PRESET programmes, organised by the CSs.

> After the CSs have identified teachers with headship aspiration, they should organise pre-service training programmes to equip them with the relevant knowledge and skills needed to perform their roles effectively.
>
> (PRMH-3)

PFH-1 shared this view, emphasised some knowledge and skills which aspiring headteachers needed to be equipped with, and highlighted her personal limitation:

> Before anyone is appointed as a headteacher, the CSs should equip them with the competences needed for the job through aspiring-headteachers-only pre-service training programmes. They should provide both management and administrative training to enable her/him work better. Aspiring heads also need financial training. Now,

> I am not an accountant, but I have been asked to prepare a budget for the capitation grant which is very difficult for most of us. I do not know anything about accounting, but I have been asked to prepare it. How can I do it? It is a big problem!

The majority of PCSs also agreed with the headteachers in suggesting PRESET programmes for aspiring headteachers:

> The procedure for appointing heads does not make their work effective. I expect an introduction of aspiring-headteachers-only pre-service training programmes for say three months to equip them with the knowledge and skills they would require to work effectively.
>
> (PCS-1)

Whereas the majority of headteachers and PCSs expected the aspiring-headteachers-only programmes to be organised to equip them with the relevant knowledge and skills, others suggested that aspiring headteachers should be encouraged to attend INSETs with practising headteachers:

> The 'good' teachers who want to become headteachers should be encouraged to attend INSETs with their headteachers in order to acquire the knowledge and skills they would need in future.
>
> (PFH-3)

Some PCs also supported this view:

> In order to prepare teachers with headship aspiration for their roles, they could be encouraged to join their headteachers whenever they are attending training programmes (PCS-4).

Attending INSETs with experienced headteachers would serve as useful opportunities for aspiring headteachers to learn from the practising headteachers.

Some of the PHTs and PCSs also suggested that special courses should be introduced at TTCs for aspiring headteachers:

Since the majority of the headteachers attend teacher training colleges, it would be useful if special courses are introduced at that level to equip them with the knowledge and skills they need for their roles.

(PFH-2)

Teacher training colleges should be used as a training ground for aspiring headteachers - there should be compulsory modules which focus on the identified knowledge and skills.

(PRMH-4)

PCS-1, in addition to suggesting aspiring-headteachers-only programmes, agreed with the headteachers' view, arguing that:

…….A course should be introduced at the teacher training colleges to equip teacher trainees with the required knowledge and competences. Where we give raw courses to them and appoint them as headteachers, to me it is not the best. When the industries need managers, they advertise for somebody who has studied management, but when you come to the education sector, everybody can be a manager. How possible? Like the industrial sector, courses should be introduced for teacher trainees with headship aspirations!

Thus, the major pre-service development opportunities highlighted in the data were aspiring-headteachers-only PRESET programmes; joint INSET of aspiring and practising headteachers; and TTC based courses for teacher trainees with headship ambition. Selection/appointment of headteachers emerged from the data as another aspect of pre-headship development which required attention, as discussed below.

### ii. Selection/Appointment of JSS Headteachers

It came out of the responses of both the PHTs and the PCSs that a variety of procedures were used to select headteachers in the municipality. One criterion was seniority or experience.

> Sometime ago, teachers who wanted to become headteachers were interviewed. Now one's high rank or experience qualifies him or her to become a headteacher without interviews. This is what happens in this municipality!
>
> <div align="right">(PUMH-3)</div>

The PCSs confirmed this view:

> I learnt that when the new JSS concept was introduced, candidates for headship had to be interviewed before they were given headship positions. But these days, it has reversed. Somebody out of long stay in the school or experience is given the position just by chance. So, anything goes - whether he or she is competent or not! This is the general practice! (PCS-2)

> They consider seniority these days instead of the previous interview system. These days if you have a certificate 'A', the least certificate in

<div align="center">164</div>

the system, but with high rank, you could become a headteacher instead of somebody with higher qualification. Therefore, it is very difficult for some headteachers to supervise their teachers, especially if they hold better qualification/s.

<div align="right">(PCS-6)</div>

The data also revealed that some assistant headteachers automatically replaced their headteachers when they either retired or transferred, without undergoing any interview, as reflected in the response below:

..When the headteacher retires or is transferred, the next-in-command takes her/his place. My predecessor went on retirement and, as the assistant headteacher by then, I was asked to replace him.

<div align="right">(PRMH-4)</div>

Some of the headteachers, who were appointed through this successive system, said they were compelled to assume headship position. Most of such headteachers were women. PHF-3 cited her personal example:

As for me, between 200... and 200... I was an assistant headteacher of the school. After the retirement of the headteacher, I was there one day when a letter came from the office that I was the headteacher. I told them that I would not be able to head the school simply because I had been here for a long time so the relationship between me and the staff was too cordial for them to take my instructions. I even told them that I was not bold to attend an interview if they called me, but they insisted I should be the headteacher. That is why I am the headteacher.

Moreover, it emerged from the data that some headteachers in the municipality were directly appointed to that position, using their high qualification as the criterion. Those headteachers returned to the profession after furthering their education at the universities. PRMH-1, one of the headteachers who shared that view, cited personal example and explained the reason for such practice:

> One can become a headteacher on the basis of his/her qualification/s. For instance, I taught for 10 years and left to pursue my diploma at a university. Immediately I returned to the service, I was made the headteacher of the school. This time the government is preaching quality education so anyone who has excelled or gone higher could be appointed directly as a headteacher.

PCS-4 also said that:

> These days, young graduates are posted directly to lead schools in the urban centres. They are mostly teachers who went on study leave so they have the needed experience in the teaching service to manage schools.

Some NQTs from the TTCs were also appointed directly to lead schools in the rural areas, because the highly-educated teachers felt reluctant to apply for headship positions in or accept postings to such places. Those interviewees who highlighted this appointment criterion believed that it was the only way to get headteachers for rural schools:

> Some fresh teachers from teacher training colleges are sometimes appointed as headteachers in the rural areas, because the graduates

are unwilling to apply for such positions in those areas. Direct appointment is the only way to get people to manage schools in such places.

<div align="right">(PRMH-2)</div>

……The fresh teachers from teacher training colleges are often appointed as headteachers in the rural areas because the highly-educated professionals refuse postings to those places. Without doing this, headship positions in such places will be occupied by non-professional teachers.

<div align="right">(PCS-1)</div>

The responses of the interviewees revealed that none of them was fully satisfied with the existing criteria for appointing headteachers. PUMH-3 expressed dissatisfaction about using seniority or experience as the basis of appointment:

If they keep on using experience and rank as the basis for appointing headteachers, young teachers with headship aspiration would find it difficult to achieve such goal – only we the old will always become headteachers!

PFH-3 criticised the successive system:

I was forced to lead the school because I was the most senior and long-serving staff. I did not like the job. I wouldn't have applied if they advertised the job. If they really want those willing to do the job, then they should advertise the vacancies and call for interviews.

PUMH-6 disapproved of the appointment of highly-educated teachers as headteachers:

Some of the graduates are appointed as headteachers immediately they enter the service. However, the fact that they have completed university does not necessarily mean they would become effective headteachers. The authorities have to do something about this criterion!

The opinions of the PCSs on selection/appointment processes differed from the headteachers. They complained that the processes had led to the appointment of incompetent and non-committed headteachers:

Most of the headteachers in this municipality do not possess the knowledge and skills required for the post. Apart from that, they lack commitment, in spite of the fact that their role is significant for the success of their schools.

(PCS-3)

Many strategies for selecting headteachers in the municipality were highlighted in the data. The majority of PHTs argued that in order to select suitable candidates for headship position, vacancies should be advertised, followed by interviewing of interested applicants. PFH-2, a graduate headteacher, said:

If they advertise vacancies and organise interviews, the best applicant would be selected. I am not saying that those who are appointed directly are inferior; what I am saying is that the best person will always get the job.

The PCSs shared the views of the headteachers:

> Personally, I would ask the office to always advertise the headship vacancies and call for interviews. At the moment there is nothing like that. Those who have been in the service for long time are mostly appointed. Interviews will allow the best candidate to be selected and it should be done periodically, say every three years, not necessary those who have served long.
>
> (PCS-4)

> We need to look at efficiency and person's commitment because, at the end of the day, these are the most important issues……so I believe the best thing to do now is the advertisement-interview system where people are called, examined in totality, and not the regional manager sitting somewhere and thinking that man is my friend so he should be the headteacher. No, that is not the best!
>
> (PCS-6)

However, other headteachers in rural areas argued for maintenance of the direct appointment of NQTs from TTCs as headteachers in rural settings. Such headteachers believed that the interviewing system will discourage people from applying for headship positions in those areas because of the prevailing unfavourable social conditions. They further suggested that because the highly-qualified professionals were unwilling to accept postings to rural areas, direct appointment strategy should be maintained:

> I am not fully-satisfied with the direct appointment procedure, but in terms of the rural settings like this, they will not get people to manage the schools if they want to go by the normal procedure - interviewing.

Also, most highly-educated Ghanaians refuse to accept postings to such places so we have to accept direct appointment as the normal practice in order to help the rural folks.

(PRHM-2)

This comment suggested that the procedure employed in selecting urban school headteachers should be different from that used for selecting headteachers of rural schools. However, one of the PRMHs with a diploma qualification disagreed:

It should be based on high qualification and long-service everywhere. I am saying this because if you teach for a long time, you become familiar with the problems in the service. With high qualification you are able to understand issues better and address them more effectively.

(PRMH-1)

Thus, diverse criteria were used to select headteachers in the context of the study. However, the interviewees considered them unsatisfactory in various ways and suggested new strategies that would help to select appropriate candidates for headship positions. Another dimension of professional development highlighted in the data was related to induction, as presented below.

### iii. Induction of JSS Headteachers

The interview data revealed that no formal induction policy existed in the Sunyani municipality for NAHs; it was rather informal, since it was personally initiated by some individual CSs and regional managers. A few of the headteachers said that they had the opportunity to undergo this informal

induction programme. When asked about how they were inducted, the majority of those headteachers said they met their CSs individually for training:

> My CS came here to talk to me about school management, how to relate positively with my teachers, accounting skills, and record keeping.
>
> (PUMH-4)

> My CS came here to take me through the roles and responsibilities of headteachers and some strategies which can be employed by headteachers to work effectively.
>
> (PFH-4)

PCS-3 confirmed that induction of headteachers in the municipality was informal and arranged on a one-to-one basis:

> Those that I appointed, yes, I inducted them. I sat with each of them, taught them how to vet lesson notes, keep school records, admission process, and how to enter log book. I did this myself - it was not official.

Whereas some of the headteachers were inducted by their CSs, others said they were inducted by their regional manager. PFH-3 explained the induction process:

> One of the regional managers of this mission told me that when I am working with a group of people, I must be patient and respect them. He also told me that if any of the teachers is facing a problem, I should

talk to the person confidentially and try to solve the problem. However, if I cannot, I have to refer it to the CS. I was also told that I should always go the classrooms to observe the teachers and students.

The headteachers who did not undergo any induction programmes believed that the education officers took their background experience for granted because they had worked under their predecessors:

> I, personally, did not undergo any induction. What they do is that before you reach the principal superintendent, you would have taught for about 18 years and sometimes you learn from your head. I learnt from my headteacher when I was his assistant, so they thought I will be able to manage the situation.
>
> (PHF-1)

> Since I was an assistant head for a long time, I learnt many skills and did things on my own. I even used to attend management workshops before I was appointed as a headteacher. Therefore, they thought induction was irrelevant for me.
>
> (PRMH-2)

PCS-5 confirmed this view:

> Anybody who has not been a head or assistant head before is taken through some short training to, at least, expose them to their roles and responsibilities. I do this in my Circuit - that is not the general practice in this municipality.

The majority of the PCSs said they refused to induct the headteachers because they did not participate in their appointment. PCS-6, as an example, remarked:

> We do not induct headteachers. Mmmm! The issue is that if I do not have any role in appointing them, what role should I play in inducting them? The person who appointed them should get them inducted! But, unfortunately, that sort of thing is not done!

PCS-2 complained:

> The only way we can organise induction programme for the newly appointed heads is when we jointly appoint them. The authorities must remember that we work directly with the teachers so we know them better!

In spite of diversity regarding the nature and structure of induction, the interviewees agreed on the need for induction programmes for headteachers. Several strategies were proposed by the PHTs and PCSs for inducting NAHs in the municipality.

- Training in areas such as instructional supervision, teacher motivation, office administration, human relationships, management of information, and headship roles;
- Formation of NAHs working groups at cluster level to enable them to work collaboratively ;
- Development of a manual for beginning headteachers; and

- Experts from universities to meet beginning headteachers during vacations to help them to address the challenges they encounter in performing their roles.

One of the PRMHs, however, demanded that NAHs should be given 'an opportunity to visit other schools to see how the environment operates' (PRMH-3).

The next section focuses on the interviewees' views on the INSET programmes organised for headteachers and ways of improving them.

### iv. INSET/CPD of JSS Headteachers

The need for headship development provision was emphasised over longer term periods, pointing to the significance of on-going INSET programmes. The interviewees critiqued the existing INSET programmes as not being satisfactory in many ways and suggested strategies/ways for improving them so as to provide the headteachers with the knowledge and skills required for a better performance.

The interviewees expressed concerns about the content of the programmes which they thought did not focus on the headteachers' professional development needs. Therefore, they suggested that, to make the programmes useful to the participants, their needs must be assessed prior to the programmes. For example, PFH-4 made the following comment to put her view across:

> I think most of the programmes I have attended did not address the problems facing we the headteachers, especially those in my area. The last one focused on de-worming of students which has no bearing

on how we manage schools………. We want them to contact us, look at our training needs and incorporate them into the planning of the programmes…

The PCSs supported this view.

> The INSET programmes seem not to exist - they do not address the needs of headteachers. I do not hear anything like the heads are attending INSET on capacity building, interpersonal relationships, school-community relationship, which are the problematic areas. I do not see anything of that sort!  We can meet the needs of the headteachers by asking them for what they need in their day-day running of the schools prior to the programmes.
>
> (PCS-2)

> I think the contents of the programmes do not cover the areas headteachers need support. We can contact the heads individually, give them the content of the courses and ask them to bring their problems and make contributions. If this is done, we can make it more useful to them…...
>
> (PCS-5)

The majority of the PHTs and PCSs indicated that lecture method was used by the resource personnel for delivering the programmes. However, they disapproved of that method because it isolated them from the programmes. They, therefore, suggested strategies for delivering the programmes, including group discussion or presentation; team teaching; demonstration; problem-solving; discovery; and brain-storming approaches.

The headteachers complained that the resource persons were not knowledgeable and confident about the topics taught, making the programmes boring. They emphasised that training providers should be well-informed about the content so that they could respond to questions appropriately:

> We attend INSET on few occasions, but the resource persons are not good. They do not deliver – they should be well-informed and more knowledgeable than we the headteachers. Sometimes, when you ask them questions, they find themselves in hot waters!
>
> (PRMH-4)

> If the programmes will be successful, then the resource persons should prepare themselves very well all the time. They should know what they talk about and be prepared to answer headteachers' questions.
>
> (PUMH-1)

None of the PCSs mentioned the need for the resource persons to prepare themselves for the INSET programmes.

The interviewees were also dissatisfied with the practice of organising programmes for all headteachers in the municipality at one location. They believed that the needs of the headteachers varied and, therefore, centralising the programme was inappropriate, asking for re-consideration of the location. The majority of those headteachers believed it should be cluster-based, as the following examples of quotations show:

The programmes should be organised on cluster-basis. They should go to schools in one locality and organise it on, for example, leadership skills.

<div align="right">(PRMH-2)</div>

The INSET programmes need to be organised on cluster-basis. It should be organised for, say three to five headteachers, in one locality. Such headteachers could be helped to identify their problems and address them more effectively.

<div align="right">(PUMH-5)</div>

Other headteachers agreed with the majority of the PCSs in suggesting Circuit-based INSETs. The argument of such interviewees was that the training needs of headteachers were a function of the Circuit in which they operated. PCS-1, for instance, argued:

I think the problems facing the headteachers in my Circuit are different from those in the urban centres. For example, most of the heads in the urban centres are university graduates while most of the headteachers in the rural areas are either Certificate 'A' holders or newly-qualified teachers who lack experience. Therefore, I think it will be better if the programmes are organised on Circuit-basis. This approach will help to solve their problems more effectively.

Although there were variations in the suggested locations of INSET programmes in the municipality, the basis of the arguments was similar – to meet the diverse needs of headteachers in various locations more effectively.

The interviewees also highlighted some practicalities which affected the attendance of the programmes. They complained that the transportation allowance given to headteachers for participating in the programmes was insufficient and often paid long after the programmes. The PRMHs, in particular, complained that they spent more on transportation than the allowance given for that purpose and hoped for improvement in that allowance :

> ….From my area to Sunyani, I spend about 20, 000 cedis on transportation, but when I get there they give me 10,000 cedis. This implies that I incur loss anytime I attend the INSET. Apart from that, it takes time for them to pay our allowances which is very disappointing. Therefore, I think the transportation and payment of allowances need re-consideration because I cannot attend the programmes and incur loss all the time.
>
> (PRMH-3)

PCS1 said that:

> The headteachers complain about meagre transportation allowance and we agree with them. Some of them are able to tell us that they do not have money to attend the programmes. I believe the government has to do something about that allowance.

Another dimension of the practicalities highlighted was related to refreshments at the programmes. According to the headteachers, the INSET sessions were very long, but the refreshments were poor:

The duration is too long, but they do not feed us well – most of my colleagues even reject the food! Most of them complain a lot about it and even fail to participate in the programmes. We want to be treated like the bank and health workers who are well-fed during the training programmes.

(PFH-1)

PCS-5 confirmed the headteachers' view on their refreshments and their effect on attendance:

I am one of the organisers and I believe that the quality of refreshment at the programmes is very low. Therefore, most of the teachers fail to participate in the programmes. The refreshment should be improved because they are not children to be given such food!

Thus, the comments of the interviewees suggested that insufficient transportation allowance and poor refreshments affected headteachers participation in the programmes. The interviewees demanded improvements in these areas.

Both the PHTs and the PCSs emphasised the need to provide alternative INSET opportunities for headteachers. The PHTs proposed that headteachers should be sponsored to undertake distance learning programmes on leadership and management at higher institutions to develop them for a better performance of their roles. PFH-1, for example, remarked that:

We should be sponsored to undertake distant learning courses on leadership at a university like Cape Coast if they want us to perform very well.

Many PCSs supported this proposal, explaining the importance of such programmes:

Headteachers could be sponsored to undertake distant learning courses at universities because most of the headteachers have low qualification and the INSETs are ineffective. Such courses will help them to improve their performance.

(PCS-1)

Moreover, the PHTs wanted the universities to run courses for headteachers, but they thought the courses should be regional-based for accessibility, especially during vacations. Some of the PCSs agreed with the headteachers' proposal. For example, PCS-2 said 'because of time constraints, regional-based programmes that focus on the needs of the headteachers would help them to develop professionally.'

The majority of the PHTs and PCSs said that, as part of the professional development of headteachers, those in various clusters should be encouraged to work collaboratively. Such working groups, according to the interviewees, would encourage sharing of professional knowledge and skills. They added that individual headteachers within the working groups should be sponsored occasionally to attend programmes, learn new ideas and strategies, and share with their colleagues.

**Summary**

In this chapter, I have presented the responses of the interviewees. Their responses covered two main areas. The first area was related to the issues and concerns for the headteachers and the factors responsible for them. Those issues were related to management of teachers and students, decision making, headteachers' role, and material resources. The second part of the chapter covered the professional development of aspiring and practising headteachers. The themes linked to the professional development of aspiring headteachers were related to headship training opportunities, selection/ appointment and induction. The theme on INSET covered the critique of existing programmes and strategies for improving them for the benefit of the participants – the headteachers.

The next chapter will focus on interpretations of the responses of both the respondents and the interviewees, linking them to the existing body of knowledge.

## Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Discussion

### Introduction

Chapters four and five presented the research findings, highlighting the major themes to 'make sense' of the data. The current chapter analyses the data critically with reference to relevant literature in an attempt to explore the deeper meanings of the responses, and to unpick the issues and understand the phenomenon. As noted earlier, the purpose of this particular study was to investigate the challenges encountered by headteachers in managing JSSs in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and to identify the professional development needs of both aspiring and practising headteachers.

In this chapter, the findings of the questionnaires and the interviews will be re-categorised, relating each to the themes in chapters four and five and filling in the details to explain the relationships. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the issues and concerns for the headteachers and the influencing factors. Although each of these components is linked to a separate research question, they have been combined to ensure meaningful, coherent and clear discussion. The second part of this chapter covers the professional development of JSS headteachers at various stages of their career.

### Part One: Issues and Concerns for Headteachers and Influencing Factors

The following themes relate to the above topic:

- Teacher Management Issues and Concerns, and Responsible Factors;
- Student Management Issues and Concerns, and Influencing Factors;
- Decision making Process and Contextual Factors;

- Headteachers' Role: Complexity and Multiplicity and Contextual Factors; and
- Material Resource Acquisition: Issues and Influencing Factors.

**i. Teacher Management Issues and Concerns, and Responsible Factors**

It is evident from both the questionnaire and interview findings that the headteachers in the context of this particular study expressed several concerns about managing their teachers. The data highlighted certain common and context-specific concerns of headteachers. The responses of both the headteachers and the CSs to the questionnaire suggested that the teachers lacked commitment and discipline. The issues constituting their lack of commitment and discipline are listed in Fig 1 (p.92). Teacher management issues raised in the interview data encompassed lateness and absenteeism on the part of teachers, as well as their failure to cooperate with their headteachers, especially in the early headship stage (pp.131 - 132). Hoy and Clover (2007) argue that teachers' attitudes affect the quality of their output. They argue further that 'interpersonal relationships……between principals and teachers shape motivation and behaviour' (p.28). Harris and Lambert (2003) also contend that collaboration between headteachers and teachers has a positive effect on the quality of the work produced. These arguments, therefore, suggest that the negative attitude of the teachers towards their work and their failure to cooperate with their headteachers might affect the quality of their output negatively.

Moreover, the attitude of the teachers towards their work was a sign of disengagement (Halpin, 1966). Halpin identifies four characteristics of teachers' behaviour, including disengagement. He explained that disengagement depicts lack of commitment on the part of the teachers to the school. Hoy and Miskel (2001) take this further, arguing that schools

characterised by disengagement are unproductive, apart from the criticism levelled against the headteachers by their staff. They believe that the teachers may create problems for the school leadership and impede the progress of the school.

Dadey (1990, cited in Harber and Davies, 2002) indicated that secondary school headteachers in Ghana encountered staff management problems. My research participants acknowledged this problem, but certain elements of the problem differed. The staff management problems identified by Dadey encompassed absenteeism, lateness and alcoholism (p.22). All these problems, apart from teacher alcoholism, were highlighted by my research participants.

A number of studies in the field of educational leadership and management point out that headteachers are powerless in appointing and disciplining their staff (Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; RPCRERG, 2002; Simkins et al, 2003), causing them many problems (Dadey 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). The findings of my study support this view. Evetts (1992) highlighted the factors responsible for powerlessness on the part of headteachers in the UK and these were the national salary scale, promotion structure for teachers, and legislative changes in education. However, my study attributed the headteachers' powerlessness to structural constraints. It emerged that they could not discipline or sanction teachers because the GES had not empowered them to do so and this gave rise to many problems (pp.94-95 & 135-137). The data suggested that the power to discipline teachers rested with the leading local education officers in the municipality. However, they often failed to discipline teachers, especially if the teachers were their relatives or relatives of other top officers in the municipality, as evident in the comments made by FH-7, UHM-3 and CS-3 (pp.94 & 95). The

participants' use of power shows how they conceptualise headship in that context – it appears headteachers are perceived as bosses who use their power to exercise control over their subordinates. This perception has implications for leadership and management training in that particular context.

The behaviour of the leading education officers appeared to have cultural underpinning. A norm prevailing in some traditional settings in Ghana requires family members to cater for, protect and promote each others' interests; they are not expected to do anything that might affect each other negatively. Sometimes, this norm makes some leaders compromise organisational standards in order to meet the needs of individual family members in that organisation. The interviewees believed that headteachers lacked power over teachers in that cultural context and this led to problems in teacher management, affecting organisational performance. Lack of descent accommodation and desire on the part of teachers to avoid the unattractive lifestyles in the rural areas further resulted in lack of discipline and commitment on their part (pp.96-97). The questionnaire data showed that some of them commuted to work from nearby towns, resulting in lateness and truancy, while other refused to adhere to their headteachers instructions because their application for study leave was refused by the education authorities.

The findings suggested that some of the headteachers had been further disempowered by the procedure used in appointing them. The appointment of headteachers, as evident in the questionnaire and interview findings and supported by specific quotations, was based mainly on seniority and experience (pp.115 & 164-165). Those were appointed headteachers who had reached ranks such as Assistant Directorship within the GES, although

most of them had low academic and professional qualification/s. They often managed teachers who possessed higher academic and professional qualifications, especially in the urban centres, as pointed out by CS-1 (p.96), PFH-3 (p.134), PCS-1 and PCS-2 (pp.135-136). In such cases, the headteachers found it difficult to manage the teachers. The comments made by CS-6 (p.110), PCS-1 and PCS-2 revealed that, sometimes, some teachers guided their headteachers in carrying out their roles and responsibilities (pp. 135-136), implying that those headteachers lacked expert power (Hoyle, 1986). PFH-1, for instance, highlighted her lack of expert power in financial management when suggesting PRESET opportunities for aspiring headteachers (pp.161-162). This was consistent with an argument put forward by Oduro and MacBeath (2003) that the headteachers of primary schools in Ghana lacked skills to fulfil the financial responsibilities entrusted to them.

The practice of selecting/appointing headteachers using seniority rather than qualification/s appeared to be the effect of 'age factor' in the Ghanaian context. In Ghana, an elderly person controls, advises, and makes decisions for a young person. A young person is considered too inexperienced to control and make decisions for an elderly person. Doing that is tantamount to disrespect, as evident in the remark by PUMH-2 (pp.135). Oduro (2003) also observed that 'Ghanaian tradition tends to index wisdom to one's age; hence the views of children are suppressed in matters of decision-making' (p.333). Also, decisions approved by the elderly in most African societies are unquestionable (DuBey et al, 1979 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). This age factor prevents most young professionals from ascending to leadership positions in most organisations in Ghana.

Another factor that rendered some of the headteachers powerless was the practice of selecting/appointing them from their own professional contexts. As evident in the comments made by PFH-3, PUHM-5 and PCS-3 (pp.134-135), some of the headteachers worked with their staff as teachers before their appointment into such positions. The period of service as teachers provided an opportunity for them to relate as colleagues, leading to familiarity. However, this relationship was maintained on assuming a headship role (PCS-3), making it difficult for those headteachers to take any action that might displease their 'colleagues'. On the other hand, the remarks by PFH-3 and PUHM-5 suggested that teachers failed to adhere to instructions from their 'colleagues' who were elevated into headship positions (p.134-1135).

The behaviour of the headteachers and teachers might be a reflection of a norm prevailing in the society. In most Ghanaian traditional settings, people working under tribesmen and tribeswomen in professional positions in their communities do not always adhere to their instructions or accord them the needed respect because of familiarity. Yet, no disciplinary action is taken against them by their leaders. This is because the community norm requires the leaders to protect the tribesmen and tribeswomen and, sometimes, promote their interest, as already pointed out. Having worked with their headteachers before their appointment, it appeared that teachers saw their headteachers as 'tribesmen' /'tribeswomen' in professional positions and therefore refused to adhere to their instructions. However, those 'tribesmen'/'tribeswomen' could not take any disciplinary actions against the teachers because the norm prevented them from doing so. Because of this norm, most professionals prefer assuming positions in a non-native context rather than their own communities.

The attitude of the headteachers and the teaching staff portrayed a familiar or laissez-faire atmosphere. In such an environment, headteachers made efforts to maintain friendships at the expense of task performance or accomplishment. The effect of this relationship is that a considerable number of teachers do not commit themselves to the performance of their assigned tasks (Hoy and Clover, 2007), hampering the progress and development of the school.

Apart from the challenges encountered owing to their powerlessness, the interview findings revealed that the headteachers were concerned about the process of decision making within the GES.

## ii. Decision Making Process and Contextual Factors

The interviewees expressed concern that the government and GES authorities did not consult or involve headteachers in making decisions which affected the headteachers' professional practice (pp.152-153). It emerged that some of the decisions did not favour the headteachers, but they were powerless to alter them – they had to implement the decisions made by the authorities (pp.152-153). This is an example of autocratic decision making (Everard et al, 2004). Everard et al (2004) argue that this type of decision making is characterised by lack of consultation – 'others are informed of what is to be done and what is expected of them' (p.51). Autocratic decision making is desirable in emergency situations, when group members possess limited knowledge about the subject under consideration as suggested by PRMH-3 (p.154), and when the decisions are fairly easy to reach (Hoy and Tarter, 2007).

My research participants attributed the education authorities' failure to involve headteachers in decision making to the unitary system of

government being operationalised in the country, as pointed out in the comments made by PUMH-2 and PCS-1 (pp.153-154). As a feature of that political system, administration tends to be concentrated 'at one place' – usually the centre. This system appears to have influenced the structure of the country's educational system, which is unitary in nature. The findings suggested that the political system made it difficult for the authorities to 'go down there' to involve headteachers in educational decision making.

Jones (2005) argues that there are three levels of involvement in decision making, namely low involvement, medium involvement, and high involvement. With regard to low involvement, he explains that 'decisions are taken by leaders with seniority and are low on consultation' (p.129). Jones argues further that this approach has many characteristics, including telling and selling. In relation to telling, the team leader makes unilateral decisions without consulting the members, while with the selling, the 'team leader takes a decision, but others may question appropriateness' (Jones, 2005:129). Although Jones referred to decision making at organisational level, the low involvement approach seemed to reflect the decision making process within the GES. The failure to involve the headteachers in educational decisions, resulting in their criticism about the appropriateness of those decisions, meant that the decision making process in the GES was characterised by telling and selling. The headteachers lacked influence, which Hoyle (1986) defined as 'the form of power which stems from the capacity to shape decisions by informal or non-authoritative means' (p.74). Failure to involve subordinates in decision making affects their commitment to its implementation as evident in the comments made by PUMH-4 (pp.152 - 153).

Thus, the political system practised in the country, resulting in the failure of the government and GES authorities to involve headteachers in decisions made in the educational context, was another issue that was of concern to the headteachers. The data highlighted issues about management of students, as discussed next.

**iii. Student Management Issues and Concerns, and Influencing Factors**
The research findings revealed that management of students was another major issue for the headteachers. The problem had many dimensions. One aspect of it was their indiscipline and immoral behaviour (pp.97-98 & 139). Literature also highlighted student disciplinary problems in Ghana, including absenteeism, violent demonstration and riots and attributed them to diverse factors (pp.22-23). However, my study suggested that the rigid implementation of the 'Right of the Child' policy in the country was responsible for the problems headteachers encountered in managing students. My research participants believed that student indiscipline had increased since the implementation of the 'Right of the Child' policy, as the policy banned corporal punishment and imposed constraints on headteachers, as highlighted in the remarks by UMH-28, CS-7 (pp.100-101), PFH-2 and PCS-6 (pp.143). Corporal punishment, therefore, appeared to instil some discipline in the students. The data suggested that students were taking advantage of the restrictions imposed on headteachers/teachers by the policy (pp. 100-101 &143). The 'Right of the Child' policy is part of human rights and, therefore, it is not wrong in itself, but in the context of low education and traditional culture, it can be difficult to implement successfully.

Both the questionnaire and interview findings suggested that headteachers did not get the support of some parents, especially those in rural areas, to promote discipline among the students, as they often collaborated with their

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wards to attack the headteachers and their staff. The attitude of those parents was attributed to communication breakdown – they failed to attend meetings organised by the headteachers and visit the school to discuss their wards' welfare (pp.102-103 &142-143). Literature also emphasised the failure of parents and SMC members to attend meetings organised by headteachers (RPCRERG, 2002). It emerged that because parents did not maintain regular links with the schools, they received misguided information about the schools from their wards and misinterpreted disciplinary actions taken by headteachers and their teachers against their wards, as evident in comments made by CS-6 and UHM-33 (pp.102-103). MacNeil and Patin (2005) argue that parents contribute immensely to the academic development of their wards by involving themselves in the activities of the schools. This implies that non-collaborative and uncordial relationships between parents and school could affect parents' contribution to the academic development of their wards.

Another issue that concerned the headteachers was students' poor academic performance (pp.98-99). It emerged that students did not commit themselves to their studies, leading to their poor performance, especially in their final external examinations. The questionnaire data showed that students often spent more time on other activities, including watching videos and playing games and failed to do their homework (pp.101-102). Other respondents added that parents did not encourage their children to spend time on their studies, implying that parents' support for their wards was limited (pp.101-102). Parents play a significant role in the academic attainment of children (MacNeil and Patin, 2005). A study conducted in the USA by Henderson and Nancy (1994) indicated that 'efforts to improve children's outcome are much more effective when the family is actively involved' (p.1). This implied that efforts to raise academic attainments of the

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students in the context of the study would be difficult because of low parental involvement in their studies.

It also emerged from both the questionnaire and interview data that parents did not support their wards financially for several reasons. Some of them faced financial constraints. Oduro (2003) indicated that students in Ghana, particularly in rural settings, encountered difficulty in paying fees because their parents were farmers and fishermen who lived on seasonal income. Harber and Davies (2002) also noted that most parents in developing countries were unable to afford their wards' education because of poverty and high birth-rate. Failure of parents to support their wards financially leads to a high drop-out rate (Oduro, 2003). The questionnaire findings suggested that enrolment, particularly in urban areas, had increased because parents who could not previously afford their wards' education had enrolled them due to the introduction of the capitation grant (p.108). This implied that financial availability might generate parents' interest in their wards' education.

Nevertheless, the questionnaire findings suggested that some parents were reluctant to spend money on their wards' education because of the introduction of the capitation grant. They were unwilling to pay their wards' printing and examination fees to supplement school funding (p.107). It emerged that those parents had misconstrued the objective of the capitation grant as they thought that the government had catered completely for 'all that their children would need in school', as evident in the responses of FH-6 and CS-7 (p.107). Therefore, they saw no need to make any additional financial contribution, making it difficult for headteachers to raise the necessary income for the acquisition of resources to promote teaching and learning, and general development of the schools. The questionnaire data

suggested that the rural schools, in particular, did not have funds to renovate old structures (p.109). It appeared that the objective of the capitation grant had been wrongly communicated to parents.

It also came out of the interview data that other parents did not invest their income in educating their wards because they did not value education. The data suggested that this situation was more prevalent in the rural communities than the urban areas (pp.141-142). In such places, parents would often send their wards to farm rather than school because the role models were rich farmers, not educated people (p.142). Oduro and MacBeath (2003) also emphasised that girls in the rural areas of Ghana lacked female role models and this situation affected their attitude towards education. Wright et al (1997) argued that role models make an impact on students by giving them career counselling and advice. The absence of educated role models was a strong barrier to the education of children in the rural areas of the context of this particular study.

It emerged from the questionnaire and interview data that parents did not value girls' education and often failed to support them. Therefore, they performed worse than the male students (pp.98-99). This was interesting as literature showed that in some countries, female students perform better than male students (Holland, 1998). The interview data showed that in the rural areas, in particular, some parents with a negative attitude towards girls' education encouraged them to forgo their education to marry (PRMH-1, PCS-3). This was because the parents believed that educating their female wards would not directly benefit them, as evident in comments made by PRMH-1, PRMH-3 and PCS-3 (p.141). The comment made by PRMH-1 suggested parents attached more importance to boys' education than girls'. This implied that the drop-out rate was high for girls in those areas.

Research showed that in Ghana, 84 per cent of males and 81 per cent of females were enrolled in primary schools, but 83.3 per cent of males and 76.8 per cent of females participate in secondary schools (Girls' Education Unit, 2002 cited in Bush and Oduro, 2006).

The attitude of parents towards their female wards' education might be a reflection of a cultural belief about women's education among people in some traditional communities. Historically, some people in those communities believed that women's destination was the kitchen, making them pay less attention to their education. This prompted some eminent politicians to campaign for the education of females in the 1960's. It appeared that this historical attitude towards women's education is still prevalent among some rural folks.

The data also highlighted issues relating to the nature of the headteacher's roles and responsibilities, as discussed in the following section.

## iv. Headteachers' Role: Complexity and Multiplicity and Contextual Factors

Both the questionnaire and interview findings revealed that another issue that concerned the headteachers was related to the complexity and multiplicity of their roles and responsibilities, owing to the models of headship operationalised in that context. The findings revealed that some headteachers were officially instructed to combine administrative/ managerial and teaching roles (pp.103-104 & 155-156) – such headteachers led single-stream schools, usually a JSS. On the other hand, other headteachers were mandated to limit themselves to an administrative/ managerial role in double-stream schools, encompassing a JSS and a primary school and/or a kindergarten in one catchment area (pp.105-106 &

157-158). The single-stream headteachers were known as 'undetached', while the double-stream headteachers were referred to as 'detached' (PCS-1, p.155). Educational leadership and management literature suggested that principals in PNG (Lahui-Ako, 2001) and headteachers in England (Dimmock, 1996) were detached from teaching responsibilities. However, they administered single-stream schools, while the model described in my study suggested that the 'detached' headteachers managed many schools simultaneously.

The RPCRERG (2002) argued that headteachers in the basic schools in Ghana, who managed and taught at the same time, found it difficult to get adequate time for their managerial and supervisory functions, suggesting that such functions might be less effective. However, my research participants emphasised that the combination of the two roles often resulted in less time and attention for a teaching role, implying that this was less effective (pp.155-157). The participants attributed this situation to the numerous meetings the headteachers were required to attend, and to other multiple demands of their administrative role, including overall responsibility for administration of the institution/s. It appeared that the 'undetached' headteachers had dual tasks as classroom teachers and administrators/ managers simultaneously, leading to inter-role conflict (Merton, 1968). Merton argues that inter-role conflict occurs when headteachers are committed to two different roles simultaneously. Loder and Spillane argue that:

> The major source of this conflict is the differing sets of expectations and images associated with different roles. For example, there are both internally and externally driven expectations of what it means to

be a 'good teacher' and a 'good administrator'; yet these expectations may conflict.

(Loder and Spillane, 2005:266)

On the other hand, there was an agreement between the PHTs and the PCSs that the double-stream headteachers did not perform well because of the numerous and complex roles and responsibilities they performed (pp.157-158). Some comments in both the questionnaire and interview findings suggested that those headteachers had to fulfil differing expectations associated with their positions as 'good' JSS and primary school, and/or kindergarten headteachers' simultaneously. This could give rise to inter-positional conflict, impacting on headteachers' performance.

In spite of the complex and multiple roles and responsibilities performed by the headteachers, they were paid a small responsibility allowance of 10,000 cedis and 20,000 cedis for single-stream and double-stream headteachers respectively (pp.106 &159-160). This de-motivated the headteachers from working harder, as shown in the responses of RMH-2 (p.106), PCS-5, PRMH-5, and PFH-4 (p.159). The findings indicated that many headteachers were unsatisfied with their responsibility allowance and demanded an increase. Everard et al (2004) argue that people work in order to satisfy certain needs, including earning money for a living. Jones (2005) explains it further, maintaining that effective task performance was a function of the reward received or motivational level. In the case of participating headteachers, they were not earning enough, which could have implications for their motivation and performance. It appeared that the headteachers were more extrinsically motivated than intrinsically motivated.

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Thus, the study suggested that the complexity and multiplicity of the headteachers' roles and responsibilities, and low motivation owing to the payment of meagre responsibility allowances, were some of the factors affecting the headteachers' performance. Other factors were related to material and financial resources.

**v. Material Resource Acquisition: Issues and Influencing Factors**

Glover and Levacic distinguish between real resources and financial resources, arguing that:

> 'Real' resources are either human such as teachers, or physical resources such as buildings, furniture, materials of instruction, computers, textbooks and utilities (water, electricity, etc.) as against financial resources: the money, which is used to purchase human and physical resources.
>
> (Glover and Levacic, 2005:168)

Both the 'real' and the financial resources are relevant for the improvement of students' achievement. 'Therefore, it is imperative that educational organizations manage their finances and resources efficiently so as to secure the maximum learning benefits for students' (Glover and Levacic, 2005:167).

Glover and Levacic argue further that in some school systems, 'real' resources are supplied by the government, while in others money is allocated to the schools to purchase the 'real' resources they require. Both the questionnaire and the interview results suggested that teaching and learning materials were supplied directly by the government, but there was a problem with this system. The participants emphasised that there was late

supply of material resources, especially teachers' notebooks and registers (pp.108 & 144-146).

Educational leadership and management literature indicates that headteachers in Kenya and other developing countries faced many problems including shortage of physical facilities (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Letoglo and Westhuizan, 1996) (pp.23-25). These headship challenges were attributed to lack of funds for the schools (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Letoglo and Westhuizan, 1996).  However, the resource problems emphasised by the participants of my study were attributed to the fact that the resources were centrally-distributed and involved several bureaucratic constraints (pp.108 & 146-147) - they were dispatched from the GES headquarters in Accra to the local education office in the context of the study to be collected by the headteachers (pp.146-147). This caused huge delays in receiving materials, especially teachers' notebooks which often arrived around the middle of the academic year (PFH-1, PCS-3), posing problems to headteachers with regard to teaching and learning.

There were some further comments in the interview data suggesting that the material supply was delayed because the government might be expecting that the headteachers would use part of the capitation grant to obtain those materials required (p.147). However, there was no evidence in the data suggesting that the government had instructed the headteachers to use part of the grant to purchase the relevant materials. PCS-3 complained that even the grants for that academic year had not been received (p.147). This put enormous pressure on the headteachers to deal with the situation, as they had to mobilise funds to purchase exercise books for the teachers or ask them to use the old ones. However, the exercise books, in particular, were unsuitable for lesson notes preparation (pp.144-145). The late supply of

material resources to schools in the setting of this particular study constituted another barrier to teaching and learning.

The professional development needs of headteachers in the context of this particular study were highlighted in the data and these were discussed in the subsequent sections of this particular chapter.

**Part Two: Professional Development Needs of JSS Headteachers**

Both the questionnaire and interview data highlighted the professional development needs of aspiring and practising JSS headteachers. These are classified as follows:

- Preparation of JSS Headteachers
- INSET/CPD of JSS Headteachers

**i. Preparation of JSS Headteachers**

The elements of the concept of preparation highlighted in both the questionnaire and interview data were related to pre-headship training, selection/ appointment, and induction. Literature in the field of educational leadership and management suggested that there were no pre-headship programmes for headteachers in most developing countries, including Ghana (RPCRERG, 2002; Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Oplatka, 2004; Bush and Oduro, 2006). This was confirmed by my research participants (pp.109 -110). They saw pre-headship training as a key element of professional development. My research participants believed that the absence of such programmes made headteachers ill-equipped to perform their leadership roles, especially at the initial stages of their career, as evident in the comments made by UMH-7, RMH-3 and CS-6 (pp.109-110). The data suggested that the headteachers applied the experience acquired

through teaching to manage the schools in the absence of pre-headship training programmes. Similarly, Tsukudu and Taylor observed that in South Africa:

> In many instances …., headteachers come to headship without having been prepared for their new role….. As a result, they often have to rely on ….. experience and common sense ….. However, such are the demands being made upon managers now, including headteachers, that acquiring expertise can no longer be left out to common sense and character alone; management development is needed.
>
> (Tsukudu and Taylor, 1995:108-109)

The respondents - CSs and the headteachers - identified some common competences that pre-service programmes for aspiring headteachers in that context could equip them with, as listed in Fig 2 (p.112). The respondents also expressed some divergent views about the competences for aspiring JSS headteachers. The competences identified by all the respondents could be broadly categorised into human relations (inter-personal) competences; administrative competences; and organisational competences. However, the inter-personal competences seemed to be the most dominant among the three categories of competences required, particularly at the early career stage. As pointed out earlier, the headteachers' relationships with teachers and some parents were not cordial and this was, perhaps, why competences needed for improving human relations dominated the pre-headship competences identified. Because it was difficult to maintain positive cordial relationships with teaching staff and parents, it was necessary for aspiring headteachers to be prepared to handle such challenges.

The interview findings highlighted pre-headship training opportunities that should be provided for aspiring headteachers to equip them with the relevant competences. It emerged that PRESET programmes should be organised by the CSs for aspiring-headteachers-only, as shown in the comments made by PFH-1, PRMH-3 and PCS-1 (pp.161-162). According to the interviewees, the PRESET programmes would require identifying teachers with headship aspiration and equipping them with the relevant skills and competences for effective performance of their roles (pp.161-162). Since the programmes were proposed for aspiring headteachers alone, they would have the capacity to meet the needs of those candidates and offer them the opportunity to network for their professional growth and development both before and after appointment (Bush, 1998). The PRESET programmes suggested in my study were similar to NPQH in England and Wales and those provided by the National Institute of Education in Singapore (Bush, 1998), because they all focused on developing aspiring headteachers. However, the background experience of those selected for various programmes differed. Whereas my study suggested that ordinary teachers could be selected for the programmes, the candidates for the programmes in those countries were required to have leadership experience – whole-school level in England and Wales (Bush, 1998) and vice-principal position in Singapore (Bush, 1998). This implied that the PRESET needs of aspiring headteachers in the context of my study might be different from those in England, Wales and Singapore.

The interview findings also suggested that INSET programmes should be organised jointly for both aspiring and practising headteachers as part of the former's training (pp.162-163), as practised in Malta (Bezzina, 2002). The joint INSET programmes proposed could offer aspiring headteachers opportunities to interact with practising headteachers of various schools to

share knowledge and ideas. It could also serve as a platform for them to network with colleagues and practising headteachers, for their professional development. However, it might be difficult for the relevant knowledge and competences to be provided for aspiring headteachers since the programmes would also have to cater for the needs of practising headteachers simultaneously. Differentiation in the delivery of the programmes is, therefore, necessary to meet the needs of the aspiring headteachers. Bush and Oduro (2006) emphasise that specific aspiring headteachers require specific preparation 'if teachers, learners, and communities are to have the schools they need and deserve' (p.373).

It came out of the interview data that special courses should be introduced at the TTCs for teacher trainees who were aspiring for headship positions (p.163). The basis of such a proposal was that some inexperienced newly-qualified TTC graduates were directly posted as headteachers, particularly to the rural schools (Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006). Therefore, introducing such courses at the TTCs would prepare those with leadership ambition for their roles.

Another component of the concept of preparation that was highlighted in the questionnaire and interview data was selection/appointment of headteachers. The findings revealed that headteachers were appointed through a variety of criteria. One criterion was direct appointment which was often used for appointing NQTs from the TTCs as headteachers of rural schools; long-serving and experienced teachers, diploma-holders, and university graduates were also directly appointed as headteachers of urban schools, in particular (pp.115-116 & 164-167). It emerged that NQTs from TTCs were directly appointed as headteachers of rural schools because the highly-qualified teachers were unwilling to work in such places as

headteachers. Oduro (2003) also highlighted the direct appointment of NQTs as headteachers of rural schools, adding that the unattractive social lives discouraged the highly-educated teachers from applying for headship positions in such places.

Appointing long-serving and graduate headteachers directly suggested that the appointing officers operated on the assumption that highly experienced or qualified teachers necessarily become effective headteachers. Appointing urban headteachers directly contradicted the argument put forward by Oduro and Bush (2006) that headteachers in those places were appointed through interviews following their recommendation (pp.31-32). Some of the interviewees were of the view that direct appointment of headteachers based on their ranks and experience would deny young teachers headship opportunities (p.167). This view was confirmed in the questionnaire findings as the majority of headteachers were above 50 years of age (p.90). Others critiqued the direct appointment of highly-educated teachers as headteachers, arguing that higher qualification does not necessarily make them effective headteachers (p.168). Generally, the headteachers were not trained for their positions – they were rather trained as teachers, confirming the view of Harber and Davies (1997) that headteachers in Africa 'are chosen because they are good at one thing (teaching) and then put into the managerial role which can demand quite different skills' (p.77).

The interview findings revealed that some headteachers were also appointed through a system of succession. This system allowed an assistant headteacher to lead a school without being interviewed, when the headteacher either retired or was transferred (p.165). Thus, the 'next' headteacher of some schools was always known. The interview data suggested that some of the headteachers appointed through the succession

system assumed that position against their will (p.167). The succession criterion of appointment appeared to be a reflection of a customary practice of inheritance in some traditional communities in Ghana which allowed next-of-kin to individual family members, prior to their death, to be identified. In such societies, the next-of-kin would always assist the individual to manage, protect and secure his/her belongings and properties because he or she owned them. He or she had no right to reject the instruction of the elders to succeed the deceased family member.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, the existing criteria for selecting/appointing headteachers were critiqued as being unsatisfactory. Therefore, my research participants suggested several strategies for selecting/ appointing the 'right' candidate for headship positions for a better management of the schools.

> In the absence of formal requirements for leadership qualifications or training, administrators and/or communities require alternative criteria for recruiting and selecting principals (headteachers).
>
> (Bush and Oduro, 2006:365)

Dean (1995) argued that effective recruitment/selection involved job description, person specification and job advertisement, as noted earlier. The interviewees acknowledged advertisement of vacancies as an important aspect of appointment, but added that it should be followed by interviewing of interested candidates. The interviewing was seen by the majority of interviewees as an opportunity to assess the candidates' competence and efficiency (pp.158-169). Nevertheless, some PHTs argued that rigorous interviewing would discourage people from applying for headship positions in rural areas (pp.169-170), since lifestyles in such places were already

unattractive (Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003). Those interviewees suggested that headteachers for rural schools should be appointed directly in order to ensure enough headteachers for the schools. Likewise, the Institute of Educational Leadership (2004) indicated that it was difficult to get adequate numbers of principals (headteachers) in rural settings in some states in the USA. This was because many talented teachers did not show interest in leadership positions in such places, although such positions 'offered modest pay raise and a not-so-modest increase in expectations, including training, workload, and accountability' (p.2). Therefore, teachers with strong leadership potential were invited, given training, and appointed to lead rural schools.

My research participants also emphasised that candidates for headship positions must possess relevant academic and professional qualifications/ background and experience acquired through long service (pp.116-118). To PRHM-1, the long service would acquaint the candidates with the issues in the education service, while the high academic and professional qualification/s would enhance their understanding in addressing issues more effectively (p.170). Literature indicated the relevant qualification/s for headship positions in some countries. For instance, in some states in the USA, Diploma and Masters qualifications in educational leadership and management were required for principalship (Bajunid, 1996; Bush, 1998), while in Hong Kong, aspiring principals were mandated to hold a DEA qualification (Bush, 1998). Good qualifications have the potential to grant school leaders professional credibility.
.
In the questionnaire findings, both the highly-qualified and less-qualified respondent headteachers and CSs agreed that aspiring JSS headteachers should, in addition to the relevant academic and professional background

and experience, possess some professional qualities and some personal qualities (Fig 3, p.118). Apart from that, both the highly-educated headteachers and the majority of the CSs further agreed on additional professional and personal attributes aspiring JSS headteachers should possess, as listed in Fig 3 (p.118). Also, the headteachers with low educational background and some CSs expressed some divergent view on the both attributes. In Wales, headteachers are expected to bring to their headship role some personal and professional qualities acquired through personal experience. The personal qualities include commitment, confidence, consistency, impartiality and courage, while the professional qualities include understanding frameworks of accountability, ability to promote social inclusion and equal opportunities as well as to promote teamwork and work collaboratively (Department for Training and Education, 2004). Dimmock (2003) argues that qualities possessed by headteachers are considered to be generic. He noted, however, that they are expressed differently in different cultures. Coulson (1990) argues that headteachers' qualities influence the way they deal with the challenges they encounter in managing their schools.

Another component of preparation which emerged from the findings was induction. Literature in educational leadership and management suggested that formal induction of NAHs was an uncommon practice in most developing countries, including Ghana (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006). The absence of formal induction programmes for NAHs in the context of this particular study was blamed for some of the challenges they encountered in the early stages of their headship career (p.121). Literature indicates that induction programmes are necessary to expose NAHs to the relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes for better performance (O'Neil et al, 1994 cited in

Coleman, 1997; Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997). The respondent headteachers and CSs in my study acknowledged this view (p.121).

It emerged that induction programmes for headteachers in the context of the study were rather informal – they were initiated by the CSs and some education officers themselves. The induction process involved introducing the headteachers to the relevant knowledge and skills required for their tasks and what their role entailed, usually on a one-to-one basis (pp.170-172). It emerged that the informal induction programmes were inaccessible to some headteachers for two main reasons. Firstly, some headteachers served as assistant headteachers prior to their appointment to such positions, so it was assumed that they did not require any induction (p.172). The data suggested that the assistant headship position served as a training ground for their headship career and implied that they were mentored by their predecessors. This 'pre-service mentoring' arrangement appeared to agree with the proposal by Kitavi and Westhuizan (1997) that experienced principals should mentor assistant heads as future headteachers. However, whereas this involved a formal arrangement, the 'pre-service mentoring' practices found by my study were informal arrangements. Secondly, the CSs felt they did not participate in the appointment of the headteachers and, therefore, saw no need to carry out that responsibility. Comments made by some PCSs suggested that the only way they would induct NAHs would be if they participated in their appointment (p.173). This was interesting since literature in Ghana does not highlight their role in the appointment of headteachers.

The PCSs and PHTs proposed a number of strategies for inducting headteachers in the setting of the study. To begin with, they felt that a working group should be formed at cluster level for NAHs (p.173). A similar

study conducted in the UK and some developed countries in North America suggested that NAHs/NAPs in local areas were organised to support each other (Hobson et al, 2003). The formation of a working group for NAHs would have the potential to serve as a platform for headteachers in a locality to share ideas, skills and experiences and address their problems together.

The interviewees also proposed that a link should be established with university professionals for them to help beginning headteachers in addressing their problems (p.174). This suggested that support provided for them by 'local experts' was inadequate or less effective. The proposal that NAHs should receive support from university professionals who might be more experienced or knowledgeable appeared to be similar to mentoring (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Hobson et al, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006). However, whereas mentoring strategy allows inexperienced people/ professionals to depend on or to be attached to experienced, skilful professionals for their personal growth and professional development (Erasmus and Westhuizan, 1994), it appeared that the expert support from the university professionals would be provided as and when necessary.

The interviewees also felt that a manual for beginning headteachers would be useful for their induction (p.173). The manual would serve as a guide to the headteachers in performing their roles. Oduro (2003) indicated that the GES had produced a headteachers' manual to guide them in carrying out their day-to-day functions. The proposal for a manual for beginning headteachers therefore suggested that the one produced by the GES was less effective or inadequate in addressing their needs. This highlighted the need for the development of differentiated manuals for headteachers – a manual for beginning headteachers and another one for the experienced ones.

It came out of the interview findings that, as part of the NAHs' induction, they should be trained in specific areas, as listed in page 173. These areas were also noted in the training needs of aspiring and practising headteachers, implying that they were very significant for better performance of management roles and responsibilities. A study conducted by Hobson et al (2003), however, indicated that the NAHs in England and Wales were exposed to personnel and financial issues. The differences in the competences identified by these two studies might be attributed to contextual differences. As noted earlier, Bush and Jackson (2003) argued that headteachers operate in different political, social and professional contexts and, therefore, programmes have to be adapted to their varied needs.

The findings of the questionnaires and interviews in relation to the professional development needs of the practising headteachers in the setting of the study are discussed in the next section.

**INSET/CPD Needs of JSS Headteachers**

My research participants considered INSET as an important aspect of professional development of headteachers in the setting of the study. They highlighted the weaknesses of the existing programmes and suggested various ways for improving them for the benefit of the headteachers.

> The design and content of training programmes should be geared towards developing requisite skills and knowledge to enable trainees to transfer their skills and knowledge.. … to the school situation.
>
> (Westhuizan et al, 2004:717)

The INSET programmes offered for headteachers were critiqued as inappropriate for their professional growth and development. The data suggested that the programmes had no bearing on the areas where they needed improvements (p.124-125 & 174-175), affecting attendance (p.124). The participants complained of absence of relationship between the content of the courses offered and the training needs of the headteachers, as found by other studies in the case of Kenya (Wanzare and Ward, 2000) and the Latin American and Caribbean regions (Borden, 2002). Borden argued that headteachers in those regions found it difficult to understand the content of courses and their execution in the school context. My research participants emphasised the need to assess the training needs of the headteachers and to incorporate them into the design of the programmes if they were going to be useful in improving their professional practice (p.124-125 & 174-175). This strategy is also used in the training of practising headteachers in England and Wales (Bush, 1998).

The questionnaire data emphasised certain skills and competences required by practising headteachers to manage their schools more effectively (Fig 4, p.127). Apart from the respondent headteachers in various locations and CSs identifying certain common competences, each category of them expressed some divergent views which appeared to have influenced by their status. The interview data also highlighted some competences required by headteachers for addressing the challenges they faced in that context (Fig 5, p.149). As evident from the diagram, there were some commonalities and variations in these competences identified by the interviewees. The differences might also be due to differences in the positions being occupied by the interviewees, as noted in the previous chapter.

Moreover, a comparison of both the questionnaire and interview findings showed some commonalities in the skills and competences required the practising headteachers (Fig 4, p.127 & Fig 5, p.149). Both the respondent headteachers and the CSs also agreed on some additional competences needed by the headteachers, as evident from in Fig 4 (p.127). Similarly, both the PHTs and the PCSs mentioned the competences required by the headteachers, as shown in Fig 5 (p.149). Literature also highlights the skills and competences required by headteachers/principals in various contexts (pp.47-49). The findings showed that some of the skills and competences needed by the practising headteachers were also common to those identified for the aspiring headteachers. This suggested that they were very significant for the performance of management roles and responsibilities in that context. Since the practising headteachers did not get any pre-headship training opportunities to develop such competences, they must acquire them through INSET programmes.

Apart from the content of the programmes, both the questionnaire and interview data suggested that the participants were dissatisfied with various aspects of the existing INSET programmes. In the first place, they were concerned about the methods used by the resource persons for delivering the programmes. The data suggested that the main methods were lecturing, discovery methods and seminars (pp.123-124 & 175). It emerged that the lecturing method was, however, the most dominant method used, yet it did not encourage headteachers participation in the programmes, making them passive recipients of knowledge instead of active participants. Literature suggests that this method is a top-down approach and, therefore, it is unlikely to have any positive impact on the professional practice of participants (Joyce and Showers, 1982).

Both the PHTs and the PCSs suggested a variety of methods for delivering INSET programmes, as listed on page 175. It appeared that the suggested methods would have the potential to encourage not only trainer-participant interaction, but also participant-participant interaction. This might help participants to overcome the boredom associated with the lecture method. The questionnaire findings suggested that the seminars and discovery method were appropriate for delivering the programmes because they were activity-oriented, allowing participants to interact among themselves and with their trainers (pp.123-124). However, it was interesting that seminars were not mentioned by the interviewees in their suggestion of appropriate methods for delivering the programmes.

My research participants also expressed concerns about the resource persons used for INSET programmes. They believed that the resource persons were incompetent and ineffective – they lacked knowledge about the topics they handled (pp.123 & 176). This implied that the programmes did not adequately meet the needs of the participants – the headteachers. Similarly, Tekleselassie (2002) indicated that limitations of INSET programmes in Ethiopia included incompetence on the part of trainers, leading to unresponsive and ill-prepared trainees. Bush and Oduro (2006) argued that there was a need to train the trainers of headteachers in Africa for effective INSET programmes. My research participants also acknowledged this view. In the interviews, the PHTs, particularly suggested that effective INSET provision would require securing the services of resource persons with comprehensive knowledge about the content of the programmes, who would have the capacity to respond to issues raised by participants (p.176). The CSs who participated in the study were, however, silent about the weaknesses of the resource persons used for the programmes, perhaps because some of them assumed that position during

INSETs in the Ghanaian educational context (MoE, 2002; RPCRERG, 2002; Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006); this could happen especially if the chosen topic matched their area of expertise (MoE, 2002). The CSs rather argued that it was difficult to get resource persons with the requisite knowledge and skills to handle some topics during INSETs (CS-3, CS-5, p.123).

The location of the INSET programmes in the municipality was another aspect of the existing INSET programmes critiqued by my research participants. The findings suggested that the programmes were organised at one centre for all headteachers. However, the participants felt that the challenges facing headteachers and the competences they required varied from one location to another and, therefore, centralising the programmes was inappropriate for meeting their needs (pp.125-126 & 176-177). Thus, the participants suggested that INSET programmes should be differentiated. They proposed two main strategies for organising the programmes, namely Circuit-based and cluster-based INSETs. It emerged that the Circuit-based approach would require all the headteachers in each Circuit to converge at one place within the Circuit for INSETs, while the cluster-based approach would allow the headteachers to meet in various localities for INSETs (pp.125-126& 176-177). Hargreaves (2003) suggests that differentiating training programmes for headteachers is more beneficial than organising a single programme for 'them all'. However, it appeared that financial constraints would pose problems to the implementation of such arrangements. This was because the non-governmental organisations, normally the international agencies that sponsored INSET programmes in the country, did not allocate adequate funds for the organisation of the programmes (Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006), as already indicated.

The questionnaire findings suggested that the timing of INSET programmes was inappropriate, as found by other studies in the same country (Oduro, 2003) and the Latin American and Caribbean regions (Borden, 2002). However, whereas these studies raised issues about timing in terms of the duration of the programmes, the respondents in my study were concerned that the programmes were organised at short notice and normally during school hours (p.122-123). The short advance notice given affected the headteachers' preparation for the programmes negatively. This approach to the INSET programmes appears to be a reflection of a lifestyle in most communities in Ghana, whereby community members visit each other without notice or at short notice. In such cases, the host abandons all his or her activities to attend to the guest, because failure to do that violates the communal living principle, attracting criticism from the group members.

The questionnaire data suggested that organising the programmes during teaching times made the headteachers lose some contact hours when they attended the programmes, especially those with teaching responsibilities. The respondents suggested that the vacation periods were the most appropriate and convenient periods for organising the programmes (p.122-123), as the case in Latin American and Caribbean regions (Borden, 2002). It seemed that organising the programmes in the vacations would enable the headteachers to avoid interruptions in carrying out their administrative and teaching roles and responsibilities.

My research participants were also dissatisfied with the transportation allowance given to headteachers during INSETs, and the way they were refreshed. It emerged that participants of the INSET programmes were given inadequate transportation allowance and this affected attendance negatively (pp.124 & 178). PRMH-3, for instance, said that he spent more on

transportation than the allowance given to him for that purpose, so he would not attend subsequent programmes if the allowance was not improved (p.178). The interview findings suggested that improvement of transportation was required in order to improve attendance at the programmes, as evident in the comments made by PRMH-3 and PCS-1 (p.178). Additionally, the findings revealed that participants of the INSET programmes were poorly refreshed, although the sessions were prolonged and this also affected attendance (pp.178-179). The fact that attendance at programmes was dependent on the transportation allowance given and quality of food served implied that some headteachers were more extrinsically motivated than intrinsically motivated.

The interview findings suggested that headteachers in the municipality should be provided with additional INSET opportunities. These proposals were probably made because the existing INSET programmes were critiqued as unsatisfactory. It emerged that headteachers should be sponsored to undertake distant learning courses in leadership and management run by higher education institutions in the country (pp.179-180). These courses would not only enhance the professional status of the headteachers, especially those with low academic qualifications, but would also upgrade their knowledge and skills for more effective management of their schools. However, learning on a distant basis might be difficult for headteachers in rural settings in particular, because of lack of access to technology. The internet and other information technology facilities are accessible to only a few people, who are in the urban centres in the country. This implies that headteachers in the rural areas would have to travel to the urban centres to access such facilities or travel to the course providers. This situation might interrupt their activities, especially if the courses were run during term times.

It also came of out of the interview findings that universities in the country should introduce regional-based courses for headteachers, which would be run during the vacations (p.180). These courses would also have the potential to equip headteachers with the knowledge and competences required for their roles and enhance their professional status. The reason for suggesting university-run regional based programmes delivered during the vacations appeared to be accessibility. The headteachers, as already noted, carried out multiple and complex roles and responsibilities and, therefore, might not want to 'move away' from their schools to attend the programmes, especially during term times. Educational leadership and management literature indicated that headteachers/principals in some countries in the Latin American and Caribbean regions met at regional education centres to access INSET programmes which were run through distance learning technologies (Borden, 2002).

The interviewees proposed the formation of cluster-based working groups for practising headteachers for their professional growth and development (p.180). This was consistent with the findings of a number of studies conducted in Wales, which suggested that cluster arrangement was used for addressing managerial, administrative, and curriculum-related problems encountered by primary school headteachers in that country (Potter and Williams, 1994; Ribchester and Edwards, 1998). Educational leadership and management literature in Africa also suggested that Kenya had developed primary school headteachers working groups, comprising the headteachers themselves, education officers, and members of the community to foster effective management of the schools (Harriot et al, 2002).

It emerged from the interview data that the cluster-based working group would require sponsoring individual headteachers within the cluster to attend leadership and management conferences/ programmes and to share their acquired knowledge and competences with their fellow headteachers. Thus, this working group would serve as a forum for sharing ideas and seeking support from each other for effective performance. The cluster-based working group proposed by the interviewees is, in a sense, similar to networking, which involves developing and using contacts to secure information, advice and support for achieving set goals (Duvall, 1980). However, whereas the interviewees felt it should be organised at cluster levels, networking could have wider coverage (Hobson et al, 2003) – it could involve headteachers and other professionals in any part of the country, or even outside the country.

**Summary**

In this chapter, the data provided by the respondents and the interviewees contained in chapters four and five respectively have been discussed in relation to literature, especially those reviewed in chapter 2. The chapter also discussed my research findings on issues and concerns for headteachers in the setting of the study together with the factors responsible for such issues, followed by my research findings relating to the preparation of aspiring headteachers and the INSET needs of practising headteachers. The next chapter will present the main findings of this study. In particular, it will show how the key research questions set out in chapter one have been addressed, and will highlight other relevant issues.

**Chapter 7: Conclusion**

**Introduction**

This is the final chapter which provides a brief overview of the study, highlighting major findings to draw conclusions and to suggest a way forward. This chapter is categorised into five sections. The first section demonstrates how the original research questions and objectives set out in chapter one have been answered. The main findings are summarised under the research questions. The second section discusses the significance of the study. Section three focuses on retrospective evaluation of the study and discusses its limitations. This is followed by the fourth section which covers recommendations for professional practice. The fifth section highlights new areas open for further research.

As already noted, the purpose of this study was to investigate the problems facing JSS headteachers in the Sunyani municipality of Ghana and their professional development needs. Therefore, three objectives were set out and these were to: 'provide better understanding of the issues and concerns for JSS headteachers'; 'identify the training needs of the headteachers'; and to 'identify strategies for the professional development of JSS headteachers'. To achieve these objectives, a case study informed by the interpretive paradigm was designed around the following four research questions:

- What are the issues and concerns for JSS headteachers in a municipality in Ghana?
- What factors contribute to these issues and concerns?
- How can aspiring JSS headteachers be prepared to cope with the demands they face in the Ghanaian educational context?
- What are the training needs of practising JSS headteachers, and how can these needs be attended?

In chapter two, the conceptual framework identified the problems facing headteachers in Ghana and other countries, especially in the developing world, and the factors responsible for these problems. It also discussed the concepts of 'preparation' and 'CPD' or 'INSET' in relation to school headship and identified some existing models in some countries. The knowledge acquired from that conceptual framework guided and influenced the process of data collection. It also guided the development of themes from the data collected. The conclusions drawn answer the four key research questions re-stated above.

**Main Findings of the Study**

The first research question explored the issues and concerns for the headteachers. The study suggested that the headteachers had many issues and concerns. To begin with, they were concerned with indiscipline and lack of commitment on the part of their teachers. These problems took many forms, namely teachers' lack of concern about students' progress, failure to prepare lesson notes, ineffective use of teaching hours, lateness and absenteeism (p.92), and their failure to cooperate with the headteachers (pp.131-132). Additionally, the findings indicated that the headteachers were dissatisfied that the government and the GES officers did not involve them in decisions made in the educational context, although they as headteachers had the responsibility to implement such decisions. They complained that some of the decisions did not favour them, but they were powerless to alter them (pp.152-153).

Furthermore, the study revealed that the headteachers were concerned about indiscipline on the part of their students. This took the form of lateness and absenteeism, drinking and smoking, lack of commitment to studies and sexual immorality on the part of some female students (pp.97-98 &139). The

headteachers were often attacked by parents and students, especially in the rural settings, whenever they attempted to discipline such students for their indiscipline and behaviour problems (pp.99-100). The study suggested that the headteachers were also worried about poor academic performance of their students, especially the females (pp.99 -100). Also, the study revealed that the headteachers were dissatisfied that some parents, especially in the rural areas, encouraged their female wards to forgo their education in order to marry, thereby failing to support them (pp.138 &141).

The study suggested that the headteachers carried out complex and multiple roles and responsibilities, which made high demands on their time and time management, affecting their performance negatively (pp.103-105 & 155-158). In addition to that, they were given a meagre responsibility allowance as headteachers. The data suggested that single-stream and double-stream headteachers received 10, 000 cedis and 20, 000 cedis respectively as their monthly responsibility allowance, but some interviewees said that such allowance was not paid regularly (pp.106 &159-160). It emerged that the complexity and multiplicity of the headteachers' roles and responsibilities, and poor motivation affected their performance negatively.

Another concern of the headteachers, according to the study, was late supply of teaching and learning resources, especially teachers' lesson notebooks and registers (pp.108 & 144-146).  It emerged that these materials were often received beyond the middle of the academic year, affecting teaching and learning.  The headteachers had to improvise by asking teachers to continue using their old notebooks or soliciting funds to procure exercise books for teachers to use as notebooks, but such exercise books were inappropriate for lesson notes preparation (pp.144-145).

The study also revealed that the headteachers were concerned about poor school funding. It emerged that the government-allocated funds were insufficient, making them turn to parents for additional financial support in the form of payment of their wards' examination or printing fees. However, this financial expectation from parents could not be fulfilled, making it difficult for the headteachers to get adequate funds for management of the schools (pp.106-108 & 139-140). These findings highlighted a multiplicity of concerns linked to management of staff, students and material and financial resources, as well as pointing to issues in the education system and processes therein, which added to the problems and challenges of these headteachers.

The second research question asked the participants to identify the causes of the issues and concerns for the headteachers. Several factors emerged from the study. On the issue of lack of commitment on the part of the teachers, their discipline problems, and their uncooperative attitudes, the study revealed that the headteachers had not been empowered by the GES to discipline and sanction teachers. It came out from the findings that the leading education officers in the municipality had the authority to discipline teachers who behaved inappropriately, but they often failed to take disciplinary action against them, especially if the teachers were their relatives or relatives of colleagues (pp.94-95 & 135-137).

The findings suggested that several factors, including the processes of their appointment, contributed to disempowering the headteachers. Appointment by seniority/experience meant that sometimes headteachers who were appointed through this procedure held lower academic and professional qualification/s than some of their teachers. In that context, the headteachers found it difficult to manage teachers who were better qualified than

themselves. The responses of some of the PCSs revealed that at times other teachers performed certain of their headteachers' tasks for them, because they lacked the relevant knowledge and skills (pp.96 & 135-136). This lack of expert power (Hoyle, 1986) on the part of headteachers in that culture eroded their authority as headteachers. Furthermore, the headteachers found it difficult to control and win the cooperation of their teachers, especially if they were promoted to such positions from the schools in which they worked as teachers. Because of the headteachers' familiarity with their teachers, they did not want to do anything that might offend them. On the other hand, this familiarity made the teachers disregard the instructions of their headteachers (pp.134-135). It appeared a familiar atmosphere prevailed in the schools.

The study suggested that the country's unitary political system and its impact on the educational system was responsible for the government's and GES's failure to involve headteachers in decision making in that context. Due to the political system, it was difficult for the decision-makers to 'go down there' to involve headteachers in making decisions which affected their work. This affected some headteachers' commitment to the implementation of such decisions (pp.152-153). Hoy and Tarter (2007) argue that involving subordinates in decision making has the potential to improve the quality of decisions and generate their commitment to the execution of such decisions.

My research participants attributed the student management problems encountered by headteachers to diverse factors. Student indiscipline was blamed on rigid implementation of the 'Right of the Child' policy in that educational context.  It emerged that by preventing headteachers from administering corporal punishment to students, the policy had weakened discipline among them in that culture (pp.100-101 & 143). The participants

also believed that students performed poorly in their academic examinations because they lacked commitment to their studies at home and their parents did not take a keen interest in their education at home (pp.101-102). It emerged that parents encouraged their female wards to drop-out of school to marry because the parents would not benefit from their education after investing in it – their husbands would rather be the beneficiaries (p.141). The parents' negative attitude towards female education affected the support they provided for their female wards, leading to poor performance (p.102).

The participants believed that headteachers performed complex and multiple roles and responsibilities because of the models of headship operationalised in the context of the study. It emerged that some of the headteachers had been mandated to combine both administrative and teaching roles (single-stream/undetached headteachers). Others had the responsibility of managing many schools - usually a JSS and a primary school, and/ or a kindergarten simultaneously (double-stream/detached headteachers) (pp.103-105 & 155-158).

The participants attributed the delay in the supply of teaching and learning materials mentioned above to the centralisation of material distribution by the GES. It emerged that this involved multiple processes, affecting teaching and learning in that context (pp.108 & 146-147). The interview data suggested that the supply of teachers' notebooks was delayed because the government might expect that the capitation grant it gave to schools would be used to procure the required resources. However, the schools had not received any grant for that academic year (PCS-3; p. 147).

The parents' failure to support their wards financially was attributed to two main reasons. First, some faced financial problems. Second, others had

misconceived the objective of the capitation grant – they believed that the capitation grant given by the government was intended for all the materials their wards needed in school (pp.107-108).

The third research question asked how aspiring headteachers could be prepared to cope with the demands in the Ghanaian educational context. This research question revealed several pre-headship competences required by aspiring headteachers and the training opportunities through which they could be equipped with those competences. The question also identified strategies for appointing and inducting headteachers. Both the respondent headteachers and CSs emphasised that pre-headship training programmes should equip aspiring headteachers with skills and competences to manage finance and time effectively; keep records; promote school-community relationships; deal with teacher misbehaviour; manage teachers from diverse backgrounds; develop teacher leadership; create a positive school culture; promote teacher collaboration; exercise power meaningfully; prepare school performance improvement plan; make effective decisions; use and vary leadership styles; and to expose them to the roles and responsibilities of a headteacher (Fig 2, p.112). The interviewees felt that these competences could be provided through the introduction of aspiring-headteachers-only programmes, joint INSETs of aspiring and practising headteachers, and TTC based courses (pp.161-163).

Moreover, this study highlighted the existing and new strategies/criteria for selecting/appointing headteachers in the context of this study. The participants considered the existing criteria as inappropriate for several reasons (pp.167-168). Therefore, they suggested diverse strategies and criteria for selecting headteachers for different reasons and contexts. They proposed that to appoint 'right' candidates for headship positions, the

vacancies must always be advertised for interested candidates to apply and be interviewed. However, a direct appointment criterion should be used for appointment of headteachers in rural settings. This was because the application-interview system, coupled with unattractive social lifestyles, would discourage highly-qualified aspiring headteachers from applying for vacancies in those areas (pp.169-170). Also, both the respondent headteachers and the CSs suggested that aspiring headteachers should possess some professional qualities. They believed aspiring headteachers should be experienced teachers, visionary, effective communicators, confident, and be fair and firm. The respondents also emphasised that aspiring headteachers should possess a good working philosophy, high sense of responsibility, inter-personal and staff development skills, and be able to promote collaboration, and work with people with diverse qualities (Fig 3, p.118). Additionally, it came out of the study that aspiring headteachers should demonstrate some personal qualities, which were moral soundness, tolerance, trustworthiness, emotional stability, peacefulness and prudence, and respectability (Fig 3, p.118). The participants also proposed that experienced candidates with relevant academic and professional qualifications should be appointed as headteachers (pp.116-117).

The questionnaire data pointed out that induction was very significant for preparing NAHs for a smooth transition to the position. Several strategies for inducting them emerged from the interview data. These strategies were the formation of a NAHs' working group at cluster level, expert support for them from university professionals, and production of a NAHs' manual. The interview data also suggested that beginning headteachers should be exposed to instructional supervision, teacher motivation, office

administration, headteachers' roles, information management and be equipped with inter-personal skills, as part of their induction (pp.173-174).

The final research question looked at the INSET/CPD needs of practising headteachers. The participants believed that the programmes organised for headteachers were inappropriate for their professional growth and development because the contents were inappropriate. Therefore, they felt that the training needs of headteachers should be assessed prior to the programmes and factored into their design (pp.124-125 & 174-175). The research participants also identified a variety of skills and competences required by headteachers for effective task performance. They felt that the practising headteachers should be equipped with skills and competences to keep records; promote school-community relationship and teacher discipline; supervise, appraise and motivate teachers, and maintain professional relationships with them; develop staff; manage and solve problems/conflicts; delegate duties; manage finance, human and limited material resources; manage instructional time; promote collaboration and accountability; and to prepare and vet lesson notes (Fig 4, 127& Fig 5, p.149).

Moreover, the study suggested that the resource persons used for the programmes were often incompetent. This was because they did not have comprehensive knowledge about the topics they taught and employed inappropriate methods to deliver the programmes. Several methods for delivering the programmes were also suggested by the research participants, including group team-teaching, discussion/presentation, demonstration, problem-solving, discovery and brainstorming methods. They believed that these strategies would enhance the headteachers' participation in the programmes (p.175).

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The participants argued that the needs of headteachers were a function of the locality in which they operated and, therefore, the programmes needed to be organised on a Circuit and cluster basis to cater for their varied needs. Thus, they demanded differentiated INSET programmes. According to the research participants, the existing way of organising INSET programmes in the municipality, whereby all headteachers met at one location, was inappropriate in meeting their diverse needs (pp.125-126 & 176-177). The study showed that the programmes were ill-timed since they were organised at short notice and during school hours. It emerged that the most appropriate timing for the organisation of programmes was vacation periods (pp.123-124). Additionally, the study found that some headteachers often failed to attend INSET programmes because they were given inadequate transportation allowance and were poorly refreshed, in addition to inappropriate contents. The participants felt that transportation allowance and refreshments needed to be improved to encourage attendance (pp.124 & 178).

The PHTs and PCSs believed that headteachers required additional training opportunities in order to develop professionally. They felt that opportunities should be offered for headteachers to study educational leadership and management courses at universities on a distance learning basis. Also, they demanded that the universities in the country should introduce regional-based courses for headteachers during vacations. Lastly, they suggested the establishment of a cluster-based collaborative headship scheme which would allow individual headteachers to be sponsored occasionally to attend leadership and management conferences, and to share knowledge and ideas gained with their colleagues within the cluster (pp.179-180).

**Significance of the Study**

This study contributes to literature on the problems facing headteachers/principals in general, and to the issues and concerns for headteachers in Sunyani municipality and Ghana in a significant way. Literature in Ghana indicates that headteachers of basic schools, including JSSs, encounter problems relating to leadership and management, without highlighting the issues and concerns for the headteachers. A better understanding of what constitutes the concerns of headteachers in the Sunyani municipality has been developed through the themes relating to teacher management issues and responsible factors; student management issues and influencing factors; decision making process and contextual factors; the nature of headteachers' role and contextual factors; and material and financial resource acquisition and influencing factors (pp.91-109 & 130-160). Such awareness helps stakeholders in education in the municipality, especially the government officials, to develop appropriate and effective strategies and policies to address the problems.

This research also contributes to knowledge about preparation of aspiring headteachers and training of practising headteachers in Ghana. There is an on-going debate about the impact of pre-headship training on the performance of headteachers in the Ghanaian educational setting (Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006). The themes relating to pre-headship, appointment and induction shed light on the issues involved in preparation of headteachers in the Ghanaian educational context. This study thus contributes to the on-going debate about headship preparation. Also, by presenting a picture of how headteachers are prepared for their roles and how the participants think they should be prepared, this study provides a new direction for further debate.

Headteachers in the Ghanaian educational context have been affected by the educational reforms carried out by the government since 1987, which call for them to be re-trained (Oduro, 2003). By highlighting the limitations of the current INSET programmes and identifying the competences required by practising headteachers and additional INSET opportunities, this research informs local policy on leadership development, especially at the JSS level. To consolidate the Ghanaian government's efforts towards quality education provision, the municipal education officers make efforts to improve leadership and management in schools by running in-service courses for headteachers. This study will help training providers to identify the training/CPD needs of headteachers.

A key finding of my study, however, lies in unveiling the factors responsible for the disempowerment of the headteachers. As already noted, Evetts (2002) highlighted the factors responsible for the disempowering of headteachers in the UK (p.184). Although literature in Ghana emphasises that basic school headteachers, including those in JSSs lack authority, no study has attempted to identify the factors responsible for that situation. The responses of the participants (pp.96 &134-136) help us to understand that if headteachers in that context have lower qualification/s than the teachers they manage, controlling and winning the teachers' cooperation becomes problematic. Moreover, the responses of the interviewees help us to understand that appointing headteachers from among colleagues with whom they worked creates a familiarity culture, affecting the headteachers' authority and school progress negatively in that society.

Another key finding of this study relates to the influence of culture on the performance of management roles. As indicated earlier, diverse criteria, which reflected the culture of 'respect for the elderly' in Ghana, were used to

appoint headteachers in the context of the study. It appeared that attention was paid more to culture rather than possession of requisite knowledge and skills in the appointment of candidates for management positions. Headteachers who paid attention to the 'age factor' found it difficult to control or instruct their elderly staff, as indicated by PUMH-2 (p. 135).

Lastly, a number of studies have been conducted into primary school headship (Oduro, 2003; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006) and secondary school leadership (Abbey 1989, cited in Harber and Davies, 2002; Dadey, 1990 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002). None of the existing literature in Ghana provides adequate information on leadership and management at JSSs. This study is a groundbreaking one as it lays a foundation for future research into school headship at that level. Generally, this study has the potential to improve headteachers' practice by making them reflect on practice and policy. Their effectiveness will, in turn, translate into improved student learning.

**Limitation of the Study**

The limitations of this particular study are essentially those inherent in any qualitative research. Firstly, critics of the case study approach argue that generalising the findings of such studies is difficult and unreliable because of their limited coverage (Cohen et al, 2007), as already indicated. According to Stake (2000), a case study lends itself to 'naturalistic generalisation', not 'scientific generalisation', as a survey does. The application of the findings of a case study becomes even more difficult when the case studied is a negative or abnormal case (Denscombe, 2003). As already noted, my aim of conducting this study was to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation in the Sunyani municipality only. Nevertheless, because the case was a typical one (Denscombe, 2003),

there was the possibility for readers to transfer the outcomes to their individual contexts, if they identified commonalities between their contexts and that of this particular study. Also, the findings of this study can be used in close association with others conducted in the Ghanaian educational context to enhance understanding of the challenges facing headteachers of other schools outside the setting of the study and their professional development needs.

Moreover, since the research instruments often gathered the views and opinions of the participants, I realised that some of the participants could potentially be identified. The threat to confidentiality and anonymity of information provided by the CSs was especially higher, considering the number selected for the interviews. Therefore, I decided to exclude from the data any comments/quotations that could expose the identity of any of the participants. Henn et al (2006) argue that 'in deciding what to include and what not to, we must accept that we are introducing a degree of subjectivity' (p.240), but I ensured that I presented 'a balanced picture of the data from different participants which provides an account of the competing perspectives found in the data' (p. 240).

The findings of a case study could be influenced by the personal opinions and beliefs of the researcher, leading to subjectivity (Verma and Mallick, 1999; Muijs, 2004). Being a professional in the field of educational leadership and management, who also studied and taught in the Ghanaian educational context, I had developed some understandings and had some preconceived notions about school leadership and professional development activities in that context. Therefore, there could have been a temptation to allow the interpretation of the questionnaire and interview data to fit these understandings and preconceptions rather than allowing

the data or the participants to speak for themselves. Being aware of this, I deliberately 'avoided relying on initial intuitive interpretation rooted in my own personal experience' (Davis, 2002: 512 quoted in Jones et al, 2006:126).

Merriam et al (1998) draw researchers' attention to potential bias which could occur when data collection, construction and analysis are not rigorous. In this study, attempts were made to ensure that the procedures for collecting the data were trustworthy. Firstly, both the questionnaire and the interviews were piloted before their execution, and, secondly, two methods were used to collect data from both the headteachers and the CSs. These ensured that the data was triangulated, eliminating any potential bias.

Furthermore, Denscombe (2003) perceives a case study as gathering superficial data and lacking rigour in analysis. He argues further that the approach is appropriate for describing a situation, but inappropriate when evaluations are required. Contrary to this argument, Muijs (2004) indicates that qualitative approaches, including a case study, are appropriate if researchers want to get 'under the skin' (p.9) of a problem, as noted earlier. Using semi-structured questionnaire to gather the views of headteachers and CSs in the first phase of the study and semi-structured interviews to explore issues further in the second phase ensured that the data collection process was rigorous.

Another limitation of this study was related to the sampling of the population of the study, which consisted only of the headteachers and CSs in one municipality because of time constraints and other practicalities. I recognise that other stakeholders in the schools such as parents, teachers, students and Boards of Governors had something to say about the phenomenon

investigated. The exclusion of these stakeholders was felt, especially during the presentation of the findings and the data analysis, because their views could have the potential to clarify some issues raised by the participants.

In spite of these limitations, it could be said that the case study approach was appropriate for the study. It was suitable for answering the key research questions set out in the introductory chapter, and allowed the problems facing the headteachers and their professional development needs to be investigated.

**Recommendations for Professional Practice**

> For what purpose do I engage as a researcher in this way? It is not for the sake of research itself that researchers should embark upon this work but rather to improve the lives of others. Interpretive research is initiated for the purpose of improving the world through more informed action.
>
> (Arminio and Hultgren, 2002:457 quoted in Jones et al, 2006:132)

The quotation above confirms the importance of recommendations in any piece of research, especially those located in an interpretive-qualitative framework. Jones et al (2006) indicate that 'recommendation should allow for the empowerment of the people and improvement in the quality of life' (p.132). Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations could be made for the headteachers to improve their professional practice. Whereas some of them have to be considered at the local level (context of this study) after a critical consideration of the local and contextual factors, others need to be given attention at national level (i.e. by the GES and the government).

The headteachers in the context of this study were perceived as 'helpless' in managing their staff. One step towards improving the situation can be to empower them. This can be done in several ways. Firstly, power/authority needs to be decentralised within the GES. Secondly, headteachers need to be offered professional development opportunities to develop leadership and management skills. This will enable them to gain expert power which Hoyle (1986) defines as 'power as a function of specialised knowledge or skills or access to information' (p.74). Thirdly, there is a need to put decision making structures in place to accord headteachers equal access to educational decisions (Bell and Stevenson, 2006).

As noted already, the study suggested that the models of headship - 'detached' and 'undetached' headship- operationalised in the context of the study complicated the headteachers' roles without being equally remunerated. Therefore, it is the recommendation of this research that the pay structure and responsibility allowances of headteachers should be reviewed to align them to other professionals of the same status. This has the potential to motivate them.  Also, efforts must be made to reduce the burden of headteachers. This can be achieved in several ways. Firstly, teaching assistants should be employed to support 'undetached' headteachers in preparation for lessons and to 'cover' them when they attend meetings or are busy with their administrative/managerial functions. Secondly, administrative assistants should be employed to support 'detached' headteachers. Thirdly, headteachers must delegate some of their functions to their assistants or deputies, and the able teachers.

 It is also recommended that the GES representatives in the municipality need to collaborate with headteachers to communicate clearly the details of school funding (capitation grant) to parents. This will help parents to clarify

their misconceptions about the grant and encourage them to support their wards' education.

The government and GES must supply teaching and learning resources before the beginning of the academic year. Where they anticipate any delay in the supply of these resources, they should give the capitation grants to headteachers on time and mandate them to use a component of it (the capitation grant) to acquire the relevant resources to avoid interruptions in teaching and learning.

In addition, the Ghanaian government and the GES should establish a leadership centre and entrust it with the responsibility of ensuring the professional growth and development of both aspiring and practising headteachers. This service should be available to headteachers of pre-university schools not only in the context of this particular study, but also in the whole country. Such a centre could research into educational leadership phenomena, design and run context-specific courses for headteachers. Moreover, the GES in collaboration with the universities responsible for teacher training should offer distance learning courses on educational leadership and management for headteachers. The courses should be run during vacations, as suggested by the interviewees, to avoid keeping headteachers from their duties, and diploma qualifications should be awarded.  The courses will give headteachers more academic credibility with other teachers who hold degree and diploma qualifications. Additionally, strategies such as formal in-service workshops, networking, mentoring, (Bush and Oduro, 2006; Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Hobson et al, 2003), and coaching could be used to enhance the professional development of headteachers, particularly the practising ones. Furthermore, a minimum qualification required for headship positions must also be established by the MoE and the GES to ensure that aspiring and practising headteachers take professional development seriously. Certificates should also be issued to the participants of the INSET programmes.

The procedures employed in appointing headteachers in the context of the study should be reviewed. There must be clearly defined procedures to be followed. Also, there is a need to put in place a mechanism to appoint professionals with relevant knowledge and experience as headteachers – not merely those who have achieved academic success. A more appropriate approach to achieving this appears to begin with job advertisement, highlighting job and person specifications (Dean, 1995), followed by selection interviewing to determine the candidates' suitability for the positions, as suggested by the interviewees.

Finally, it is recommended that support strategies must be put in place by the local education officers, particularly the CSs, to help beginning headteachers. These strategies, in addition to those suggested by the research participants, must also include leadership networks, mentoring of NAHs by experienced headteachers (Bush and Oduro, 2006; Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997; Hobson et al, 2003), organisation of INSET programmes for them (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997), and visits to successful schools to get 'a feel' of the atmosphere, as suggested by PRMH-3 (p.174).

**New Directions for Further Research**

Improving schools requires collaboration between headteachers and other internal stakeholders (e.g. teachers) and external stakeholders (including parents and education officers). 'Within improving schools, a climate of collaboration exists and there is a collective commitment to work together' (Harris and Lambert, 2003:4). This means that school improvement might be difficult in the municipality, since the study suggested that headteachers did not enjoy the support of their teaching staff, parents, and the leading education officers in the municipality in carrying out their roles and responsibilities. Research is required to identify ways of improving and

developing headteacher relationships with these stakeholders in the schools. Thus, there is a need for research into building leadership capacity (Harris and Lambert, 2003) for school improvement.

As already indicated, the models of headship practised in the context of the study required headteachers to carry out complex and numerous roles and responsibilities, affecting their performance negatively. A number of studies indicate that teachers, headteachers (Farber, 1991) and highly ranked executives (Quick, 1990) all experience high levels of stress because of high demand on their time and effort. Research is required to explore ways of supporting headteachers to enable them to manage their roles and responsibilities for improved performance.

Lastly, a study that explores the development of networking or cluster groups among aspiring and practising headteachers would be useful. The study should show the elements needed for this professional learning strategy to 'work' – it should look at the role of the CSs and the headteachers in these clusters or networks, the financial aspects, and other relevant issue/s.

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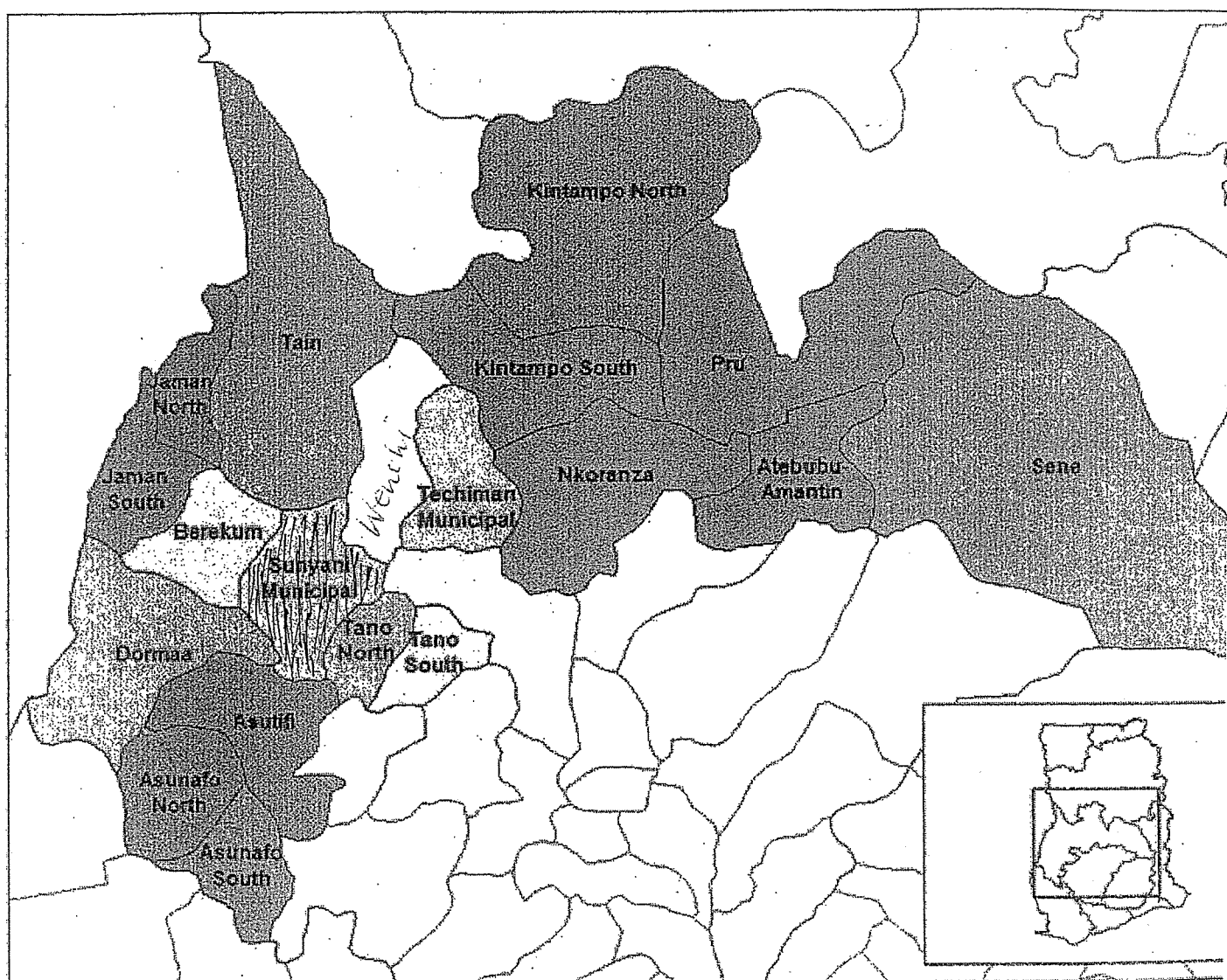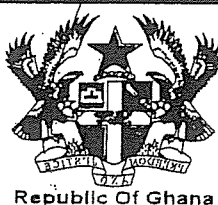
# GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

*In case of reply the number and
date of this letter should be quoted.*

Tel No.: 061 - 23388

*Our Ref:*... GES/SYI/EP.12/Vol.25/13

Republic Of Ghana

**Municipal Education Office**
**P. O. Box 134**
**Sunyani - B/A**
**GHANA - W/AFRICA**

*Your Ref:*.....................

14th Sept., 2006

Mr Hinneh Kusi
25 Dunham Close
Bedford
MK42 0LU

## PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN SUNYANI MUNICIPALITY MR HINNEH KUSI-STUDENT ON THE EdD PROGRAMME-LEICESTER UNIVERSITY

With reference to your letter dated 21st August, 2006, on the above topic, I am pleased to inform you that permission has been granted for you to conduct the research in this municipality. I understand that the study is part of your Doctor of Education programme at the School of Education of University of Leicester and it explores the problems facing JSS headteachers in this municipality and their professional development needs.

I hope the research work would go a long way to enhance leadership development as well as teaching and learning in this municipality.

Thank you.

REV. E.W.K. KUSI
MUNICIPAL DIRECTOR
SUNYANI

CC: Mr. Kusi Hinneh
25 Dunhan Close
Bedford, M K 42 OLU
. United Kingdom

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**Appendix A iii: Covering Letter for the Questionnaire**

…………………..

…………………..

…………………

…………………

Dear Sir/Madam,

**Questionnaire for a Doctor of Education Thesis**

I am a third year student on the Doctor of Education programme (Educational Leadership and Management strand) at the School of Education, University of Leicester in the UK. For my thesis, I would like to explore the challenges for Junior Secondary School headteachers in the Sunyani municipality and their professional development needs. The study will help to share knowledge about the issues and concerns for headteachers in the Sunyani municipality; identify the training needs of aspiring headteachers; and find ways of improving the in-service training programmes organised for the practising headteachers.

During the study, high ethical standards will be maintained to ensure that no harm is caused to you as a participant. This will be achieved by keeping the information you provide confidential and by protecting your anonymity. To achieve the former, the information provided will be used only for the purpose of the study. Also, it will not be stored after the study for people to access it. To achieve the latter, I will ensure that the semi-structured questionnaire schedule and the research findings do not contain your name. Apart form this, you will not be able to identify the information you provide towards this study because all data collected will be aggregated. A serial

number which is intended to guide the selection of participants for the semi-structured interview will be indicated on the questionnaire. However, I would like to re-assure you that it would be kept confidential.

The questionnaire schedule contains two parts. The first part will gather your background information, while the second part requires you to express your views on the phenomenon under study. About an hour of your time would be devoted to the completion of this semi-structured questionnaire and if you are selected for the semi-structured interview, between 50 and 60 minutes of your time would be required. The semi-structured interview will be conducted in February 2007. Your contribution to this study would be highly valued and, therefore, it would be appreciated if you could complete this questionnaire and post it to the address indicated on the envelope provided.

Thank you for completing this semi-structured questionnaire.

Yours faithfully,

 Signature

(Hinneh Kusi)

**Appendix A iv: Questionnaire Schedule for Headteachers**

**Title of the study:**

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers   and their professional development needs.

**Name of Student:**       **Hinneh Kusi**

**Programme:**             **Doctor of Education (EdD)**

**Respondent's position or status:** …………………………………..

**Date:** ………………………………….

**Questionnaire**

Section 'A'

Items and questions 'a' to 'g' in this section request personal information. Please, either tick the appropriate boxes or enter a statement where required.

a. Please, tick your gender.

        Male    [  ]
        Female [  ]

b. To which of the following age groups do you belong?

        21-29               [  ]
        30-39               [  ]
        40-49               [  ]
        50-59               [  ]
        60 and above        [  ]

c. Please, tick the professional and academic qualification/s you hold.

Certificate 'A'     [ ]

Diploma             [ ]

Degree               [ ]

Masters            [ ]

Doctorate         [ ]

Any other        [ ]   Please, specify…………………………………

d. How did you get appointed as a headteacher?

  Please, specify…………………………….

e. Please, tick the location of your school.

Urban area        [ ]

Rural area        [ ]

f. How long have you been working as a headteacher?
  Please specify……………

g. What is your rank in the teaching profession?

  Please, specify…………………

**Section 'B'**

Questions 1 to 4 in this section request your views on your issues and concerns as a Junior Secondary School (JSS) headteacher and the factors leading to these problems.

1. What are your *internal* issues and concerns (issues and concerns emanating from the schools) as a Junior Secondary School (JSS) headteacher?

2. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the internal issues and concerns you have identified in question 1 above?

3. What are your *external* issues and concerns (issues and concerns emanating from outside the schools) as a JSS headteacher?

4. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the external issues and concerns you have identified in question 3 above?

**Section 'C'**

Questions 5 to 11 in this section seek your views on preparation of aspiring headteachers and INSET programmes for headteachers, including you, and the skills/ competences needed to lead/manage the schools meaningfully. Please, explain your views in detail.

5. Please do you think pre-service training is important before one
   becomes a headteacher?
   Yes ( )
   No  ( )

   a. If yes, why do you consider such training relevant?

   What skills and competences should such a programme equip such aspiring headteachers with?

   b.  If no, please explain.

6. Do you think aspiring headteachers should meet some requirements before being appointed?

Yes ( )

No ( )

If yes, what are these requirements?

If no, please explain.

7. Please do you consider the induction of newly appointed headteachers relevant?
   Yes ( )
   No ( )

If yes, why is it important?

If no, please explain.

8. Please, do you think the INSET programmes organised for you have some weaknesses?

Yes ( )

No  ( )


Please explain.




9. What *strategies* do you think should be employed for organization of the INSET programmes in this municipality?




10. What are the *methods* used for delivering INSETs in this municipality?



a. How do you see these methods?

Appropriate   ( )

Inappropriate ( )

b. Please explain your answer.




11.    What skills and competences do you think you, as a practising headteacher need in order to lead and manage your school more effectively?

**Appendix A v: Questionnaire Schedule for Circuit Supervisors**

**Title of the study**:

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

**Name of Student:**　　**Hinneh Kusi**

**Programme:**　　　　**Doctor of Education (EdD)**

**Respondent's position or status:**…………………………………

**Date**: ………………………………….

**Questionnaire**

**Section 'A'**

Items and questions 'a' to 'e' in this section request personal information. Please, either tick the appropriate boxes or enter a statement where required.

a. Please, tick your gender.

　　　Male　　[ ]
　　　Female　[ ]

b. To which of the following age groups do you belong?

　　　21-29　　　　　[ ]
　　　30-39　　　　　[ ]
　　　40-49　　　　　[ ]
　　　50-59　　　　　[ ]
　　　60 and above　[ ]

c. Please tick the professional and academic qualification/s you hold.

Certificate 'A'     [ ]

Diploma             [ ]

Degree              [ ]

Masters             [ ]

Doctorate           [ ]

Any other           [ ]   Please, specify…………………………….

d. How long have you been working as a Circuit Supervisor?

Please, specify……………

e. What is your rank in the teaching profession?

Please, specify…………………………

**Section 'B'**

Questions 1 to 4 in this section request your views on issues and concerns
for headteachers of Junior Secondary Schools (JSSs) and the factors
leading to these problems.

1. What do you think are the *internal* issues and concerns (issues and
   concerns emanating from the schools) for Junior Secondary School (JSS)
   headteachers?

2. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the internal issues and concerns for the headteachers you have identified in question 1 above?




3. What do you think are the *external* issues and concerns (issues and concerns emanating from outside the schools) for the JSS headteachers?




4. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to these external issues and concerns you have identified in question 3 above?




**Section 'C'**

Questions 5 to 11 in this section seek your views on preparation of aspiring headteachers and in-service training (INSET) programmes for practising headteachers and the skills/competences needed to lead/manage the schools meaningfully. Please, explain your views in detail.

5. Please do you think pre-service training is important before one becomes
   a headteacher?
   Yes ( )
   No ( )
   a. If yes, why do you consider such training relevant?



   What skills and competences should such a programme equip the aspiring
   headteachers with?



   b.  If no, please explain.




6. Do you think aspiring headteachers should meet some requirements
   before being appointed?
   Yes (  )
   No (  )
   If yes, what are these requirements?


   If no, please explain.

7. Please do you consider the induction of newly appointed headteachers relevant?

Yes ( )
No ( )

If yes, why is it important?

If no, please explain.

8. Please, do you think the INSET programmes organised for headteachers have some weaknesses?

Yes ( )
No ( )

Please explain.

9. What *strategies* do you think should be employed for organization of the INSET programmes in this municipality?

10. What are the *methods* used for delivering INSETs in this municipality?

    a. How do you see these methods?

    Appropriate  ( )

    Inappropriate ( )

    b. Please explain your answer.

11. What skills and competences do you think headteachers need in order to lead and manage their schools more effectively?

**Appendix A vi: Interview Schedule for Headteachers**

**Project Title:**

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

**Time of Interview:**

**Date:**

**Interviewer:**

**Interviewee:** PUMH-5

**Gender:**

**Position of the interviewee:**

**Length of Service:**

**Academic and professional qualification/s:**

**Questions**

1) Please, how are headteachers appointed/selected in this municipality?

   - What are your comments on the appointment/selection process/es?
   - Any suggestions for improving the processes?

2) In the questionnaire schedule sent to you earlier, you were requested to indicate the competences required by aspiring headteachers. How can the competences you identified be acquired by the headteachers?

3) Please, did you undergo any induction programme when you were appointed as a headteacher?

   Yes ( )

   No ( )

   If yes, how were you inducted?

   If no, why were you not inducted?

- If there were any induction programme/s for newly appointed headteachers in this municipality, what strategies would you suggest for such an activity?

4) What are the major issues that are of concern to you as a JSS headteacher?

Regarding:
- Teacher management.
- Teacher supervision
- Student management
- Material resource management
- Any other?

i. What are the causes of each of these problems?

ii. Do you require any special skills and competences to address these problems?

If yes, what skills and competences?

If no, please explain why?

5) Do you combine both instructional and managerial roles or manage more than one school at the same time?

- If you combine management and teaching roles, how does it affect your performance?
- If you manage more than one school, how does managing many schools affect your performance?

6) Please, would you say you are satisfied with the way INSET programmes are organised for the headteachers in this municipality?

If yes, please explain.

If no, how can the INSET programmes be more useful/beneficial to you the headteachers?
Regarding:
- Organisation
- Training opportunities offered for the headteachers
- Content of the programmes
- Methods for delivering the programmes
- Any other area/s that need/s improvement?

7) Additional information
Any issue/s you would like to add or explain that has not been covered by these questions?

**Appendix A vii: Interview Schedule for Circuit   Supervisors**

**Project Title:**

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani Municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

**Time of Interview:**

**Date:**

**Interviewer:**

**Interviewee:** PCS-5

**Gender:**

**Position of the interviewee:**

**Length of Service:**

**Academic and professional qualification/s:**

**Questions**

1) Please, could you tell me how headteachers are appointed in this municipality?

- What are your comments on the selection/appointment process/es?
- Any suggestions for improving these processes?

2) In the questionnaire sent to you earlier, you were requested to indicate the competences required by aspiring headteachers. How can the competences you identified be acquired by the headteachers?

3) Do you induct the headteachers in your Circuit when they are appointed?

Yes (  )

No (  )

If yes, how do you induct them?

If no, why do you not induct them?

- If there were any induction programme/s for newly appointed headteachers in this municipality, what strategies would you suggest for such an activity?

4) What are the major issues raised by the headteachers in your Circuit?

    Regarding:

    - Teacher management.
    - Teacher supervision
    - Student management
    - Material resource management
    - Any other?

    i. What are the causes of each of these problems?

    ii. Do the headteachers require any special skills and competences to address these problems?

    If yes, what skills and competences?

    If no, please explain why?

5. You are in a supervisory position. Do some of your headteachers combine both managerial and teaching roles or manage more than one school at the same time?

    - If some of them manage and teach at the same time, how does combining those two roles affect their performance?
    - If more than one, how does managing many schools affect their performance?

6) Please, would you say you are satisfied with the way INSET programmes are organised for the headteachers in this municipality?

If yes, please explain.

If no, how can the INSET programmes be more useful/ beneficial to the headteachers?

Regarding:
- Organisation
- Training opportunities offered for the headteachers
- Content of the programmes
- Methods for delivering the programmes
- Any other area/s that need/s improvement?

7) Additional information
Any issue/s you would like add or explain that has not been covered by these questions?

**Title of the study:**

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

**Name of Student:**    **Hinneh Kusi**

**Programme:**    **Doctor of Education (EdD)**

**Respondent's position or status:** ...Headteacher...........

**Date:** .27th Nov. 2006.......

**Questionnaire**

Section 'A'

Items and questions 'a' to 'g' in this section request personal information. Please, either tick the appropriate boxes or enter a statement where required.

a. Please, tick your gender.

     Male    [✓]

     Female [ ]

b. To which of the following age groups do you belong?

     21-29        [ ]

     30-39        [ ]

     40-49        [ ]

     50-59        [✓]

     60 and above   [ ]

c. Please, tick the professional and academic qualification/s you hold.

Certificate 'A'     [✓]

Diploma             [ ]

Degree              [ ]

Masters             [ ]

Doctorate           [ ]

Any other           [ ] Please, specify.................................

d. How did you get appointed as a headteacher?

Please, specify...After...successful. In-service training and Interviews.

e. Please, tick the location of your school.

Urban area          [ ]

Rural area          [✓]

f. How long have you been working as a headteacher?
Please specify....20. years

g. What is your rank in the teaching profession?

Please, specify...Assistant Director

**Section 'B'**

Questions 1 to 4 in this section request your views on your issues and concerns as a Junior Secondary School (JSS) headteacher and the factors leading to these problems.

1. What are your *internal* issues and concerns (issues and concerns emanating from the schools) as a Junior Secondary School (JSS) headteacher?

1. Uncompromising attitude of teachers: My staff do not come to school on time, but when we report them to the officers, nothing is done to them. Some of them do not come to school at all. When they come to school, they refuse to prepare lesson plans — they teach anyhow. It is very common to find teachers sitting idle in class and this affects students' performance negatively.

2. Teachers do not stay in this place for long because of the conditions in this place. They apply for further studies so that they do not return. The problem is that officers do not replace such teachers on time.

2. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the internal issues and concerns you have identified in question 1 above?

1. We do not have power to control teachers. Also, this place is one of the deprived farming communities which lack social amenities. Teachers reluctantly accept postings to teach in the school. After a years teaching, they apply for and when the transfer is denied they resort to truancy, lateness and refuse to compromise to the headteachers instructions.

2. With regard to the second point above, teachers do not like the social life in this place so they apply for study leave so that they don't come back. Other teachers do not want to work here.

3. What are your *external* issues and concerns (issues and concerns emanating from outside the schools) as a JSS headteacher?

1. Scanty capitation grants.

2. Unattractive classrooms/structures

4. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the external issues and concerns you have identified in question 3 above?

1. Some JSSs in the deprived areas in the municipality have low enrolment and as such, receive very scanty capitation grants. The grant is absolutely insufficient!

2. Some JSSs are housed in some dilapidated structures (uncemented classrooms and uncladded structures) which make the schools unattractive and make teaching and learning ineffective. Permanent classrooms must be constructed and uncladded classes must be cladded.

**Section 'C'**

Questions 5 to 11 in this section seek your views on preparation of aspiring headteachers and INSET programmes for headteachers, including you, and the skills/ competences needed to lead/manage the schools meaningfully. Please, explain your views in detail.

5. Please do you think pre-service training is important before one becomes a headteacher?

Yes ( / )

No ( )

a. If yes, why do you consider such training relevant? aspiring

Training before appointment will help the aspiring headteachers to carry out their roles and responsibilities more effectively. Because in this municipality, it is teachers who are appointed as headteachers, they struggle when they are appointed into such position — they do not have the experience required for headship. When they are trained for headship positions it will help them a lot.

What skills and competences should such a programme equip such aspiring headteachers with? Aspiring heads have to be equipped numerous skills as listed below timetable management skills; skills to plan time-table; skill to promote teamwork; skills to ensure teacher discipline; skills to involve parents in school development; skills to prepare school improvement plan; accounting skills; skills to manage different teachers; skills to understand who a good headteacher is; ensure discipline among students and to address conflicts. Also they should be provided with skills to keep records; use different leadership styles; to apply power correctly; to train teac-

b. If no, please explain. for their roles. They need many skills to work well.

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6. Do you think aspiring headteachers should meet some requirements before being appointed?

Yes (✓)

No ( )

If yes, what are these requirements?

(1) Address problems (2) Be strict with teachers (3) Be able to lead schools for the better (4) Be experience teachers - teachers with long service (5) they should consult others; accept their views and relate with them appropriately (6) they should be trusted and be honest all the time (7) they should be fit and go to school everyday. (8) They should be humble and behave well all the time (9) they should appear

If no, please explain. simple - not proud.

7. Please do you consider the induction of newly appointed headteachers relevant?

Yes (✓)

No ( )

If yes, why is it important?

It is important because they will be introduced to the skills they will need for their job. Also, they will be sure about their roles and responsibilities as headteachers.

If no, please explain.

8. Please, do you think the INSET programmes organised for you have some weaknesses?

Yes (✓) Many weaknesses

No ( )

Please explain.

The following are the weaknesses of INSETs:
1. Time consuming
2. Headteachers are not motivated because of poor allowance and ill-chosen topics.
3. At times resource persons are incompetent.
4. Knowledge acquired is not practised

9. What *strategies* do you think should be employed for organization of the INSET programmes in this municipality?

1. Headteachers must be supplied with hand-outs after the in-service training.
2. In-service training must be held after compiling information on the type of in-service training the headteachers wanted.

10. What are the *methods* used for delivering INSETs in this municipality?

The resource persons normally use lecture methods to deliver in-service courses

a. How do you see these methods?

Appropriate   ( )

Inappropriate ( )

b. Please explain your answer.

It is not appropriate because we are not involved in the programmes - we go there, sit down and listen to ineffective resource persons. We want to take part in the programmes.

11. What skills and competences do you think headteachers need in order to lead and manage their schools more effectively? We headteachers require multiple skills and competences to work. These include skills to organise meetings; skills to check student behaviours all the time; skills to guide teachers to prepare lesson aids. We also need skills to manage limited resources at our disposal; skills to prepare the budget of capitation grants; skills to monitor teachers and deal with them appropriately, and skills to ensure effective use of instructional time & to manage teaching and learning. Moreover good resource person must be hired to teach how to involve communities in schools, to help manage or delegate our roles and to solve the problems we face effectively. We also need skills to maintain records.

**Title of the study:**

Managing Junior Secondary Schools in Sunyani municipality (Ghana): the challenges for headteachers and their professional development needs.

**Name of Student:** **Hinneh Kusi**

**Programme:** **Doctor of Education (EdD)**

**Respondent's position or status:** *Assistant Director*

**Date:** *14th Nov. 2006*

**Questionnaire**

**Section 'A'**

Items and questions 'a' to 'e' in this section request personal information. Please, either tick the appropriate boxes or enter a statement where required.

a. Please, tick your gender.

    Male    [✓]
    Female  [ ]

b. To which of the following age groups do you belong?

    21-29           [ ]
    30-39           [ ]
    40-49           [ ]
    50-59           [✓]
    60 and above    [ ]

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c. Please tick the professional and academic qualification/s you hold.

Certificate 'A'      [✓]
Diploma              [ ]
Degree               [ ]
Masters              [ ]
Doctorate            [ ]
Any other            [ ] Please, specify.................................

d. How long have you been working as a Circuit Supervisor?
   Please, specify..*14...years*

e. What is your rank in the teaching profession?
   Please, specify.*Assistant Director*

**Section 'B'**

Questions 1 to 4 in this section request your views on issues and concerns
for headteachers of Junior Secondary Schools (JSSs) and the factors
leading to these problems.

1. What do you think are the *internal* issues and concerns (issues and
   concerns emanating from the schools) for Junior Secondary School (JSS)
   headteachers? (1) *Mismanagement of instructional time
   on the part of some teachers and for that reason
   their inability to complete their syllabus
   (2) Teachers disrespect heads.
   (3) Teachers come to school late and sometimes
   absent themselves. (4) Some teachers don't
   prepare their lesson notes. (5) Heads are not
   confident.*                          284

2. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to each of the internal issues
   and concerns for the headteachers you have identified in question 1
   above? (1) Teachers are de-motivated, (2) Headteacher
   don't treat teachers fairly (3) Headteachers can't
   punish teachers. (4) People are not appointed as head.

3. What do you think are the *external* issues and concerns (issues and
   concerns emanating from outside the schools) for the JSS
   headteachers? Some parents do not provide basic
   items for their wards in school.

4. What factor/s do you think contribute/s to these external issues and
   concerns you have identified in question 3 above?

   They don't value education

**Section 'C'**

Questions 5 to 11 in this section seek your views on preparation of aspiring headteachers and in-service training (INSET) programmes for practising headteachers and the skills/competences needed to lead/manage the schools meaningfully. Please, explain your views in detail.

5. Please do you think pre-service training is important before one becomes a headteacher?

   Yes (✓)

   No ( )

   a. If yes, why do you consider such training relevant?

   It will equip them with many skills to work confidently

   What skills and competences should such a programme equip the aspiring headteachers with? Train teachers, deal with students, think critically to be confident, plan effectively, keep log-book, manage money, vary leadership styles, establish links with parents, good decision making in school and community, develop lovely environment, manage many teachers and make them take part running the school and good time managers.

   b. If no, please explain.

6. Do you think aspiring headteachers should meet some requirements before being appointed?

Yes (✓)

No ( )

If yes, what are these requirements? ① Be able to develop right values in school. ② Highly experienced ③ Provide direction ④ Work with others and deal with them and accept their views. ⑤ Come to school appropriately ⑥ Meekness, healthy, good person, reliable and problem manage

If no, please explain.

7. Please do you consider the induction of newly appointed headteachers relevant?

Yes (✓)

No ( )

If yes, why is it important?

It facilities adaption into their new positions.

If no, please explain.

8. Please, do you think the INSET programmes organised for headteachers have some weaknesses?

Yes (✓)
No ( )

Please explain.

- In-service training should be conducted regularly.
- There are no follow-ups after programmes.

9. What *strategies* do you think should be employed for organization of the INSET programmes in this municipality?

- It should be designed in such a way that it becomes more of a discussion than lecturing
- It target group should be reasonably large.

10. What are the *methods* used for delivering INSETs in this municipality?

In most cases, lecturing method is used.
In a

a. How do you see these methods?

Appropriate ( )

Inappropriate (✓)

b. Please explain your answer.

Although delivery is easy, it is boring for participants. I think this method should be improved.

11. What skills and competences do you think headteachers need in order to lead and manage their schools more effectively?

Sensitivity, and to be courteous, Account for their activities, Encourage collaboration, manage capitation grants, arrange meetings in school and communities, keep diverse school records, Run courses for teachers eg on lesson notes preparation, Vet lesson notes. Also, skills to supervise teaching and learning, network effectively, address challenges and manage time effectively. These skills will help them a lot.

## Appendix A x: Sample of Interview Script................................................

Int. represents Interviewer (researcher)

PRMH represents Participant Rural Male Headteacher (Interviewee)

**Int: Please, how are headteachers appointed/ selected in this municipality?**

**PRMH-3:** It depends on the area. In the urban areas, they look at your qualification and the number of years you have taught. But in the rural setting like this, they normally appoint teachers directly as headteachers because some professionals do not accept postings to this place-they do not like the social conditions prevailing here.

**Int: What are your comments on the appointment/selection process/es?**

**PRMH-3:** I will say I am not fully-satisfied with the appointment procedures because, in most cases, the 'right' people do not get the job. Therefore, I expect the authorities to find proper ways of appointing headteachers in this municipality -improvements are needed in the ways headteachers are appointed.

**Int: Any suggestions for improving the processes?**

**PRMH-3:** I will say that the authorities need to vary the procedures. In terms of rural setting like this, if they want to go by the normal procedure which, I will say, is advertisement- interviewing, they will not get people to manage schools here. This is because, as I said, the well-qualified professionals do not accept postings to this area. However, in the urban areas, one has to go through the interview procedures.

**Int: In the questionnaire schedule sent to you earlier, you were requested to indicate the competences required by aspiring headteachers. How can the competences you identified be acquired by the headteachers?**

**PRHM-3:** After the CSs have identified teachers with headship aspiration, they should organise pre-service training programmes to equip them with the relevant knowledge and skills needed to perform their roles effectively.

**Int: Please, did you undergo any induction programme when you were appointed as a headteacher?**

**PRMH-3:** No, I did not under go any induction programme. This is the practice here! Despite the fact that we, the headteachers, are not trained for our roles, we are not inducted.

**Int: If no, why were you not inducted?**

**PRMH-3:** I think the education authorities do not see the need to induct us into our positions. If you ask them, you will find that since the creation of this municipality there

has not been any policy on induction and this unfortunate. I pity some of the headteachers in the nearby villages. They are too young and inexperienced so without induction, the work becomes too difficult for them.

**Int: If there were any induction programme/s for newly appointed headteachers in this municipality, what strategies would you suggest for such an activity?**

**PRMH-3:** An opportunity to visit other schools to see how the environment operates.

**Int: What are the major issues that are of concern to you as a JSS headteacher? Regarding teacher management?**

**PRMH-3:** I major problem is always how to get teachers committed to their work. If you stay here for a number of days to observe my teachers, you will understand what I am saying. Their attitude towards their work is negative. I have discussed this in meetings but nothing positive is happening.

**Int: What is the cause of this problem?**

**PRMH-3:** I think most of them do not like the social life in this village. They think if they do that I will report them to the officers for them to be transferred to a better place. Moreover, I will say they do that because they know that I have no power to discipline or sanction them.

**Int: Regarding teacher supervision?**

**PRMH-3:** Yes, that is another area I encounter problems. I work very hard but I do not think teacher supervision is ineffective. I expect the CSs to come here to help me monitor the teachers but they do not come so I do what I can.

**Int: What is the cause of this problem?**

**PRMH-3:** I will attribute the problem to the fact that I have no power to discipline the teachers even if they are not serious with their work. The teachers are afraid of the CSs but they do not come here as expected and this has affected the way I supervise my staff.

**Int: Regarding student management?**

**PRMH-3:** Parents put premium on marriage and farming. Some of them send their teenage girls to the North to marry when they are 15 years. Others prefer sending their wards to farm to sending them to school.

**Int: What is the cause of this problem?**

**PRMH-3:** Most parents send their wards to farm because the role models in such places are normally farmers; not the educated. The farmers have cars, many wives and houses. No educated person can be compared to such people in terms of riches so they see no reason to educate their wards.

**Int: Regarding material resource management?**

**PRMH-3:** We are working hard as headteachers, but the government is not supporting us as expected. As at now, we have not received teachers' notebooks and other logistics from Accra, so I am now moving up and down to find money to buy exercise books for my staff in the interim. However, they are not appropriate for lesson notes. Some of the teachers do not prepare for lessons because of the late supply of the notebooks. They do not plan their lessons and when we ask them, they tell us in Akan language [literally, 'Master we do not have notebooks'].

**Int: What do you think is the cause of this problem?**

**PRMH-3:** It is difficult for me to understand this situation. I have been to the office several times, but all that they tell me is to wait until the GES headquarters bring them materials. We have waited for a long time but nothing positive is happening. It is unfortunate.

**Int: Any other issue/s you would like to raise?**

**PRMH-3:** I will say that, unfortunately, the government and the GES officers at the top do not involve us when they are making decisions. For example, there was the need to decide whether to collect printing fees or not. We were here one day when our local officers told us not to collect the fee. Just that!

**Int: What were you not involved in the decision making?**

**PRMH-3:** The officers think they more educated and experienced than we the headteachers so we cannot make any useful contributions to decisions.

**Int: Do you, as a headteacher, require any special skills and competences to address these problems?**

**PRMH-3:** Yes, I need to address these problems.

**Int: If yes, what skills and competences?**

**PRMH-3:** I need to be equipped to necessary skills to deal with teachers' negative attitudes, to supervise well, to education and encourage parents to invest in their female wards' education, to manage limited resources that my school has, and to motivate our staff.

**Int: Do you combine both instructional and managerial roles or manage more than one school at the same time?**

**PRMH-3:** Yes, I also have huge teaching responsibilities since my staff are not working hard.

**Int: If you combine management and teaching roles, how does it affect your performance?**

**PRMH-3:** Sir, I will say the GES is not treating some of us fairly. You see, the teaching role is already tedious. Because the teachers are not working hard, I teacher many subjects, mark exercises, record the marks and at the same time attend meetings regularly. Therefore, I believe that if the authorities reduce my workload, I will do better. At the moment the burden is too much so it has affected my performance negatively.

**Int: Please, would you say you are satisfied with the way INSET programmes are organised for the headteachers in this municipality?**

**PRMH-3:** No, no no.. [he laughs and pauses]. How can I be satisfied with the INSET programmes. They are valueless.

**Int: Why are they valueless?**

**PRMH-3:** I am saying this because they have no impact of our work. We just don't benefit from the programmes. Significant improvements have to be made in the programmes!

**Int: Since you are not satisfied with the way the programmes are organised for you headteachers in this municipality, how can they be useful to you? Regarding the organization?**

**PRMH-3:** Yes, as I said earlier, most of the headteachers in my area are newly-qualified teachers from the teacher training colleges, who lack headship experience. But, if you go to places like Sunyani and Abesim, you will find that the majority of the headteachers are graduates from University of Cape Coast in particular. Because headteachers in this municipality have different qualifications, I will suggest that the INSET programmes should be grouped into two- one for headteachers in the rural settings like here and another for those in the urban communities. This approach would be helpful.

**Int: Regarding training opportunities offered for you, the headteachers.**

**PRMH-3:** What is happening these days is that some headteachers are undertaking distant learning courses at the universities and I think that will be helpful to them. I will suggest that the GES and the government should encourage and make funds available for all of us, especially those in these areas to undertake such courses.

**Int: Regarding the contents of the programmes?**

**PRHM-3:** As I said earlier, the programmes are valueless. One reason is that the contents have no bearing on our work so something have to be done about it. What I can suggest is that the officers should give use a set of questions asking us the kind of training we need. If they do that the programmes will be helpful.

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**Int: Regarding the methods for delivering the programmes?**

**PRMH-3:** Yes, all what I can say is that we the headteachers have to feel part of the programme so methods like brainstorming and discussion will be useful.

**Int: Any other area that needs improvement?**

**PRMH-3:** I will add that if the programmes are not residential, commuting becomes a problem- we need to be given money for transportation. On the other hand, if they are residential, food becomes a problem; the quantity and quality of food provided at the programmes must be improved.

**Int: Any issue/s you would like to add or explain that has not been covered by these questions?**

**PRMH-3:** I expect the resource persons to prepare very well for the programmes. Also, from my area to Sunyani, I spend about 20, 000 cedis on transportation, but when I get there, they give me 10, 000 cedis. This implies that I incur loss any time I attend the INSET. Apart from that, it takes time for them to pay our allowances which is disappointing. Therefore, I think the transportation and payment of allowances need re-consideration because I cannot attend the programmes and incur loss all the time.