

UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I

POST GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR
HUMAN, SOCIAL AND
EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DOCTORAL UNIT OF RESEARCH
AND TRAINING IN SCIENCE OF
EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL
ENGINEERING

THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM
AND EVALUATION



UNIVERSITÉ DE YAOUNDÉ I

CENTRE DE RECHERCHE ET DE
FORMATION DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES
(CRFD) HUMAINES, SOCIALE ET
ÉDUCATIVES

UNITÉ DE RECHERCHE ET DE
FORMATION DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES
ÉDUCATIVES ET INGÉNIERIE
ÉDUCATIVE

FACULTÉ DES SCIENCES DE
L'ÉDUCATION

DÉPARTEMENT DE CURRICULA ET
ÉVALUATION

CURRICULUM ORIENTATIONS OF PRINCIPALS AND ITS EFFECTS ON TEACHERS OUTPUT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN YAOUNDE 6 SUB DIVISION

A dissertation presented and defended on the 09th of November 2021

Option: Curriculum and Evaluation

Speciality: Research

By

YONGKA NORA SHAM

B.Ed in Curriculum Studies and Teaching (Biology)

15X3359

jury

| Ranks | Names and grade | Universities |
|-------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| President | MAINGARI Daouda, Pr | UYI |
| Supervisor | Patrick SHEY FONYUY, Pr | UYI |
| Examiner | CHAFFI Cyrille IVAN, MC | UYI |



ATTENTION

This document is the result of extensive work approved by the defence jury and made available to the entire extended university community.

It is subject to the intellectual property of the author. This implies an obligation to cite and reference when using this document.

Furthermore, the Center for Research and Doctoral Training in Human, Social and Educational Sciences of the University of Yaoundé I do not intend to give any approval or disapproval to the opinions expressed in this Dissertation; these opinions should be considered as their author's own.

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this research work titled “Curriculum orientations of principals and Its Effects on Teachers Output in Secondary Schools in Yaounde 6 Sub Division” was carried out by YONGKA NORA SHAM with matriculation number, 15X3359 in the Department of Science of Education, University of Yaoundé 1, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of a degree of Master under my supervision.

Supervisor. Prof. Shey Patrick Fonyuy

.....

DEDICATION

To my beloved father **Yongka Wlfred Kelese**, mother **Yongka Judith Buwel**, and to **God**
Almighty who has been the source of my strength.

TABLE OF CONTENT

| | |
|--|------|
| CERTIFICATION..... | i |
| DEDICATION | ii |
| TABLE OF CONTENT | iii |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENTS..... | vii |
| LIST OF TABLES | viii |
| LIST OF FIGURES..... | xi |
| ABSTRACT | xiv |
| RESUME..... | xv |
| CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Background of the study..... | 1 |
| Context of study..... | 10 |
| Justification of Study..... | 11 |
| Theories of the study | 14 |
| Division of Work..... | 14 |
| Statement of the Problem. | 14 |
| Objectives of the Study..... | 16 |
| General Research Objective..... | 16 |
| Specific research objectives..... | 16 |
| Research Questions..... | 17 |
| General Research Question..... | 17 |
| Specific Research Question | 17 |
| Research Hypothesis..... | 17 |
| General Research Hypothesis | 18 |
| Specific Research Hypotheses | 18 |
| Scope and Delimitations of the Study | 18 |
| Thematic Delimitation | 19 |
| Theoretical Delimitation | 19 |
| Significance of the Study..... | 19 |
| Summary..... | 21 |

| | |
|--|----|
| CHAPTER TWO: RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK..... | 22 |
| Introduction | 22 |
| Theoretical Review..... | 22 |
| Leadership Approaches and Models..... | 22 |
| Scientific Management Approach..... | 23 |
| The Human Relation Approach | 23 |
| Theory X and theory Y Approach | 23 |
| Theory of Motivation; Abraham Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs Theory (1954)..... | 24 |
| The hierarchy of needs five-stage model includes: | 24 |
| Conceptual Review..... | 29 |
| Definition of Leadership | 29 |
| The Importance of Leadership..... | 32 |
| Qualities of a Good Leader | 34 |
| Strategies of a Good Leader..... | 38 |
| Leadership Perspectives..... | 48 |
| Transactional leadership | 53 |
| Transformational leadership | 54 |
| Leadership Styles | 56 |
| Democratic Leadership Styles | 61 |
| The Leadership Studies Related to School Managers | 64 |
| Review of Related Literature by Objective | 68 |
| Transmission Orientation of leaders and Teacher’s Efficiency..... | 68 |
| Transformational orientation of leaders and Teachers’ Efficiency..... | 70 |
| Transactional orientation of leaders and Teacher’s Efficiency..... | 72 |
| Summary of Chapter Two | 72 |
| CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY..... | 73 |
| Research Design | 73 |
| Area of study | 73 |
| Population of study..... | 74 |
| Targeted population | 74 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Accessible population | 74 |
| Sampling Techniques | 75 |
| Instruments for data collection | 75 |
| Questionnaires..... | 75 |
| Validation and Reliability of instrument | 76 |
| Data collection..... | 78 |
| Data analysis technique | 78 |
| Statistical procedure used | 78 |
| Study Variables..... | 80 |
| Indicators of the study | 80 |
| Summary of chapter three..... | 82 |
| CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS | 84 |
| Introduction | 84 |
| Descriptive Statistics | 84 |
| Descriptive analysis of data collected on the identification of Respondents:..... | 84 |
| Verification of hypothesis and inferential statistics | 120 |
| Hypothesis one..... | 120 |
| Hypothesis two..... | 123 |
| Hypothesis three..... | 126 |
| Hypothesis four | 129 |
| CHAPTER FIVE: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS | 134 |
| Introduction | 134 |
| Summary of findings | 134 |
| Discussion of Results..... | 135 |
| Hypothesis one..... | 135 |
| Hypothesis two..... | 135 |
| Hypothesis three..... | 138 |
| Limitations of the study..... | 141 |
| Recommendations | 141 |
| General recommendation..... | 141 |
| Suggestions for further studies | 143 |

GENERAL CONCLUSION 144
REFERENCES 146
APPENDIX 154

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have failed several times but I have learned a handful of things from some individuals and I am heavily indebted to them. The realization of this work has not been the task of a single person. Attempting and succeeding in this task would have not been possible without the help of many people. I am deeply grateful.

I would like to *thank my supervisor*, Prof. Shey Patrick Fonyuy, for the patient guidance, encouragement and advice he has provided throughout my time as his student. I have been extremely lucky to have a *supervisor* who cared so much about my work, and who responded to my questions and queries so promptly.

I am grateful to all the lecturers of the Faculty of Education for their rich academic investment they invested in me.

I am equally thankful to the principals and teachers of the selected schools in Yaounde 6 Municipality for permitting me in their schools especially their responds to my questionnaires.

Special thanks to my husband, Bruce, who has been a constant source of support and encouragement during the challenges of graduate school and life.

My sincere gratitude goes to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Yongka Wilfred for their love and support throughout my life. Thank you both for giving me strength to reach for the stars and chase my dreams. My little brother and little sister deserve my wholehearted thanks

Finally, my sincere thanks go to all my friends of the department of Sciences of Education. I cannot forget to mention Gods Design vessels especially Kimbi Gisele, and above all to God Almighty for His infinite love, guidance and protection He shower on me.

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1: accessible population of study | 75 |
| Table 2: Distribution of respondents according to institution..... | 84 |
| Table 3: Distribution of teachers according to the Class they teach | 85 |
| Table 4: Gender | 86 |
| Table 5: distribution of respondents as to whether principals determine all working policies before work is done | 87 |
| Table 6: distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his or her guidance..... | 88 |
| Table 7: distribution of respondents as to whether principal allows all the teachers to participate in decision making..... | 89 |
| Table 8: distribution of teachers as to whether communication is freely done with principal and whether principal monitors performance closely | 89 |
| Table 9: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very flexible | 90 |
| Table 10: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal considers skills and interest before assigning us | 91 |
| Table 11: distribution of respondents as to whether principal ask for ideas before he implements plans for any project..... | 92 |
| Table 12: distribution of respondents as to whether principal never runs of negative energy..... | 93 |
| Table 13: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal rebukes them without listening to them..... | 94 |
| Table 14: distribution of respondents as to whether the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by my principal | 95 |
| Table 15: Distribution of respondents as to whether you can always notice their principal when they walk into the room..... | 95 |
| Table 16: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal is outspoken | 96 |
| Table 17: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal does not consider suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them..... | 97 |
| Table 18: Distribution of teachers as to when someone makes a mistake their principal rebukes them and take note..... | 98 |
| Table 19: distribution of teachers who think that their principal thinks highly of them..... | 99 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 20: Distribution of teachers as to whether principal aims too high..... | 100 |
| Table 21: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure to finish my paper work..... | 101 |
| Table 22: Distribution of teachers as to whether they think the principal does not trust anyone of us teachers | 102 |
| Table 23: distribution of teachers as to whether my principal is a good coach | 103 |
| Table 24: distribution of respondents as to whether coaching helps me to be committed and enables me do things I think I could not do | 104 |
| Table 25: distribution of respondents according to whether my principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process and do what they want..... | 105 |
| Table 26: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it..... | 106 |
| Table 28: distribution of respondents as to whether each teacher is responsible for defining his or her job..... | 108 |
| Table 29: distribution of teachers according to my principal abandons his responsibility to us . | 109 |
| Table 30: distribution of respondents as to whether every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process | 110 |
| Table 31: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows me to set my own deadlines for work..... | 111 |
| Table 32: distribution of teachers as to whether I communicate well during my lessons especially when I am in good terms with my principal..... | 112 |
| Table 33: distribution of teachers as to whether work load is lifted when I am involved in the decision making process of the school..... | 113 |
| Table 34: distribution of teachers according to whether they carry out my duties as a teacher properly when the duties are well spelled out by my principal..... | 114 |
| Table 35: distribution of teacher as to whether being coached by my principal makes me perform better in class..... | 115 |
| Table 36: distribution of teachers as to whether they love a supportive principal..... | 116 |
| Table 37: distribution of respondents as to whether they wish they could communicate with my principal in a proper way..... | 117 |

Table 38: distribution of respondents as to whether to feel discouraged to carry task each time my principal orders me around.....118

Table 39: distribution of teachers as to whether they feel discouraged to teach when my principal takes decision without me119

Table 40: A contingency table showing the transformational orientation of school leader and teachers performance.....121

Table 41: A contingency table showing transmission orientation of leaders and teachers performance.....124

Table 42: A contingency table showing the pacesetting orientation of school leaders and teachers performance.....127

Table 43: A contingency table showing transactional orientation of leaders and teachers performance.....130

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 1: pyramid of Maslow | 25 |
| Figure 2: Diagram showing strategies used by successful leaders..... | 43 |
| Figure 3: distribution of respondents according to institution | 85 |
| Figure 4: distribution of teachers according to the class they teach..... | 86 |
| Figure 5: Gender..... | 86 |
| Figure 6: distribution of respondents as to whether principals all working policies before work is done | 87 |
| Figure 7: distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his or her guidance | 88 |
| Figure 8: distribution of respondents as to whether principal allows all the teachers to participate in decision making | 89 |
| Figure 9: distribution of teachers as to whether communication is freely done with principal and whether principal monitors performance closely | 90 |
| Figure 10: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very flexible | 91 |
| Figure 11: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal considers skills and interest before assigning us | 92 |
| Figure 12: distribution of respondents as to whether principal ask for ideas before he implements plans for any project..... | 93 |
| Figure 13: distribution of respondents as to whether principal never runs of negative energy | 93 |
| Figure 14: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal rebukes them without listening to them..... | 94 |
| Figure 15: distribution of respondents as to whether the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by my principal | 95 |
| Figure 16: Distribution of respondents as to whether you can always notice their principal when they walk into the room..... | 96 |
| Figure 17: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal is outspoken..... | 97 |
| Figure 18: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal does not consider suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them..... | 98 |
| Figure 19 Distribution of teachers as to when someone makes a mistake their principal rebukes them and take note..... | 99 |

Figure 20: distribution of teachers who think that their principal thinks highly of them 100

Figure 21: Distribution of teachers as to whether principal aims too high 101

Figure 22: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure to finish my paper work..... 102

Figure 23: Distribution of teachers as to whether they think the principal does not trust anyone of us teachers 103

Figure 24: distribution of teachers as to whether my principal is a good coach 104

Figure 25: distribution of respondents as to whether coaching helps me to be committed and enables me do things I think I could not do 105

Figure 26: distribution of respondents according to whether my principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process and do what they want..... 106

Figure 27: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it 107

Figure 28: distribution of respondents as to whether i know more about their jobs so I do what I want whenever I want to 108

Figure 29: distribution of respondents as to whether each teacher is responsible for defining his or her job..... 109

Figure 30: distribution of teachers according to my principal abandons his responsibility to us 110

Figure 31: distribution of respondents as to whether every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process 111

Figure 32: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows me to set my own deadlines for work..... 112

Figure 33: distribution of teachers as to whether I communicate well during my lessons especially when I am in good terms with my principal..... 113

Figure 34: distribution of teachers as to whether work load is lifted when I am involved in the decision making process of the school 114

Figure 35: distribution of teachers according to whether they carry out my duties as a teacher properly when the duties are well spelled out by my principal..... 115

Figure 36: distribution of teacher as to whether being coached by my principal makes me perform better in class..... 116

Figure 37: distribution of teachers as to whether they love a supportive principal 117

Figure 38: distribution of respondents as to whether they wish they could communicate with my principal in a proper way..... 118

Figure 39: distribution of respondents as to whether to feel discouraged to carry task each time my principal orders me around..... 119

Figure 40: distribution of teachers as to whether they feel discouraged to teach when my principal takes decision without me 120

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of school administrators' curriculum orientations on teachers' efficiency in secondary schools within the Yaoundé VI Municipality. Specifically, it examined the extent to which the transitional, transactional, and transformational curriculum orientations of school principals affect teacher efficiency. The research employed a survey design and was conducted in five purposively selected secondary schools representing both government and lay private institutions in Yaoundé VI. The population consisted of all teachers in the selected secondary schools, from which a sample of 500 teachers, including vice principals, was selected using simple random sampling. Data were collected using a 34-item questionnaire. Three research questions and three hypotheses guided the study. Descriptive statistics frequencies and percentages were used to answer the research questions, while the Chi-square (χ^2) test of independence was used to test the hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance with the aid of SPSS version 20.0. Findings revealed that out of the three alternative hypotheses, two were rejected and one was retained. Overall, the results indicate that there is no significant relationship between some of the curriculum orientations of principals and teacher efficiency in the municipality. Both the transmission and transactional orientations were found to negatively affect teachers' efficiency, while the transformational orientation demonstrated a positive relationship with teacher efficiency. The study therefore suggests that, to a large extent, the curriculum orientations adopted by principals particularly the transmission and transactional orientations negatively influence teacher efficiency in Yaoundé VI. It was concluded that no single curriculum orientation is entirely appropriate for enhancing teacher efficiency; however, the transformational orientation appears most beneficial. Consequently, the study recommends that school principals adopt and effectively implement transformational curriculum orientation to enhance teachers' efficiency in secondary schools within the Yaoundé VI Municipality.

RESUME

Cette étude a examiné l'influence de l'orientation curriculaire des administrateurs scolaires sur l'efficacité des enseignants dans les écoles secondaires de la municipalité de Yaoundé VI. Plus précisément, elle a examiné dans quelle mesure l'orientation curriculaire transitionnelle, transactionnelle et transformationnelle des directeurs d'école influence l'efficacité des enseignants. L'étude s'est appuyée sur une enquête menée dans cinq écoles secondaires spécifiquement sélectionnées, représentant à la fois des établissements publics et privés de Yaoundé VI. La population était composée de tous les enseignants des établissements secondaires sélectionnés, parmi lesquels un échantillon de 500 enseignants, y compris les directeurs adjoints, a été sélectionné à l'aide d'un échantillonnage aléatoire simple. Les données ont été recueillies à l'aide d'un questionnaire de 34 questions. Trois questions de recherche et trois hypothèses ont guidé l'étude. Des fréquences et des pourcentages statistiques descriptifs ont été utilisés pour répondre aux questions de recherche, tandis que le test du chi carré (χ^2) a été utilisé pour tester l'indépendance des hypothèses à l'aide du logiciel SPSS version 20.0, avec un niveau de signification de 0,05. Les résultats ont montré que sur les trois hypothèses alternatives, deux ont été rejetées et une a été retenue. Dans l'ensemble, les résultats indiquent qu'il n'existe pas de relation significative entre certaines orientations pédagogiques des directeurs d'école et l'efficacité des enseignants dans la municipalité. Les orientations transmissionnelle et transactionnelle ont toutes deux un effet négatif sur l'efficacité des enseignants, tandis que l'orientation transformationnelle a une incidence positive sur celle-ci. L'étude suggère donc que, dans une large mesure, les orientations pédagogiques adoptées par les chefs d'établissement, en particulier les orientations transmissionnelle et transactionnelle, ont une influence négative sur l'efficacité des enseignants à Yaoundé VI. Il a été conclu qu'aucune orientation pédagogique n'est à elle seule entièrement appropriée pour améliorer l'efficacité des enseignants ; cependant, l'orientation transformationnelle semble la plus bénéfique. Par conséquent, l'étude recommande aux chefs d'établissement d'adopter et de mettre en œuvre efficacement une orientation pédagogique transformationnelle afin d'améliorer l'efficacité des enseignants dans les écoles secondaires de la municipalité de Yaoundé VI.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the study

In my few experiences in the teaching field, I have had complicated relationships with my immediate supervisors. Many at times I didn't understand them neither did they understand me. I sometimes wished something bad to happen so I could not see them at work the next day. Do not laugh at me. We all have some complains about people who oversee certain issues in our lives. Administrator is a much more evolving term nowadays when it comes to curriculum. The birth of my research attacks all backgrounds and problems faced with immediate supervisors on the basis of their curriculum orientations. It has basically used the educational system showing the relationship between teachers and their immediate supervisors like vice principals and principals. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community. Instructional supervision is always tuned towards a particular kind of curriculum orientation which is a constant process that aims at improving teaching by providing needed services to teachers. Improving teaching is a complex process in which many elements should interact. Teachers are at the center of this improvement process. Their acceptance of instructional supervision and interaction with instructional supervisors provide the catalyst for any supervisory success which comes as a result of curriculum orientations. The way teachers/principals view the curriculum that they are undergoing and think about it is very important in the outcomes of the curriculum process. The word "**curriculum**" began as a Latin word which means "a race" or "the course of a race" (which in turn derives from the verb carrier **meaning** "to run/to proceed"). **Curriculum** is what is taught in a given course or subject. **Curriculum** refers to an interactive system of instruction and learning with specific goals, contents, strategies, measurement, and resources. The desired outcome of **curriculum** is successful transfer and/or development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Supervision as a concept has diverse meanings and definitions on the individual's needs, purposes and experience. Whereas the school supervisor would perceive it as an indispensable force for improved productivity, the teacher and or the taught being supervised might view same as an attempt to harass, threaten and curse because of the use of traditional orientation of curriculum by supervisors, or as a source of assistance and support needed in realizing the educational goals and objectives.

Curriculum orientation is defined as teachers/principals' belief about the education goal and the curriculum components such as objectives, content, teaching, learning, activities, and assessment methods (Cheung & Ng, 2000). Teachers are at the center of this improvement process. Their acceptance of instructional supervision and interaction with instructional curriculum provide the catalyst for any success. Teachers come to the classroom with some established beliefs on the nature of their work, students, and other aspects of their profession (Marouchou, 2011; Pajares, 1992). Research (Kavanoz, 2006; Handal & Herrington, 2003; Schommer, 1994; Lynch, 1989; Rose & Medway, 1981) has identified a relationship between these beliefs and teachers' practices, and, consequently, student's learning. Among those beliefs are their curriculum orientation and conception of teaching. Curriculum orientation (CO) are "a set of value premises from which decisions about curriculum objectives, content, organization, teaching strategies, learning activities and assessment modes are made" (Cheung & Ng, 2000, p.1) and conception of teaching (COT) are "specific meanings attached to teaching and learning phenomena, which are claimed to then mediate a teacher's view of, and responses to, their teaching context" (Devlin, 2006, p.112). These have been recognized as two psychological constructs related to teacher's professional undertaking of their duties. Therefore, studying these constructs held by teachers would provide a way for understanding their practices based on how teacher development could be designed.

Curriculum as a concept has diverse meanings and definitions on the individual's needs, purposes and experience. Teacher beliefs or orientations have been examined by researchers in several fields, and numerous studies confirm that teachers' beliefs about teaching, curriculum, learning, and assessment processes, the core behaviors in schooling, influence strongly how teachers teach and what students learn or achieve (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992; Calderhead, 1996). What teachers believe about one area of schooling (e.g., teaching or curriculum) impacts on practices and beliefs in other important domains (e.g., assessment or learning) (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Cizek, Fitzgerald, Shawn, & Rachor, 1995; Brown & Rose, 1995; Delandshere & Jones, 1999; Cheung & Ng, 2000; Dahlin, Watkins & Ekholm, 2001; Rex & Nelson, 2004). Their belief systems reflect personal theories about the nature of knowledge and knowing that, in turn, influence teachers' curriculum. decision making, teachers' judgments about teaching approaches and the teaching-learning process (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997; Lovat & Smith, 1995; Pajares, 1992; Artzt & Armour-Thomas, 1996). A principals curriculum orientation is related to her/his philosophy of education and they both relate to the goals of

education, to relative importance of subject matter, and to how teachers and students should interact. Thus, different curriculum orientations are beliefs about alternative curriculum designs. Cheung & Wong (2002) based on Eisner & Vallance (1974), Schubert (1986), Tanner and Tanner (1995), and McNeil (1996) identify five curriculum orientations: Cognitive Process; Curriculum as Technology (Behavioral); Curriculum for Self-actualization (Humanistic); Curriculum for Social Reconstruction; and Academic Rationalism. The cognitive process orientation is focused on developing skills in a variety of processes, including problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, and memory skills; it means learning intellectual processes. Academic rationalism analyses basic fields of study and academic disciplines that have traditionally been known as a liberal education. Every subject emphasizes rigorous intellectual training and students are expected to act like physicists, historians or mathematicians. The role of the teacher is to help students acquire the content, concepts, and ideas of the classic academic disciplines. Curriculum for Self-Actualization (Humanistic) is where the curriculum builds on the students' interests. The purpose of education is to provide students with opportunities in an open communicative setting to foster their personal development as unique individuals. Social reconstruction attempts to develop a critical consciousness among children of the major issues of society. The curriculum focuses on controversial social issues and is designed to encourage students to take an active role in improving the society in which they live. The teacher's role is to make students aware of the important social issues of their time and culture and to encourage them to debate alternatives, make informed judgments, and act on them. Technological orientation stresses a scientific approach using measurable goals and objectives. The teacher's role is to plan the curriculum in a sequential and orderly manner by specifying a list of sequential objectives with tests that demonstrate the students' mastery of each objective. The close relationship between the beliefs of principals, their teaching behaviors and their learning goals for students is well documented in the literature (Richardson *et al.*, 1991). For example, if a principal believes in the social reconstruction orientation, he or she tends to include topics such as pollution, corruption and unemployment to help students understand the problems confronting our society through teachers. Undoubtedly, teacher beliefs about curriculum design affect the quality of education in schools. If a teacher does not believe that a particular design is valuable, the implementation of the curriculum may be not effective at all. The teacher may even alter the intended curriculum to make it more congruent with his or her own belief systems or classroom context. Curriculum developers will have to take into account of the

teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and skills in developing a new curriculum; otherwise, it is unlikely that the curriculum will be implemented as intended (Cotton 2006). To ensure the successful implementation of a curriculum, pre-service teacher education and in-service professional development for teachers need to focus on the beliefs of participants as well as developing their knowledge and understanding of the new approaches (Anderson, White & Sullivan, 2005). Although pre-service teachers have less immediate influence on the implemented curriculum, their pre-existing beliefs, usually formed by their former experiences as learners, have the potential to impact on their teaching practices when they become qualified teachers (Raymond, 1997).

Since education is accepted to be an instrument of change; teachers serve as the main operators of the instrument while the students are referred to as the raw materials to be processed on which the change would be manifested over a period of time (Adenaike and Adebajo, 2000). In an attempt to ensure that the value of education is being derived at all levels, some officials are charged with the responsibility to monitor the performances of all those who run education especially those in schools in order to find out or assess the extent of achievement of the goals of education. These officials are the ones officially designated as supervisors. Consequently, due to high cost of education, stakeholders are becoming increasingly interested in the school system. They monitor the teachers and their wards' activities critically to ensure that adequate teaching and learning activities take place. Thus Parents Teachers Association monitors the activities within the school and constitutes part of the team involved directly in supervision. In the process of teaching and learning, some variables sometimes interfere with the plans and patterns of operation within the school that can be harmful to the attainment of set goals. Such variables include: teacher's personality, his attitude to work, motivation, discipline, student's background and environment which will have either positive or negative influence on the school system and education at large. The school is an organization where the generality of the citizens has input and support. As a result, the whole society and designated supervisors are in the position to help improve the system generally (Ijaduola, 2000). The process of supervision is complex and it permeates the whole structure of the school system. There seems to be little or no area of operation within the school where the need for supervision would not arise, although this may be in diverse proportions. As Ajibade (1993) opined, the crucial areas within the school system that require supervision are instructional and discipline areas where both the content, method or mode of delivery and the

personality of both the students and teachers are examined to determine their adequacy to the school system. According to Ojo (1991:97);

- the effective implementation of curriculum is obviously the single most important function of the school.
- The implementation of the school curriculum should be viewed as a critical conversion stage that annualizes the best of human energies to enhance the production of positive gains in students' behavior.

He maintained that the conversion requires human input in form of interaction of various school personnel, particularly the interaction between the principal (and or the supervisor) and the teachers. The need to improve the teaching and learning capabilities of teachers and students is often the basis of this type of interaction. Interaction between supervisor and teachers involves situations where the teacher sees the supervisor as a helper and not as a task master, he freely goes to the supervisor when faced with teaching difficulties, he freely pours out his mind about his feelings to the supervisor and the supervisor is always ready to assist the teacher and not to 'lord' over him. Availability of teaching materials (like textbooks, audio visual aids) help a great deal in improving the teaching instructions in class. It makes teaching and learning easier for both teachers and students. Conferences and seminars involve organizing programs by instructional supervisors for teachers that center on talks about classroom instruction, papers on different topics (educational) are presented and questions are asked. This makes teachers to discover new teaching methods and also avenue to ask questions and to improve teaching skills. This in turn improves their performances. Achieving success as a leader, by virtually any definition, requires 'doing right things *right*.' (Leithwood, 2005, p. 3)

Teachers have been accused of divided loyalty, nonchalant attitude and indiscipline among the teachers and students, which lowers the performance of both teachers and learners. Performance is seen as an act, process or manner of executing, performing or functioning. It can also be seen as an action seen, noticed or felt due to its effects on the people's lives or way of thinking. Classroom Performance on the other hand is the act, process or manner of executing teaching functions in the classroom by the teacher either through discipline, teaching instruction, punctuality in class and so on. Parents now complain about that they now see the school system fast losing its glamour and orientation which is affecting the attainment of National aims of education. To restore this, the need for instructional supervision process cannot be over emphasized (Ezeocha, 1985).

Instructional Supervision can be done either through internal supervisors who are Heads of schools, their assistants, and the Heads of departments, or through External supervisors who are resource persons and consultants like university professors, education researchers, curriculum consultants and designated officials from the Post Primary School Management Board (PPSMB) (Chiagha, 2008). If there is effective instructional supervision there is a greater possibility of achieving the set goals, on the other hand a defective instructional supervision or poor instructional supervision will impede a successful implementation of the school program. Instructional supervision is a great determinant of a school's quality; it can affect it either positively or negatively. Effective instructional supervision of schools ensures proper functioning and mutual interaction of all persons and materials involved in the processing of a child and harmonizes the efforts of all designated school personnel. When all resources (human, 17 physical and material) are in place, the need to monitor the operations within the school system by all interested groups would be an effective way of getting the best out of the school system. Teaching and learning are the major activities going on within the school; there is therefore the need to supervise these major activities for efficiency and effectiveness. In line with the above, the State Post Primary School Management Board (SPPSMB) whose responsibility it is to control secondary education in the country emphasizes greatly on supervision of instruction in the secondary schools. It is on this ground that the board found it more necessary to offer great assistance to the classroom teachers through the designated school officials. These people have important roles to play in helping teachers to achieve the objectives of the secondary school as was stated in the national policy on education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). And how teachers perceive the help given by these officials will determine if these objectives will be achieved or not. These officially designated instructional supervisors can be male or female irrespective of the gender, and they have been trained to supervise instructions in class. Though some male teachers are gender biased when being supervised by female instructional supervisors and as such, they don't usually accept the helps rendered to them with open hearts. Also, some older teachers feel their many years of teaching experience is enough for them and as such supervision should only be meant for younger teachers (Adenaike and Adebajo, 2000). According to Nwoke (1997), teachers do not like to be supervised by supervisors younger in age. 18 The positive perception of teachers towards the influence of supervision of instruction will bring about the actualization of the objectives of supervision of instruction and a negative perception will stampede it. The rationale for this study is to see the

perception of teachers on the influence of supervision of instruction towards the realization of the objectives and goals of supervision which is to improve classroom instruction. This study will be concerned with the perception of teachers on the influence of supervision of instruction as it affects interaction between supervisor and teachers, availability of teaching materials as suggested by instructional supervisors, and conferences and seminars organized by instructional supervisors.

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Model Standards for School Leaders is a program of the Council of Chief State School Officers who have studied effective instructional leadership. They have published lists of standards, of a school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

- A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
- A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
- A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
- A school administrator promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
- A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Some of the basic skills of a school administrator include:

Knowledge

The administrator has knowledge and understanding of:

- learning goals in a pluralistic society
- the principles of developing and implementing strategic plans
- systems theory

- information sources, data collection, and data analysis strategies
- effective communication
- effective consensus-building and negotiation skills

Dispositions

The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:

- the educability of all
- a school vision of high standards of learning
- continuous school improvement
- the inclusion of all members of the school community ensuring that students have the knowledge, skills, and values needed to become successful adults
- a willingness to continuously examine one's own assumptions, beliefs, and practices
- doing the work required for high levels of personal and organization performance.

Performances

The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:

- the vision and mission of the school are effectively communicated to staff, parents, students, and community members
- the vision and mission are communicated through the use of symbols, ceremonies, stories, and similar activities
- the core beliefs of the school vision are modeled for all stakeholders
- the vision is developed with and among stakeholders
- the contributions of school community members to the realization of the vision are recognized and celebrated
- the school community is involved in school improvement efforts
- the vision shapes the educational programs, plans, and activities an implementation plan is developed in which objectives and strategies to achieve the vision and goals are clearly articulated
- assessment data related to student learning are used to develop the school vision and goals relevant demographic data pertaining to students and their families are used in developing the school mission and goals

- barriers to achieving the vision are identified, clarified, and addressed needed resources are sought and obtained to support the implementation of the school mission and goals
- existing resources are used in support of the school vision and goals
- the vision, mission, and implementation plans are regularly monitored, evaluated, and revised.

Leadership styles are modes or methods of leadership adopted by various leaders. Broadly speaking, in a school organization, there are two main styles of leadership which tend to influence administrative procedures – the aloof authoritarian, on the other hand and the colleague and counselor of staff and pupils, on the other. Most often the second view is always favored by teachers and works in harmony with needs of large schools. The former is functionally paternalistic, dictatorial and of course, out-of-date Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:97). Fiedler (1967) as cited by Mbua (2003:223) defines leadership style as the underlying needs structure of the leader that motivates behavior in various situations. For the purpose of this study, the definition of leadership styles is per the United States of America Army Handbook which recognizes three styles of leadership namely authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles as cited by Fonkeng and Tamajong, (2009) and that of Fiedler (1967) because it has to do with how a particular leadership style of school principals would influence teacher’s efficiency.

Authoritarian or Autocratic Leadership Style

According to Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:82), this category of leaders sees themselves as the undisputed head if not a demi-God. He is dictatorial, unilateral and arbitrary in decision-making. He expects people to receive orders without question and expects prompt/punctual performance. Communication in this style of leadership is one way from top to bottom, human relation is poor, cooperation is weak, initiative is killed and morale is low. Mbua (2003:225), refers to this category of leadership style as an action of the leader where-by the leader dictates to or imposes tasks to subordinates, given prominence to organizational demands. Therefore, in this context, it will refer to the actions of the leader, principal whereby he dictates or imposes tasks to subordinates. This is because the principal does not communicate, consult or delegate powers to teachers and thus influences teacher’s inefficiency.

The Participative or Democratic Leadership Style

According to Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:82), this leader delegates a lot of his authority and power while ultimate responsibility rests on him. Decision making is open, participatory and

communication is upwards and downwards. This leadership style enhances personal commitment and stimulates initiative and creativity. It works on the principle of *primus inter pares*. It however, has a weakness because its process involves much consultation and delegation which may be time wastage. This leadership style according to Mbua (2003:225), are the actions of a leader whereby consultations are made with subordinates in decision making, giving greater prominence to individual or group participation. Therefore, in this study we will look at the actions of the leader whereby subordinates are consulted in decision making. In this type of leadership, there is delegation of powers as well as good communication techniques.

The Declarative or Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

According to Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:82), this is irresponsible leadership which puts both authority and responsibility on employees. Communication is lateral and among peers since the leader does not receive nor send out information. Highly motivated and innovative employees get much opportunity to try out things and gain much experience. Here, the main problem is that organizational goals are not well targeted and as such not achieved due to lack of direction; thus, plenty of inefficiency and ineffectiveness. According to Allen (1996:19), laissez faire leader remains passive, leaving decision-making and policy making to others. In this work, this will mean the principal has no clear-cut goals and gives no professional leadership to his teachers, and does not plan work schedule and thus, influences teacher's efficiency. Therefore, researchers strive to find out which is the most appropriate leadership style. Apparently, none of the above is ideal. Theorist has developed what is known as situational leadership theories which all stress that successful leadership occurs when the leader's leadership style matches the situation. Therefore, a leader is thus expected to be flexible, choosing styles that correspond to situation. Quality performance being the school goal implies that leadership is a key factor in influencing learning. Therefore, outstanding performance does not exist without an effective leadership style. Fonkeng & Tamajong (2009) listed adequacy of supervisory assistance and leadership as one of these other factors.

Context of study

Cameroon is a central African nation in the Gulf of Guinea. Bantu speakers were among the first groups to settle in Cameroon, followed by the Muslim Fulani until German domination. In 1976 there have been two separate systems of education the French and English. generally local languages are not taught, there are too many, and choosing between them can raise issues. The

Anglophone or English and Francophone education systems are closely modelled along the lines of colonial heritage.

During the early independence years, the country had a federal government whereby each system of education maintained its own colonial culture. The French more than the Germans had a highly centralized administration. But the British allowed some degree of autonomy. The centralized (French) and the decentralized (British) administrative procedures clearly illustrate a great difference between the British and French systems of education. Harmonization of two such systems present structural and organizational problems.

The above is the situation that principals of schools within the two systems of education are faced with as observed by Tchombe [4]. Within the rapidly expanding system of education, experienced educators and skilled senior classroom teachers are routinely appointed as principals to run complex school organizations. The educational system in Cameroon which is the context of the study has a system of leadership flow. Each secondary school, has a central school administration which is the principal following (MINEDUC, 1995/96). The principal has as role or responsibility to provide leadership and is responsible for the internal organization of his/her school, supervision of the entire institution, which includes the teaching and non-teaching staff. According to Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:251), in accordance with decree No80/293 and circular letter No27/131.APP3 and 7, the principal is responsible for the smooth functioning or running of the school. The April 14, 1998 law on education according to Fonkeng (2007:4) is one of the major issues which present education as one of the greatest national priority. According to Tambo (2003:1), education is the sum total of a person's learning experiences understands during his life time. Education helps people to understand themselves, other people and their environment and also change and improve their society. Mbala Owono (1986:7) says Cameroon ranges as the highest country with the highest scholarization rate in Africa standing at 75 per cent.

Justification of Study

In Cameroon, as per section 37(1) of the law No98/004 of 14th of April 1998 to lay down guidelines for education in Cameroon states that "The teacher shall be the guarantor of the quality of education. In this capacity, the principal shall be entitled, within the limit of means available, to suitable living and working conditions, as well as to appropriate initial and continuing training". There are levels of policy making concerning the school but our pre-concern is that which is formulated by the principal for the smooth running of his/her school. The principal implements

these policies using leadership styles such as democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire. According to Hughes M.G (1974), cited by Fonkeng and Tamajong (2009:55), the principal should use his/her authority to turn the “static organization into a dynamic objective achieving instrument”. A UNESCO report (2006) says “on the contrary, untrained principals tends to sideline teachers in school administration processes which are against the 1996 I.L.O/UNESCO recommendation on the status of teachers to fully participate in the planning processes and policy making of the school”.

Educational organizations are the most important social institutions emerged from within the community, and at the same time it is the organizer, and its impact on development of the society is quite tangible (Mirandery, 2005). Effective leadership must provide a way to lead the efforts of all personnel to accomplish the organization aims. Without leadership and guidance, the link between individuals and organizational goals may be weak or broken (Alagheband,2005), because these subjects can lead to undesirable success in which the individual work is merely done to achieve individuals aims and moreover, the organization loses its efficiency and sufficiency and cannot get to its targets. So, for the organization to remain successful, leadership is essential. School as an organization needs to have their own leadership style. All school administrators should understand the important role teachers have. Thus, this idea has made school administrators to seek appropriate leadership style. Today, as common social phenomenon, the organization system is as an inseparable part of social life and in today’s societies an organization named school takes the responsibility of playing its role and learning is mainly according to specific plans to achieve certain goals accomplished (Alagheband,2000).

The role of the school administrators at school level is a critical factor in determining successful implementation of a school-based management and satisfaction of teachers. In support of this, the Commonwealth Secretariat (1996) comments that, one of the key factors influencing school effectiveness and teachers’ efficiency is the nature and quality of the leadership style and management provided by each school.

Good school-based management requires effective school leadership whereby school principals are able to handle both external operations as well as the school environment interaction (Lambert, 2001). This is because leadership involves interpersonal influence exercised on others through communication process towards the attainment of certain goal (Akerele, 2007). For instance, Greenleaf (1977) pinpoints that a servant-leader enriches the lives of individuals, builds better organizations and ultimately creates a more just and caring society. That is to say, a servant-

leader is servant first; who is eagerly to serve first; who naturally think about serving other by employing democratic foundations for passing decisions and how to implement them. Numerous studies in respect to leadership have consistently indicated that leadership style is a critical factor with regards to teachers' efficiency; affecting positively and/or negatively. In this regard, schools need effective leadership style to give intended results and bring job satisfaction to teachers.

Leadership is the mysteriousness of the process so that a distant relative of the person and the scientists and researchers are located. However, normal people have to seek the leadership of resorting to the darkness of the earth to reach the source of eternal life, but scientists have often tried to lead different aspects and factors are analyzed, as they may refresh characteristics of people needed leadership on his stroke count (Khalili, 2008).

Education uses many teachers and staff with variable knowledge and skills that includes system administrators, teachers, and human capitals. School administrators are responsible for organization that teaches the best capitals of country means children and young people who involved in education. Staffs in school are teachers with different needs, desires, thoughts, education, experience and personalities. These individuals not only move in order to achieved the needs of school and education system, but, in other hand, try to supply their needs and in this regard, school administrators should provide work environment for teacher as a promotive environment so that with restfulness, they will perform their primary task which is the best way to educate children and teenagers (SayedKalan, 2008).

Today school experience cannot be the only requirement to manage, but school administrators need to be equipped with special knowledge and expertise of management posts. Achieving objectives of organization and desirable usage of human force, parallel with material sources needs recognition and knowing the roles of management especially being familiar with different leadership styles in different conditions and situations. As if leadership styles adopted by school administrators in different positions are consistent, the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization will be achieved (SayedKalan, 2008). The school management is responsible for this task. With the difference that the sensitivity of its work is more than other management activities, it's very important. This is why the school as a fundamental pillar of formal education is considered large (Earabi, 2000). It seems that school administrators can play significant role for efficiency of teachers, so, to study the leadership style of school administrators as one of the agents to create efficiency of more teachers, can be important. Therefore, the justification of this study is based on

the fact that, the researcher thinks the results of the study will serve as the basis for developing appropriate leadership style by school administrators or principals that will motivate teachers to do their work efficiently.

Theories of the study

To some scientific management and human relation theories, and theories of motivation in order to create adequate information needed for educational management. Theories of motivation by Abraham Maslow's as well as the two-factor theory by Frederick Herzberg (1950).

Division of Work

This research work is divided into five chapters as follows: chapter One constitutes the statement of the problem, the objectives of the study (general and specify), the research question (general and specific), research hypotheses (general and specific), and significance of the study, the limitation and delimitation of the study. Chapter two defines ideas, concepts and theoretical works that are related to school administrator's leadership styles and teacher's efficiency with emphasis on their shortcomings, relevance or pertinence. Chapter Three consists of the methodological proceedings. This involves the research design, population of the study, sample size, sampling technique, research instrument, validation of the instrument, the pilot test, techniques of data analysis, and operationalization of variables. We shall then proceed with the formation of a recapitulative table on the operationalization of the variables based on the hypotheses, indicators, and modalities of the study. Chapter Four focuses on the presentation of results and analysis of data collected in the field. Identification of the population or the subjects and the results of the other sections of the questionnaire including brief comments of each table and histogram presented. Chapter Five focuses on the interpretation of results, discussion, and recommendations. This involves testing the hypotheses, interpreting and giving possible suggestions for further research and finally the bibliographical references and annex.

Statement of the Problem.

The speed at which classroom teachers are turned into principals shows the lack of emphasis on leadership training for current principals in schools in Cameroon. Leadership and managerial competencies are needed for principalship, rather than good teaching abilities or longevity alone. Long [5] attests to this fact and argues that applied knowledge alone does not constitute lawful administration training. Too many costly errors can happen while knowledge is being acquired and, in any case, the superiority of knowledge can vary extensively. Trial and error should not be a

substitute for leadership skills and competencies training. Although prior practical experience is also needed, it is important and necessary that those who are to be principals in schools in Cameroon and elsewhere have to be trained in leadership and management skills. The fact that any teacher who graduates from an Ecole Normale Supérieure (Advanced Teachers Training College) (ENS) can become principal of a secondary school in Cameroon without much experience in leadership is an issue. The fact that teachers are offered a training course in administration during their training is not enough. They need more leadership and management competencies training. The importance of the principal's leadership is paramount as Leithwood and Reihl [6] emphasize that if you "Scrape the surface of an outstanding school...you will find an exceptional principal. Scratch or Peer into a deteriorating school and you will find a feeble leadership."

The ethical behavior of supervisors is particularly significant due to the multiple responsibilities supervisors assume (Bernard & Goodyear, 2008). The importance is emphasized by the power differential that exists between supervisors and supervisees, and the potential impact on supervisees and clients (Crall, 2010). The mental health field has long recognized the value of ethical standards for the practice of counseling and psychotherapy (Hall, 1952). However, thorough attention to the ethical standards for counseling and psychotherapy supervision by the professional organizations is a more recent occurrence (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision [ACES], 1993; American Counseling Association [ACA], 2005). In spite of these changes, the supervision literature has addressed the issue of supervision ethics in only a few empirical studies in the past decade (Ladany, Lehrman-Waterman, Molinaro, & Wolgast, 1999; Lee & Cashwell, 2001; Townend, Iannetta & Freeston, 2002).

Given that supervisors do not adhere to all ethical practices; it is critical to explore how non-adherence affects the process of supervision. One aspect of the supervision process is the supervisory working alliance, which demonstrates a strong relationship to the effectiveness of supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2008; Cohen & DeBetz, 1977; Holloway, 1997; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Watkins, 1997). Researchers agree that supervisor behavior affects the supervisory working alliance (Gatmon et al., 2001; Lehrman-Waterman & Ladany, 2001). More specifically, preliminary research indicates that supervisor non-adherence to ethical guidelines is associated with a weaker supervisory working alliance (Ladany et al., 1999). Thus, it is important to extend previous research to examine the relationship between supervisor non-adherence to ethical guidelines and the supervisory working alliance. Supervisor ethical behavior and supervisory

working alliance The working alliance is an influential factor in supervision that describes the relational dynamics in a supervisor-supervisee dyad (Bordin, 1983; Ladany, Britton Powel & Pannu, 1997). The supervisory alliance (Bordin, 1983) consists of three interrelated factors: agreement on the goals of supervision, agreement on the tasks of supervision, and the emotional bond between supervisee and supervisor. The link between the supervisory relationship and effective supervision is well-established (Bernard & Goodyear, 2008; Cohen & DeBetz, 1977; Holloway, 1997; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Watkins, 1997). Specifically, a stronger working alliance in supervision is related to greater supervisee self-efficacy (Efstation et al., 1990), less role conflict and ambiguity (Ladany & Friedlander, 1995), improved supervisee clinical and multicultural competence (Inman, 2006), a positive therapeutic working alliance (Patton & Kivlighan, 1997), and greater supervisee satisfaction (Inman, 2006; Ladany, Ellis, & Friedlander, 1999). These relationships indicate that the supervisory working alliance is an important construct to consider in relation to supervisor ethical behavior.

Objectives of the Study

The word goal and objective are often confused with each other. They both describe things that a person may want to achieve or attain but in relative terms may mean different things. Both are desired outcome of work done by a person but what sets them apart is the time frame. According to Amin (2005), objectives are the intellectual activities that the investigator will perform throughout the research processes or the specify kind of knowledge the study is expected to obtain. Therefore, the objective should be stated in concrete and concise terms the reasons for the study.

General Research Objective

The main objective is to determine the relationship between the leadership style of school administrators like principals and vice principals and teachers' efficiency in Cameroon precisely some selected secondary schools in the YAOUNDE 6 municipality center region.

Specific research objectives

The specific objectives were to determine:

- ❖ What relationship exists between the transmission orientation of school administrators and teachers' efficiency?
- ❖ What relationship exists between the transactional orientation of school administrators and teachers' efficiency?

- ❖ What relationship exists between the transformational orientation of the school administrators and teachers' efficiency?

Research Questions

Schloss and Smith (1999) argue that a research question asks about the relationship between two or more variables. Research questions basically reflect the purpose or the objectives of the study. After putting forward the general and the specific objectives, the formulation of the questions similarly takes the same trend and the first step to take is to state the general question before stating the specific questions.

In carrying out this study base on leadership styles of school administrators and teachers' efficiency, a number of questions shall be formulated to guide the study, these include:

General Research Question

The general research question of this study: Is there a relationship between curriculum orientation of school administrators and teachers output? From the general research question, the following specific research questions include.

Specific Research Question

The specific research questions of the study are as follows:

- ❖ Is there a relationship between the transmission orientation of curriculum of the school principals and teachers output?
- ❖ Is there a relationship between the transactional orientation of Curriculum of school principals and teachers output?
- ❖ Is there a relationship between the transformational orientation of Curriculum of the school principals and teachers output?

Research Hypothesis

A hypothesis defined by Wikipedia is a proposed explanation for a phenomenon. For a hypothesis to be a scientific hypothesis, the scientific method requires that one can test it. Scientists generally base scientific hypotheses on previous observations that cannot satisfactorily be explained with the available scientific theories. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica a hypothesis is a suggested solution for an unexplained occurrence that does not fit into current accepted scientific theory. The basic idea of a hypothesis is that there is no pre-determined outcome. For a hypothesis to be termed a scientific hypothesis, it has to be something that can be supported or refuted through carefully crafted experimentation or observation. This is called

falsifiability and testability, an idea that was advanced in the mid-20th century by a British philosopher named Karl Popper. The following null or statistical hypothesis (H₀) and alternative hypothesis (H_a) are formulated to guide this research as follows

General Research Hypothesis

A hypothesis is a presumptive statement of a proposition or a reasonable guess based on available evidence that the researcher intends to check. According to Best and Khan, (1993), a research hypothesis is a formal affirmative statement predicting a single research outcome. Gay (1996) defines hypothesis as a tentative explanation for certain behaviors, phenomena, or events that have occurred or will occur. The general hypothesis will be stated as follows

H_a: There is a significant relationship between curriculum orientations and teacher's output.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between curriculum orientations and teacher's output.

Specific Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis one

H_a: There is a significant relationship between the transmission orientation of Curriculum of the school administrators and teachers output.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between the transmission orientation of Curriculum of the school administrators and teachers output.

Hypothesis Two

H_a: There is a significant relationship between the transaction orientation of Curriculum of school administrators and teachers output.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between the transaction orientation of Curriculum of school administrators and teachers output.

Hypothesis Three

H_a: There is a significant relationship between the transformation orientation of Curriculum of school administrators and teachers output.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between the transformation orientation of Curriculum of school administrators and teachers output.

Scope and Delimitations of the Study

This study will be carried out in the Yaounde 6 municipality within a few secondary schools. The main objectives under investigation is to find out and examine how leadership styles

of principals or school administrators influence or affects the teachers proper delivery of lessons(output).

Thematic Delimitation

The researcher decided to use the theme “curriculum orientation of principals and its effects on the teachers output”. The choice of this theme is due to the researchers experience during a teaching experience. This theme was equally chosen because of the inefficient and ineffective methods leadership styles used by principals which is a prime cause of poor lesson delivery by teachers in the classroom in the Yaounde 6 municipality. Research over the past years indicates that leadership styles of school administrators is one of the critical ingredients of inefficient/ineffective teaching and it is alleged that the teacher is probably the single and most important factor affecting teaching and learning in the school milieu.

Theoretical Delimitation

The researcher has decided to limit this study to some scientific management and human relation theories, and theories of motivation in order to create adequate information needed for educational management. These theories will be able to provide general answers and suggestions to specific curriculum orientations thereby allowing educational leaders or practitioners to utilise knowledge produced by several leadership styles to know truths about the issues and problems surrounding teacher’s efficiency in secondary schools.

Significance of the Study

The aim of the researcher is to carry out this study to bring out contributions of curriculum orientation of principals and teachers’ efficiency(output). Given that this study deals with how teacher’s efficiency is influence by the principal’s leadership style, it is hoped that this study will be vital to policy and law makers, educational administration in general, principals, teachers, learners as well as the entire society in the following ways:

- ❖ The findings of the study will be useful to the education policy makers and implementers in the various fields of education.
- ❖ As regards the principals, this study will help them to revise their leadership styles in order to ensure teacher’s efficiency and consequently students’ performance.
- ❖ This study will also enable school administrators to be able to detect the causes of failure and success of their institutions.

- ❖ The study will shed light on the relationship between curriculum orientations of school administrators and teachers' efficiency.
- ❖ This will be useful to authorities who appoint and deploy school administrators as well as those who monitor the performance and efficiency of teachers.
- ❖ The findings will also be used by those involved in the supervision and monitoring of schools, where special emphasis will be placed on the factors which influence teacher's efficiency in secondary schools.
- ❖ The political leaders in the Ministry of secondary education also benefit from the study because the findings guide them in prioritizing the allocation of resources to motivate teachers.
- ❖ By focusing on the specific leadership factors which influence teachers' efficiency, the study motivates future researchers to identify other factors with a view of establishing the role each factor plays in the overall school performance in the schools.
- ❖ In terms of the system of performance appraisal of school administrators, the findings of the study will also indicate the strength of leadership styles, and their contribution to the welfare and teachers' efficiency in secondary schools.
- ❖ The findings of this study will be important to the teachers' training institutions in Cameroon as it organizes training of school administrators in areas of educational administration and management. It will equally encouraged teachers to do their work efficiently no matter the leadership style of the school principal
- ❖ The findings will be beneficial to students because good management will give rise to an atmosphere suitable for learning, and as such, they would also benefit from teachers' efficiency/effectiveness and consequently increased in the output rate of students.
- ❖ This study will serve as a pathway for those aspiring to become leaders to follow in the sense that, they will be able to adopt effective leadership styles which match the enabling teacher's efficiency.
- ❖ The government will also benefit since she shall receive good output that will greatly serve the country tomorrow, thus increasing development.
- ❖ Parents will equally benefit since the pride of every parent is to see his/her child succeed in school and in life as a whole. At the end, such parent(s) will be proud of reaping the fruits of their labor.

- ❖ Finally, the information gathered from this study will provide more literature for further studies in the field of school leadership or administration.

Summary

We have cited our problem which stems mostly on the curriculum orientations of school administrators which results to teacher's inefficiency or poor delivery of classroom lessons. In this study, the following variables are identified; transmission orientation, transactional and transformational leadership. From these variables, research objectives, research questions, and hypotheses have been formulated. The researcher has also looked at the significance of the study. This leads us to Chapter Two of the work which centres on the review of related literature and the theoretical frame work of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter focuses on review of literature related to the study on curriculum orientations of school administrators (principals) and teacher's efficiency (output). The review aims to focus on the definition, nature, evolution and conceptualization of variables under study. It also focuses on leadership theories and styles with special reference to styles that relate to educational institutions. Leadership practices and leadership styles of school administrators based on their curriculum orientations in the realm of secondary education in Cameroon was equally highlighted. It looks at the role of school leadership vis-a-vis the curriculum. First, it offers a brief overview of school leadership, acknowledging the multitude of systems within the system as each principal has autonomy over educational matters. The curriculum work of school leaders on the school level is discussed. Administrative tasks and certain controlling aspects of management are perceived as strain. It is argued that the concept of "educational leadership" is strongly – even if even implicitly – aligned with the knowledge base of instructional leadership as well as of the curriculum orientations.

Theoretical Review

Clifton Williams (1978) holds that a theory is a systematic statement of the interrelated principles and concepts that explain a specified set of observations. Theory is intended to give meaning to and to show the relationship between otherwise unexplainable facts. It subsequently provides a basis for prediction and control. In the study of educational administration, Hoy and Miskel (1996), cited by Mbua (2003:25), defines theory as a set of interrelated concepts, assumptions, and generalization that systematically describe and explain regularities in behavior in educational organizations. Therefore, without theories, we would have only a collection of facts without any kind of interpretation. Above all, theories guide research and also enable the researcher to predict the outcome of situations both in studies and in life. Since no single theoretical framework can completely explain a class of events, the following theories are therefore used in this work

Leadership Approaches and Models

The ways in which leaders behave, and the specific acts by which they play out their leadership roles are based on certain assumptions about human nature. The nature of the

supervisory relationship creates an unusual set of ethical issues that arise from the multiple responsibilities supervisors assume (Bernard & Goodyear, 2008), the power differential that exists between the supervisor and supervisee (Crall, 2010), and the potential impact on the therapeutic work of supervisees. Consciously or unconsciously, leaders operate on the basis of some personal theory of human behavior.

Scientific Management Approach

Scientific management was a management philosophy concerned with increasing productivity among workers. It regarded workers as extensions of the machines they operated. It was first expounded by Frederick W. Taylor, who was an engineer in the early 20th century, and a foreman or the first level supervisor. He argued that no consideration was accorded to employees as human beings, or as people with different needs, abilities, and interests. Workers were considered to be lazy and dishonest and to have a low level of intelligence.

The Human Relation Approach

This is an approach to leadership that regards employees' needs as a legitimate responsibility. It arose in the 1920s and 1930s under the impact of the Hawthorne studies, which focused attention on workers instead of production. In the Hawthorne experiments, a new approach emerged where a new type of supervisor acted differently, allowing workers to set their own production pace and to form social groups. They were permitted to talk to one another on the job, and their views about the work were elicited. The new supervisor treated them like human beings.

Theory X and theory Y Approach

The scientific management and human relations approach to leadership behavior were given formal expression by McGregor (1960) as Theory X and Theory Y. The Theory X approach assumes that people are lazy, dislike work and therefore must be coerced, led and directed. Theory X is compatible with scientific management and bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is a formal, orderly and rational approach to organizing business enterprises. Theory Y assumes that people find satisfaction in their work and function best under a leader who allows them to work towards their goals. This is indeed true in the education situation in the case of the traditional schools with an impeccable culture and strong religious values, where the majority of teachers love teaching; they love their school and hence do not need direction. In such institutions, control and punishment are not necessary to bring about good job performance. People are industrious, creative and seek challenges and responsibility on the job. However, on the other hand in some new schools and

particularly in respect of young teachers, the situation might be different. Some of them do not have the profession at heart, whilst some may have joined the teaching profession by default and, or as a last resort.

Theory Y is compatible with Maslow's view that people seek inner satisfaction and fulfillment of our human capacities towards self-actualization. It is also compatible with the human relations movement in management and with the participative, democratic style of management. An example of the application of Theory Y is management by objectives.

Theory of Motivation; Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs Theory (1954)

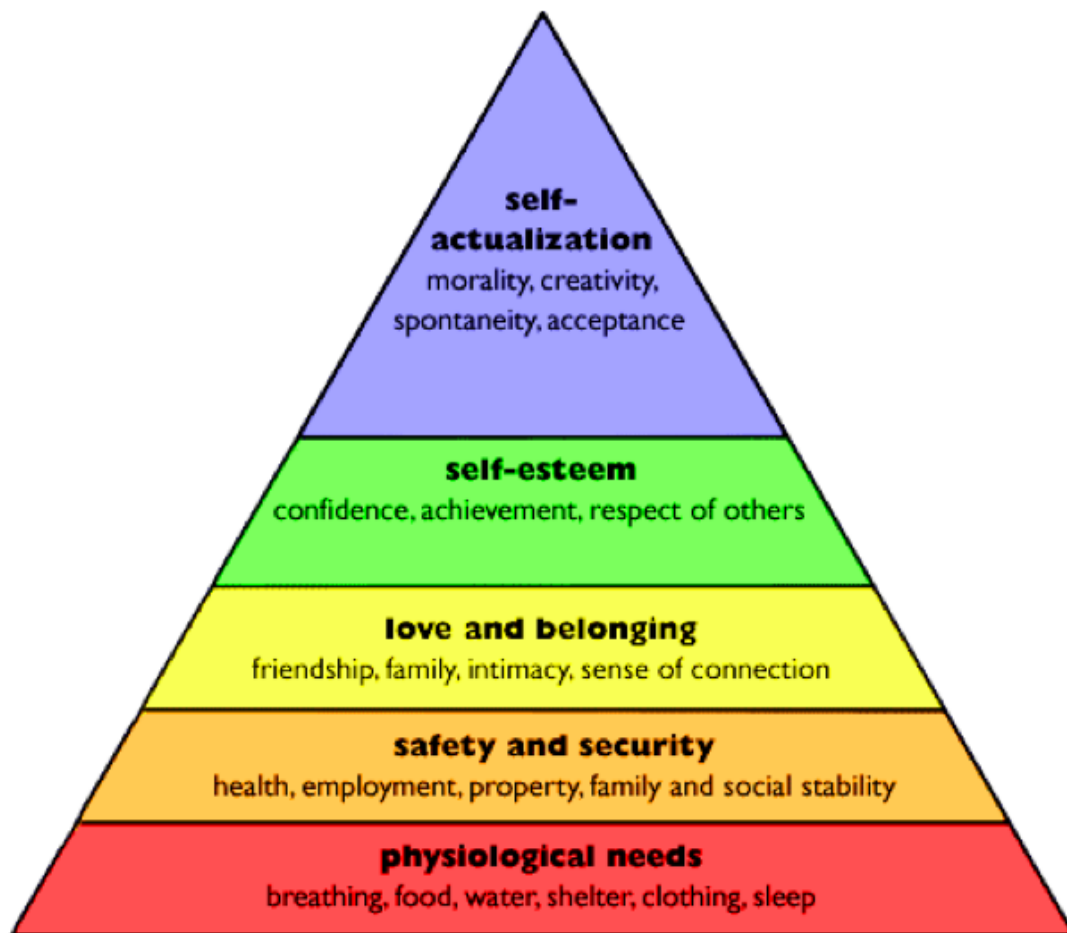
Maslow (1943) initially stated that individuals must satisfy lower level deficit needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. However, he later clarified that satisfaction of a needs is not an "all-or-none" phenomenon, admitting that his earlier statements may have given "the false impression that a need must be satisfied 100 percent before the next need emerges" (1987, p. 69). Maslow (1954) as cited in Barry (2003) hypothesized that human behavior is motivated by a number of competing needs that can be arranged in a hierarchy. Maslow's need theory suggests that management should work to gradually move each employee up the motivational hierarchy toward self-actualization, that is, the full realization of an individual's potential. He proposed a hierarchy of needs gratification from those that are basic to survival, to needs that guide behavior only when the person has fulfilled needs lower down the hierarchy.

The hierarchy of needs five-stage model includes:

1. **Biological and physiological needs** - air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex, sleep.
2. **Safety needs** - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.
3. **Love and belongingness needs** - friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).
4. **Esteem needs** - which Maslow classified into two categories:
 - ✓ Esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, independence) and
 - ✓ The desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige). Maslow indicated that the need for respect or reputation is most important for children and adolescents and precedes real self-esteem or dignity.
5. **Self-actualization needs** - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences. A desire "to become everything one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1987, p. 64).

The stages of this theory are presented on the pyramid below.

Figure 1: pyramid of Maslow



Source: Nicky Hayes (1994), Foundations of Psychology, Clays Ltd., London and New York

Physiological Needs

This need hierarchy is a systematic listing of needs in priority order, such that needs further up the hierarchy can be met only after more basic needs have been satisfied. The more basic needs are deficiency needs (needs that must be satisfied for survival). The needs at the very top are growth needs (needs that enhance the persons psychological functioning). At the bottom of the pyramid are the physiological needs such as food, water, sleep and sex, which are essential for the body's survival. If we are in a situation where these needs are not being met, according to Maslow (1954), our energies are devoted towards satisfying them than anything else. In order to move up the hierarchy, a person must have these physiological needs met. But if those needs are satisfied, we do not think any more about them, and safety needs become more important then.

Safety Needs

Safety needs comes next in the hierarchy in which Maslow (1954) suggests that people need a safe, secure environment and protected from dangers in order to function effectively. In the world of work, this safety needs manifest themselves in such things as a preference for job security, grievance procedures for protecting the individual from unilateral authority, savings accounts, insurance policies, reasonable disability accommodations, and the like. Safety and Security needs include: Personal security, financial security, health and well-being, safety net against accidents/illness and their adverse impacts. We are now motivated to see to it that there is enough money saved to protect against sudden calamity. Maslow as cited by Josh (1993) stated that we are not going to worry about what we will be eating tomorrow if there is not enough to eat today; but if today's needs are taken care of, we can then focus on the future. In line with this research study, Tsafak (1998) holds that job security is indispensable in the interest of education and the teacher himself. They therefore need to be protected against arbitrary actions.

Love and Affection (Belonging) Needs

At the next level are the need for belongingness and the need for love. This aspect of Maslow's hierarchy involves emotionally based relationships in general, such as: friendship, intimacy, family. Humans need to feel a sense of belonging and acceptance, whether it comes from a large social group, such as clubs, office culture, religious groups, professional organizations, sports teams, gangs, or small social connections (family members, intimate partners, mentors, close colleagues, confidants). They need to love and be loved (sexually and non-sexually) by others That is, the need for someone else to care about us, to love us and to be a contributing member of some group or society. Failure to satisfy these needs can lead to feeling of loneliness and isolation in the teacher which might likely affect his productivity and teachers' efficiency. After these needs are fulfilled, the person strives for esteem needs.

Self-Esteem Needs

Esteem needs is the next after belongingness and love need, which include the need for self-esteem or self-worth and the need for other esteem. Self-esteem is the need to maintain a perception of oneself as a generally competent, strong and independent person. The need for other esteem is the desire to have a good reputation and to obtain recognition and social status. Failure to satisfy the esteem needs is likely to lead to feelings of incompetence, helplessness, and inferiority. This

might cause a teacher to move to another job where he believes his self-esteem will be achieved. The low social status of teachers and incompetence may explain why teachers are leaving the profession to those of higher status.

When all the above needs are regularly satisfied, it moves the individual to a higher state of psychological functioning and makes him a more effective person. Once all the above needs are fulfilled, the person is ready to strive for the highest-level need; self-actualization. The very highest need (the capstone of Maslow's hierarchy) is the need for self-actualization. Feldman (2000) states that self-actualization is a state of self-fulfillment in which people realize their highest potential in their own unique way. Instead of focusing on psychopathology and what goes wrong with people, Maslow (1943) formulated a more positive account of human behavior which focused on what goes right. He was interested in human potential, and how we fulfill that potential. Psychologist Abraham Maslow (1943, 1954) stated that human motivation is based on people seeking fulfillment and change through personal growth. Self-actualized people are those who were fulfilled and doing all they were capable of. The growth of self-actualization (Maslow, 1962) refers to the need for personal growth and discovery that is present throughout a person's life. For Maslow, a person is always 'becoming' and never remains static in these terms. In self-actualization, a person comes to find a meaning to life that is important to them. As each individual is unique, the motivation for self-actualization leads people in different directions (Kenrick et al., 2010). For some people self-actualization can be achieved through creating works of art or literature, for others through sport, in the classroom, or within a corporate setting. Maslow (1962) believed self-actualization could be measured through the concept of peak experiences. This occurs when a person experiences the world totally for what it is, and there are feelings of euphoria, joy, and wonder. It is important to note that self-actualization is a continual process of becoming rather than a perfect state one reaches of a 'happy ever after' (Hoffman, 1988).

Maslow says these are the most difficult to satisfy and he believed that a person's position on the hierarchy is likely to rise with age. Mittelman (1995) as cited by Barry stipulates that the self-actualizing person, referred to by Maslow as the fully human person, is constantly striving to achieve higher and higher levels of personal growth. He is non-defensive, open to experience, spontaneous, problem oriented and largely autonomous from the environment.

This theory stipulates that, when a need is satisfied, the subject is motivated to move to the next one. This can be where, if the government provides the teachers with adequate pay so that

they can meet up with their basic needs, they will likely be satisfied and motivated to work and achieve higher needs. Hence, the productivity of the teacher will improve and teacher's efficiency will likely improve. But if the teacher is unable to provide food, water, clothing and shelter for himself and his family, he will be demotivated to work and will be unable to achieve higher needs. This holds with what Maslow says as cited by Oladele (1998) that lower order needs must be satisfied before the higher order needs can be met. A teacher who is hungry and cannot provide for his family will spend time teaching from one school to the other so as to satisfy his basic needs. As such, he might not have enough time to rest and prepare lesson for the next class, which might affect his productivity why not the academic performance of students. With regards to the safety needs, a teacher who is not protected and always brutalized will feel unsecured. An environment plagued with diseases will make a teacher feel his life is unsafe, and might be forced to look for transfer to another school where he thinks his life will be safe from danger. As such, he will create a vacuum in that school which if not quickly filled; it might cause a drop in the performance of students.

When we look at the theory above, we find that in this study, there is motivation based on Maslow's needs. According to Tamukong et al (2005), Cameroon is a poor country and the needs for water, food, sleep and shelter are often unmet for a majority of the people. Teachers need their salaries to permit them to buy food, clothes and shelter. They also need to marry and start families. So unmet basic needs are in abundance and because of this, we think teachers are motivated since they have to work to satisfy even these basic needs. As such, teacher's efficiency will improve since teachers would be motivated to teach. Aamodt et al, (1993) as cited by Barry (2003) contends that Maslow's theory has provided a way of understanding what motivates employees and has been used as a tool to reduce turnover, increase productivity and improve job satisfaction.

Although it may be useful in some respects, there are several serious flaws in the theory, and in particular with the idea that lower needs have to be satisfied before higher needs become important. Some people are motivated in ways that violate the stage approach of this theory. Some individuals will, for example, freely give up satisfying basic survival needs for the sake of higher principles (as in hunger strikes). Mills (1985) as cited by Barry says, when subjects are asked to rank the needs in order of importance for them, the rankings typically do not conform to Maslow's hierarchy. Enduring satisfaction of physiological and security needs does not necessarily mean the person will go on to seek belongingness and love. And the teenager who develops anorexia as a

result of an extreme and unrealistic image of her ideal body-shape is showing that higher needs (for social approval or respect) can directly override physiological ones, even to the point of actual starvation. In other cases, those needs may be pursued even in the face of chronic hunger. Goebel and Brown (1981) as cited by Barry argue that the age hypothesis has not been confirmed: Position on the need hierarchy does not consistently increase with age. Maslow's model may provide a rough working generalization about most people in most situations, but it is not really adequate as an explanation of human motivation.

Conceptual Review

Definition of Leadership

Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school. While evidence about leadership effects on student learning can be confusing to interpret, much of the existing research actually underestimates its effects. The total (direct and indirect) effects of leadership on student learning account for about a quarter of total school effects (Louis et al).

Leadership is a universal human phenomenon, as well as a rather sophisticated concept (Bass, 1981). The term "leadership" has been defined and conceptualized in numerous ways and in accordance with different theories of leadership. There are many definitions of leadership; the majority of which involve the idea of guiding followers to their goals (Yukle, 2002). Bass (1981), pointed out that nearly every theorist has its own definition of leadership. Many scholars have interpreted the concept of leadership differently.

For more than a decade, the Wallace Foundation has sponsored rigorous research on school leadership. In a recent report, the foundation highlighted an important message from the research: "A particularly noteworthy finding is the empirical link between school leadership and improved student achievement" (Wallace Foundation, 2011, p. 3). The foundation said about this link:

Education research shows that most school variables, considered separately, have at most small effects on learning. The real payoff comes when individual variables combine to reach critical mass. Creating the conditions under which that can occur is the job of the principal. (Wallace Foundation, 2011, p. 2)

Researchers Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, and Anderson (2010) concurred with this assessment and drew from findings of a research project that spanned six years:

In developing a starting point for this six-year study, they claimed, based on a preliminary review of research, that leadership is second only to classroom instruction as an influence on student learning. After six additional years of research, they are even more confident about this claim. To date they have not found a single case of a school improving its student achievement record in the absence of talented leadership. *Why is leadership crucial?* One explanation is that leaders have the potential to unleash latent capacities in organizations. (p. 9). A study in leadership is enticing and has been a preoccupation of human beings since the beginning of life (Bass, 1990). It provides a springboard for aspiring leaders to be able to rate themselves against great individuals who have worn the title of being great leaders. A leader is a person who possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character (Bingham, 1972). Yukl (1989) and Omar (2005) describe the study of leadership as both daunting and enticing. It is daunting because it is regarded as one of the most important and pervasive concepts argued across a multitude of disciplines including educational, political, legal and psychological ones.

In addition, Omar (2005) argues that leadership is a subject of much published work produced annually. Stogdill (1948), looks at leadership as the influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement. According to Fiedler (1967), leadership is an interpersonal relationship in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent. Lipman and Blumen (1994) defines leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives and according to Kenzevich (1975), leadership is a force that can initiate action among people, guide activities in a given direction, maintain such activities and unify efforts towards common goals. According to Burns (1978) leadership "is one of the most observed phenomena on earth and one of the least understood".

School leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions (Leithwood, day, SammonS, harriS, & hopkinS, 2006, p. 5). McGregor (1960) maintains that leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological and other resources so as to rouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers. Halpin (1969) looks at leadership as consisting of two aspects namely a group achievement and group maintenance. This involves the directing of the group towards the

achievement of the organizational goals. It also implies the sustenance of the social relationships at work. Burns (1978), concludes leadership, unlike naked power wielding is thus inseparable from followers' needs and goals. Leadership is the ability to develop a vision that motivates others to move with a passion. Leadership is seen as the process of encouraging and helping others to work enthusiastically towards objectives. Jacques and Clement (1991) define leadership as a process in which an individual provides direction for other people and carries them along in that direction with competence and full commitment. According to Muya (1993), leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of man's performance to higher standard, the building of man's responsibility beyond its normal limitations. Leadership is regarded as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations – the wants and needs, the aspiration and expectations -of both leaders and followers (Burns, 1978)

Leadership can be defined as a process that directs and organizes individuals (Kotter, 1990). Leadership has been discovered that accomplishments depend not only on the characteristics of the leader but also the interaction of the followers and the situation as well as the fundamentally concerned with how leaders influence change and induce followers to also change (Faugier and Woolnough, 2002). In terms of behavior studies, researchers identified two basic kinds of behavior that make up leadership: task behavior and relationship behavior (Northouse, 1997). Task behavior facilitates goal accomplishment, whereas relationship behavior helps followers feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation. Deal and Peterson (1999) describe the role of leadership as “the creation, encouragement, and refinement of the symbols and symbolic activities that give meaning to the organization”. Leadership is the art of weaving relationships in both an official and unofficial capacity and motivating others to evolve and grow, complete their work, and learn from the process (Burns, 1978; Depree, 1989; Gardner, 1990). Bennis (1989) wrote, “Leadership is like beauty that is hard to define, but you know it when you see it” There are two aspects of leadership:

- (a) The art of leadership, which involves vision, modeling, renewal, judgment, power, and trust; and
- (b) The science of leadership, which includes team building, communication, decision-making, conflict management, planning, and resource allocation.

Sergiovanni (1990) defined leadership as consisting of four concepts: bartering, building, bonding, and banking. Bartering provides the initiative to get things started, while building and

bonding allow for the support and inspiration needed in school improvement. Banking insures a routinization of school improvement efforts. Leadership is generally defined as the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly toward the achievement of objectives. Leadership could be seen as the process of influencing the activities of an organization toward goal setting and goal achievement. Leadership is regarded as the single most important factor in the success or failure of institutions such as schools (Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Leithwood, 1996; Markley, 1996). Fonkeng and Tamajong (2008:82), defines leadership as the “the ability of a manager to influence subordinates to voluntarily make efforts towards achieving organizational goals/objectives. In addition to lead, individuals must add to their authority and power personal attributes and social skills”. Therefore, in this context, leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group (school) towards goal setting and achievement. This is because, the principal as the leader in a school organization influences teachers’ efficiency.

In contemporary affairs, governments or companies that prosper are said to enjoy good leadership; whereas in those that fail, the leaders are to blame (Campbell, et al. 1983). Getting the job done and done well require good leadership and good management (Ubben & Hughes, 1992).

The Importance of Leadership

Johnson (2006) agreed and viewed the principal as the “broker of workplace conditions” someone whose “influence on the school as a workplace for teachers extends well beyond being in charge of the school” (p. 15). For example, a survey of 40,000 teachers conducted by Scholastic and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2010) asked teachers about the factors that affect retention. This study found that “supportive leadership is the standout, top-ranked item” (p. 39). Other studies have made similar findings about the importance of leadership on teachers’ attitudes about their working conditions.

In the past, educational leaders were judged routinely on their effectiveness in managing fiscal, organizational, and political conditions in their schools and school systems. In essence, they were expected simply to set the stage for student learning. Now leaders are increasingly being held accountable for the actual performance of those under their charge. With new assessment instruments and data-processing technologies, educational institutions and systems have much greater capacity for measuring outcomes, reporting them at the school and teachers level, and using them as indicators of leaders’ effectiveness.

School leadership has become a priority in education policy agenda across countries. It plays a key role in improving school outcomes by influencing the motivations and capacities of teachers, as well as the environment and climate within which they work. Effective school leadership is essential to improve the efficiency and equity of schooling. School leadership practices have been greatly influenced by changes in educational governance and school contexts. On the one hand there are moves towards decentralization and autonomy coupled with greater accountability; on the other hand, new approaches to teaching and learning processes and increasingly varied teachers population are changing leadership roles and responsibilities.

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organization, because it determines the success or failure of the organization. Oyetunyi (2006) posits that in an organization such as a school, the importance of leadership is reflected in every aspect of the school like instructional practices, academic achievement, students' as well as teachers discipline, and school climate. Using data from a study of North Carolina teachers, Ladd (2009) found that "school leadership emerges as the most consistently relevant measure of working conditions" (p. 29).

Leadership exists within social relationships and serves social ends. Although leaders are individuals, leadership is embedded in social relationships and organizations and is expected to accomplish something for a group. It is not an individual or personal phenomenon. Leadership involves purpose and direction. Leaders pursue goals with clarity and tenacity and are accountable for their accomplishment. In some views, it is the leader's role to develop and champion group goals. In other views, it is a more inclusive process, but one in which the leader is a key player. In still other cases, leadership may consist of the focusing of effort around a vision that originates elsewhere.

Leadership is an influential process. Leaders sometimes do things that have a direct effect on the primary goals of the collective, but more often their agency consists of influencing the thoughts and actions of other persons and establishing the conditions that enable others to be effective. This influence may be targeted, helping people to accomplish something specific; or quite broad and transformative, lifting the aspirations and actions of others in expansive, often unpredictable ways (Burns, 1978).

Leadership is a function. Many observers of leadership acknowledge that leadership encompasses a set of functions that are not necessarily equated with a particular office or formal

appointment. Persons in many different roles may do the work of leadership, although they often have different resources, abilities, and proclivities for doing so.

Leadership is contextual and contingent. Most contemporary theories of leadership suggest that leadership is practiced differently depending on the nature of the social organization, the goals being pursued, the individuals involved, resources and time frames, and many other factors, including characteristics of leaders themselves (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Duke, 1999). No one formula of effective leadership is applicable in all contexts.

Teacher quality is the most important in school factor in relation to student achievement, the extent to which school leaders are successful in driving teacher efficiency/effectiveness is another major measure of their success as leaders. High-performing leaders need, however, to do more than understand theories of leadership or what makes efficient/effective teaching; they also need to be able to take effective action to achieve student outcomes and teacher efficiency/effectiveness.

Qualities of a Good Leader

Just as there are specific features that contribute toward an accurate definition of leadership, there are also some common qualities that effective leader's share. Whether in fact a person is born a leader or develops skills and abilities to become a leader is open for debate. There are certain characteristics found in some people that seem to naturally put them in a position where they're looked up to as a leader. Effective principals agree with this assessment. Blase, Blase, and Phillips (2010) interviewed 20 principals who had been recognized by their state departments of education as a "high-performing principal of a high performing or significantly improving school". These principals indicated that Effective administrative leadership provides a stable, predictable, and supportive foundation for a high-performing school [and] that effective administrative and instructional leadership are inextricably intertwined and interdependent processes. (p. xxviii)

White (1964) outlines the following as qualities of a good leader. A good leader has an exemplary character. It is of utmost importance that a leader is trustworthy to lead others. A leader needs to be trusted and be known to live their life with honesty and integrity. A good leader "walks the talk" and in doing so earns the right to have responsibility for others. True authority is born from respect for the good character and trustworthiness of the person who leads. A good leader is enthusiastic about their work or cause and also about their role as leader. People will respond more openly to a person of passion and dedication. Leaders need to be able to be a source of inspiration,

and be a motivator towards the required action or cause. Although the responsibilities and roles of a leader may be different, the leader needs to be seen to be part of the team working towards the goal. This kind of leader will not be afraid to roll up their sleeves and get dirty. A good leader is confident. In order to lead and set direction a leader needs to appear confident as a person and in the leadership role. Such a person inspires confidence in others and draws out the trust and best efforts of the team to complete the task well. A leader who conveys confidence towards the proposed objective inspires the best effort from team members. A leader also needs to function in an orderly and purposeful manner in situations of uncertainty. People look to the leader during times of uncertainty and unfamiliarity and find reassurance and security when the leader portrays confidence and a positive demeanor. Good leaders are tolerant of ambiguity and remain calm, composed and steadfast to the main purpose. Storms, emotions, and crises come and go and a good leader takes these as part of the journey and keeps a cool head. A good leader as well as keeping the main goal in focus is able to think analytically. Not only does a good leader view a situation as a whole, but is able to break it down into sub parts for closer inspection. Not only is the goal in view but a good leader can break it down into manageable steps and make progress towards it. A good leader is committed to excellence. Second best does not lead to success. The good leader not only maintains high standards, but also is proactive in raising the bar in order to achieve excellence in all areas.

These seven personal characteristics are foundational to good leadership. Some characteristics may be more naturally present in the personality of a leader. However, each of these characteristics can also be developed and strengthened. A good leader whether they naturally possess these qualities or not, will be diligent to consistently develop and strengthen them in their leadership role.

Maxwell (2004), outline the following as qualities of a good leader. This quality includes;

Character: that is, be a piece of the rock. Leadership is the capacity and will to rally men and women to a common purpose and the character which inspires confidence.

Charisma: that is, the first impression can seal the deal. Be more concerned about making others feel good about themselves than you are making them feel good about you. When it comes to charisma the bottom lines other mindedness. Leaders who think about others and their concerns before thinking of themselves exhibit charisma.

Communication: Without it you travel alone. Developing excellent communication skills is absolutely essential to effective leadership. The leader must be able to share knowledge and ideas to transmit a sense of urgency and enthusiasm to others. If a leader can't get a message across clearly to motivate others to act on it, then having a message doesn't even matter. Effective communication is dialogue. Barriers are created by speaking down to people, asking closed questions that elicit yes or no answers, using excessive authority, and promoting a culture that depends on unanimity. If your focus is winning the argument or if you react defensively to criticism, you'll create fear of openness and hinder the organization's growth

Competence: If you build it, they will come. Competence goes beyond words. It's the leader's ability to say it, plan it, and do it in such a way that others know that you know how and know that they want to follow you.

Courage: One Person with courage is a majority. Courage is doing what you're afraid to do. There can be no courage unless you're scared. You gain strength, courage, and confidence by every experience in which you really stop to look fear in the face. You are able to say to yourself, 'I lived through this horror. I can take the next thing that comes along. You must do the thing you cannot do.

Discernment: Put an end to unsolved mysteries. Smart leaders believe only half of what they hear. Discerning leaders know which have to believe. Effective leaders need discernment, although even good leaders don't display it all the time.

Focus: The sharper it is, the sharper you are. The Keys are Priorities and Concentration. A leader who knows what his priorities are but lacks concentration knows what to do but never gets it done. If he has concentration but no priorities, he has excellence without progress. But when he harnesses both, he has potential to achieve great things.

Generosity that is, a good leader is generous. Initiative, that is, Success seems to be connected with action. Successful people keep moving. They make mistakes, but they don't quit. Listening that is, a good leader encourages followers to tell him what he needs to know, not what he wants to hear. Commitment: A good leader must be committed to his/her duties. It separates doers from dreamers. In other words a good leader:

- ❖ Encourages autonomy and independence
- ❖ Provides constructive and timely feedback
- ❖ Flexible

- ❖ Provides professional guidance
- ❖ Friendly
- ❖ Personable
- ❖ Has expertise in the research area
- ❖ Supportive
- ❖ Regular contact

Effective leadership begins with the fundamental ability to believe in you. It incorporates maturity, conviction, and expertise that translate into a purpose and direction. It is this clarity of vision that gives great leaders the confidence to adopt the role of instilling motivation, self-esteem, and teamwork. As visionaries, they are disciplined thinkers and confidently trust their intuition. Leaders understand fully their environment and can transform situations to attain an established vision. Leaders can combine change with growth, take prudent risks, and demonstrate considerable problem solving abilities. They believe in people, are sensitive to other's needs and appreciate a person's core values. They will actively remake a challenge to yield productive outcomes by creating an organization that develops and fosters success. Although often debated, leadership traits can be learned skills that with encouragement and reinforcement can produce outstanding individuals.

In addition, a good leader possesses the following qualities.

Get to know the people around him/her

Everyone has different abilities, wants, needs, and purpose in life. To get along with others and get results, you need to get to know them. Interact with group members as often as possible. The only way to get to know someone is through direct personal contact. Become familiar with every member of your group. Take note of each person's unique qualities and characteristics.

Treat Others as Individuals

Put the knowledge and understanding of each group member to work. Be aware of expectations. Everyone expects something different: recognition, a chance to learn, a chance to work with other people, and so on. Be creative. A repetitious routine can cause boredom. A successful leader thinks of new and better approaches to old ways of doing things, provide rewards, recognition by the group is a source of personal satisfaction and positive reinforcement for a job well done and delegates responsibilities. If everyone shares the work, everyone can share pride in

the group's accomplishments. Let each member know what's expected of him/her, available resources, deadlines, just to outline a few.

Encourage Enthusiasm and a Sense of Belonging

Show friendliness and others will be more willing to share ideas if you're interested in them as people too. Understanding; it is but natural that every individual is fallible to mistakes. Try to be constructive, tolerant and tactful when offering criticism. Fairness: equal treatment and equal opportunity lead to an equally good effort from all group members. Integrity: members will take tasks more seriously if you show that you're more interested in group goals than your own personal gain.

Keep Everyone Working Toward Agreed Upon Goals

Remind everyone of the group's purposes from time to time. It's easy to become too narrowly focused and lose sight of the larger goals. Provide encouragement and motivation, by showing your appreciation for good ideas and extra effort. Harmonize differences and disagreements between group members by stressing compromise and cooperation. Involve everyone in discussions and decisions, even if asking for opinions and ideas means a longer discussion.

Accept Responsibility for Getting Things Done

That is, take the initiative. Why stand around and wait for someone else to get things started? Set an example. Offer help and information. Your unique knowledge and skills may be just what's needed. Seek help and information. Ask for advice if you need it. This will encourage group involvement and help accomplish group goals. Make things happen. By being decisive, energetic, and enthusiastic, you can and will help get things done. Know when and how to say "no." If your time and resources are already committed, turn down extra tasks, but do it nicely.

Strategies of a Good Leader

Developing People

Leaders promote effectiveness by influencing the capacities and motivations of key organizational workers (Lord & Maher, 1993). In schools, the ability to do so depends partly on leaders' knowledge of the "technical core" of teaching and learning, often invoked by the term "instructional leadership." But this ability also depends on what is referred to as leaders' emotional intelligence, or the leader's capacity to connect emotionally with others and to help others develop

and deploy their own emotional resources in the service of their work (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Offering Intellectual Stimulation

Educational leaders help generate the questions and ideas that prompt change in people by challenging staff to examine assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed. Leaders offer intellectual stimulation by providing opportunities for in-depth conversations about teaching and schooling, making informational resources available, supporting well-organized programs for professional development, and introducing new ideas for the school to consider (Leithwood, 1994).

Providing Individualized Support

Educational leaders support staff by showing respect and concern about their personal feelings and needs. This assures staff that the problems encountered while changing their practices will be taken seriously and that help will be offered (Louis, Toole, & Hargreaves, 1999). Recent evidence suggests that leader's personal attention to employees increases levels of enthusiasm and optimism, reduces frustration, transmits a sense of mission, and indirectly increases performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002).

Providing an Appropriate Model

Principals exert leadership for developing people by setting examples for others to follow that are consistent with the organization's values and goals. Modeling provides a clear guide for growth and action; it also enhances staff beliefs about their own capacities and their sense of self-efficacy.

Creating Strong Communities in School

Effective leaders in schools serving diverse groups of teachers as well as students promote a sense of community among all of the school's members, including students, teachers, parents, and others. A small but impressive body of evidence also suggests that pupils benefit when teachers in a school form a "professional learning" sub community (Bryk & Driscoll, 1988; Newmann & Associates, 1996). Professional community stimulates growth in teachers' instructional skills, supports instructional program coherence, and enhances teachers' sense of responsibility for and control over student learning. School leaders whether administrators or teachers, help develop professional community through attention to individual teacher development and by creating and sustaining the structural conditions and human and social resources that support community.

Structural conditions include school size and staffing arrangements that facilitate collaboration, additional time for teacher planning, and opportunities for teacher decision-making. Human and social resources include supportive leadership, policies and practices that create an atmosphere of openness to innovation, feedback on instructional performance, and professional development opportunities (Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996).

Redesigning the Organization

Successful educational leaders develop their schools as effective organizations that support and sustain the performance of teachers as well as students. Three specific sets of practices are typically associated with this category:

Strengthening School Cultures

Leaders influence organizational culture through practices aimed at developing shared norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes and promoting mutual caring and trust among staff. A strong school culture draws members together around the goals being pursued by the school and the values and beliefs underlying the goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Skalbeck, 1991).

Modifying Organizational Structures

Leaders redesign organizational structures through changes in staff and task assignments, the scheduling and design of time and space, routine operating procedures, and the deployment of technology and other material resources, all of which can hinder or enable individual performance and the accomplishment of organizational goals. Successful educational leaders direct structural changes to the establishment of positive conditions for teaching and learning (Louis, Kruse, and Associates, 1995).

Building Collaborative Processes

Leaders work to enhance school performance by providing opportunities for staff to participate in decision-making about issues that affect them and for which their knowledge is crucial. Such involvement assures staff that they can shape the organizational context to meet their own needs relative to goal accomplishment (Sleegers, Geijsel, & van den Borg, 2002).

Building Powerful Forms of Teaching and Learning

In schools that show impressive achievement gains, educational leaders maintain a clear and consistent focus on improving the core task of teaching, and they accept no excuses for failure. They help teachers to understand how they can work more effectively with their students, and this improves teachers' certainty that they can make a difference (Louis & Smith, 1992; Rosenholtz,

1985). Building powerful forms of teaching and learning requires attention to both classroom and school-level issues. For example, leaders emphasize the necessity of all staff having ambitious learning goals for all students. They express high expectations in part by making careful decisions about student promotion policies (McCoy & Reynolds, 1999; Westbury, 1994) and about the size and composition of classes (Finn, 2002; Nye, Hedges, & Konstantopoulos, 1999). Successful school leaders have high standards for the curriculum to which students are exposed.

Setting Directions

A critical aspect of leadership work is helping a group develop shared understandings about the organization and its goals that can frame a sense of purpose or vision. The practice of setting directions is enacted through several means.

Identifying and Articulating a Vision

Educational leaders help identify new opportunities for the school and articulate a vision of the future that can inspire others. When visions are value-laden, they can lead to increased commitment from organizational members and provide compelling purposes for continual professional growth (Hallinger & Heck, 2002).

Fostering the acceptance of group goals

Leaders help set direction by encouraging staff to develop goals that are shared. People are motivated by goals that they find compelling and challenging but achievable (Ford, 1992). Having such goals helps people make sense of the organization and craft an identity within their work context (Pittman, 1998; Thayer, 1988). Shared goals also help to orient organizational activity in common directions for maximal impact.

Creating High Performance Expectations

Leaders help provide direction through actions that demonstrate their expectations for quality and high performance from staff. High expectations can help organizational members see the challenging nature of the goals being pursued, while also making it clear that the expectations are feasible (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Nurturing the Development of Families' Educational Cultures

Social conditions associated with poverty, such as residential mobility, family break ups, and poor health, certainly are likely to affect teachers' ability to focus and do well in school (Dillard, 1995; Englert, 1993; Gezi, 1990; Natriello, McDill, & Pallas, 1990; Portin, 2000). Beyond that, however, other family conditions and interactions provide more powerful explanations for

family background effects on teacher's efficiency (Lee, Bryk, & Smith, 1993). These conditions and interactions constitute what is known as a family's educational culture.

At the core of family educational cultures are the assumptions, norms, and beliefs held by the family about intellectual work in general and schoolwork in particular. Other basic dimensions include family work habits, academic guidance and support, parents' or guardians' academic and occupational aspirations and expectations for their children, adequate health and nutritional conditions, and physical settings in the home conducive to academic work (Henderson & Berla, 1994; Walberg, 1984). These conditions are related to school success, as evidenced by a substantial body of research (Finn, 1989; Rumberger, 1987; Scott-Jones, 1984). When schools support families to develop strong educational cultures at home, children from low-income families and diverse cultural backgrounds approach the grades and test scores expected for middle-class children. They are also more likely to take advantage of a full range of educational opportunities after graduating from high school (Henderson & Berla, 1994).

School leaders help families develop strong educational cultures by championing parent education and coordinated services. Parent education helps families acquire resources and competencies to support their children's education; it can be provided through group meetings and classes, newsletters, home visits, neighborhood meetings, phone consultations, and the provision of audio, video, and print resources (Epstein, 1996, 2001).

Also, a good leader needs to create and sustain a competitive school. This set of practices is important for district and school leaders when they find themselves in competition for students in education "markets" which feature alternatives to existing public schools such as charter, magnet and private schools perhaps supported through tuition tax credits.

Provide instructional guidance and empower others to make significant decisions

While this is an important set of leadership practices in almost all districts and schools aiming to improve student learning, it takes on a special character in the context of more explicit grounds for assessing the work of educators, as for example, the setting of professional standards and their use for purposes of on-going professional development and personnel evaluation. This is a key set of leadership practices, particularly when accountability mechanisms include giving a greater voice to community stakeholders as in the case of parent-controlled school councils.

Develop and Implement Strategic School Improvement Plans

When schools are required to have school improvement plans, as most districts now demand, school leaders need to master skills associated with productive planning and the implementation of such plans. Virtually all district leaders need to be proficient in large-scale strategic planning processes.

Figure 2: Diagram showing strategies used by successful leaders



Source: *The strategies used by A Good Leader* by Rachel Smith

Bulach, Boothe, and Pickett (1997) identified Fifteen categories of mistakes administrators make: poor human-relations skills, poor interpersonal communication skills, a lack of vision, failure to lead, avoidance of conflict, lack of knowledge about instruction/curriculum, a control orientation, lack of ethics or character, forgetting what it is like to be a teacher, inconsistency, showing favoritism, failure to hold staff accountable, failure to follow through, snap judgments, and interrupting instruction with public- address-system announcements. Mistakes that can be subsumed under the category of poor human-relations skills occurred most often, Bulach and his colleagues found. Lack of trust and an uncaring attitude were the two behaviors most frequently associated with this category of mistakes. These two behaviors tend to go together. That is, if a person perceives that the supervisor does not care, it is likely that trust will be absent. After all, why trust others when you believe they do not care about you?

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

One final mistake in this category dealt with the inability to motivate staff. Teachers believe many administrators do not know how to motivate staff except through position, reward, and coercion. Leaders who attempt to motivate by exercising these forms of power tend to be task-oriented. This type of leadership behavior often results in low staff morale (Bulach and others).

Martin (1990) focused on mistakes of unsuccessful principals in Oregon. Seventy-three percent of responding superintendents had supervised a principal whom they had to release, transfer, or "counsel out" of the principal leadership. Reasons cited for a lack of success were avoidance of situations, lack of vision, poor administrative skills, and poor community relations. According to Davis, the second most frequent reason principals lose their jobs is failure to make decisions and judgments that reflect a thorough understanding of school issues and problems. In the study by Bulach and others, the second most frequent occurring mistake made by principal's

deals with a category of behavior labeled "poor interpersonal communication skills." The example most frequently given for this type of mistake was failure to listen. Doing paperwork in the presence of visitors and not maintaining eye contact were examples of behaviors illustrative of failure to listen. A perceived failure to listen is often interpreted by the speaker as a sign of not caring, whereas the perception that the receiver is listening is viewed by the speaker as a caring behavior.

According to Finzel (1994), the following are mistakes educational leaders make;

The first mistake covered is putting paper-work before people work. He observes that the greater the leadership role, the less time there seems for people, and the more important people-work is. He reminds us to think of people as opportunities not interruptions. It seems that we have subtly made task orientation more desirable in our leadership selection process, but without a healthy emphasis on people, we're actually accomplishing nothing. Finzel cautions about how leadership programs, such as graduate studies, generally focus on recruiting those people that are task-oriented. These are the people who are more interested in the paper-work than the people work. He believes it is important to focus on not only the paper skills but on the people skills as well. When considering how to transform others or influence them towards the type of work a leader may need them to complete it is important to make personal contact. We are influenced by many factors in small ways and at a distance, but the most profound changes in our lives come through the people who have directly influenced us. The real-life personal contact is necessary. Effective leaders make room for people. Leaving them out is big, big leadership mistake.

The second mistake is the absence of affirmation. Finzel reminds that everyone thrives on affirmation and praise and that leadership has as much to do with relationships as with getting things done. He encourages people not to underestimate the power of personal touch of kindness. He then challenges aspiring leaders to learn to read the varying levels of affirmation for those leads needs. People in varying stages of their career and/or personal life will need encouragement more than at other times.

The third mistake, labeled as the number one leadership hang up, is the top-down attitude. Finzel believes that the number one leadership sin is that of top-down autocratic arrogance. He believes the top-down approach comes more easily to people. The top-down approach can be seen in abusive authority, deplorable delegation, lack of listening, dictatorship in decision making, lack of letting go and egocentric manners. This leadership style, in Finzel's opinion, is most prevalent

for five reasons; first, it is traditional, second, it is the most common thus modeled, third, it is the easiest as now time is needed to hear from others, fourth, it comes naturally, and fifth, it reflects the depravity of man.

Dealing with mavericks is the next mistake Finzel notes. A Maverick is a pioneer, an independent individual who does not go along with a group. Mavericks often save organizations from the slide toward intuitionism. He also observes most large organizations will kill off Mavericks before they take root. He then challenges leaders to learn to recognize truly useful mavericks. The life cycle of an organization follows the same cycle of human life and can often be an indicator of when a maverick is needed.

Another mistake Finzel tackles has to do with dirty delegation. Over managing is one of the greatest sins of leadership. Dirty delegation is when you give someone a job and then take it back. Finzel observes that nothing frustrates those who work for the leader more than sloppy delegation. He states that there are several reasons leaders do not delegate: fear of losing authority, fear of work being done incorrectly, fear of work being done better, unwillingness to take the necessary time, fear of depending on others, and lack of training and positive experience. Finzel offers five essential ingredients for clean delegation. Firstly, faith in the one whom you delegate. Secondly, release from the desire to do it better than you. Third, relaxation from the obsession that has to be done the leader 's way and fourth patience in the desire to do it faster for oneself and finally vision to develop others with one's delegation freedom.

Finzel equally looks at communication chaos as a mistake. He states that communication must be that passionate obsession of effective leadership. He observes the bigger the groups, the more attention must be given to communication and when left uninformed, people tends to dream up wild rumors. His advice, never to assume that anyone knows anything, encourages leaders to communicate the mission and vision of the organization to the far extremities of an organization. He stresses the importance of everyone knowing the rules of the game so even though things may change people are all going in the right direction. The higher one goes in the leadership chain the more they need to be cognizant of who needs to be communicated with. Finzel calls connections the communication linkages and encourages leaders to ask, what people are affect by this? The necessary aspects to communicate are the vision and values, the chain of command (who handles the concern), the organizational chart or people map of relationships in the organization (should be simple and flexible), and job descriptions. He outlines three basic ingredients of a job description

to include the primary responsibilities, the key tasks to complete those responsibilities, and whom to report. He concludes with having a passion to communicate, communicate, and communicate. One really cannot over-communicate.

Finzel encourages leaders to take cultural audits of their organization. These audits examine the values and beliefs, organizational effectiveness, subcultures and incompatibilities, leadership compatibilities and behaviors, follower issues, recruitment (both from the employer and seeker), staff training, mergers or joint efforts, and visionary leadership and change. Understanding the cultural fit can be viewed in terms of harmony and dissonance.

Finzel discusses the issue of mentorship as the ninth mistake. In essence, Finzel educates leaders how to prepare to transition leadership to another. He states that finishing well is an important measure of success in leadership and leaders make two common mistakes: staying too long in a position rather than long enough and leaders who stay too long do much more damage than those who do not stay long enough (Lyle Schaller). He covers several reasons why leaders cannot let go from job security, fear of retirement, resistance to change, self-worth, lack of confidence in successor, love for job/people, loss of investment.

There is upward mentoring, looking up to those who have gone before us, downward mentoring, preparing those who will one day replace us, internal peer mentoring, peers who challenge us to do better, and external peer mentoring, individuals outside of the organization with whom networking is possible. Mentors provide timely advice, information from other perspectives, finances and the freedom to grow.

Finzel's tenth mistake states that leaders fail to focus enough on the future. The effective leader's chief preoccupation should be on providing vision for the organization. He believes the constant is change and it is coming at a faster pace each decade. Leadership must be devoting itself to the issue of goals and strategies. Managers ask, how, leaders ask where and why? We need a balance of visionary leadership and effective management. He cautions about approaching the future in two ways: learner (open to new ideas and change) or as a closed expert (knowing everything and the best way to complete a task.)

Finzel's advice for the future is to set time to think about directions or create a future file, perform a vision audit, develop a fresh vision statement, work together to create short and long term (SMART) goals, focus and eliminate resources, read about trends, and attempt great things and take risks.

Leadership Perspectives

In terms of leadership perspectives, Cheng (2001) proposed a layer perspective of leadership in response to the complexity and multiplicity in the current context of educational management. He asserted that leadership could be conceptualized as a layer including three levels of leaders and three domains of leadership influence. The three levels of leaders he suggested are namely individual, group and the institution head/individual staff, or a group of staff members, or all members in the educational institution may provide whole-institution leaders. Cheng (2002) further postulates that in the layer conception, the leadership process is an influencing process from the whole leader layer to the various constituencies or stakeholders.

Situational/Contingency Approaches to Leadership

Under the situational/contingency leadership approaches, there are five models/theories namely: the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum, Fiedler's Contingency Theory, the Path-Goal Leadership Model, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Contingency Model and the Hersey-Blanchard's Situational Theory (Oyetunyi, 2006).

There are diverse, complex situations in schools that demand diverse leadership skills (Oyetunyi, 2006). The head teacher with adequate skills will assess the situation and choose the appropriate leadership style that will be effective for a situation rather than try to manipulate situations to fit a particular leadership style. Dunklee (2004) claims that leadership in schools is a situational phenomenon as it is based on the collective perception of people working in the schools, linked to the norms and is affected by the rate of interaction among members of the school. The essence of a contingency approach as reported by Oyetunyi (2006) is that leaders are most effective when they make their behavior contingent upon situational forces, including group member characteristics.

In other words, the type of group and some other factors determine the behavior of the leader. Thus, situational/contingency theory emphasizes the importance of situational factors, such as the nature of the task and the characteristics of subordinates. This means that the best style of leadership is determined by the situation in which the leader works (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973).

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Contingency Model

The assumption is that the leader has to adapt his/her style to the situation. Tannenbaum & Schmidt, (1973) suggest five decision-making styles, each requiring a different degree of participation by the subordinates. The styles are based on two variable factors: individual or group decisions and time-driven or development-driven decisions. Time-driven factors require a leader to make effective decisions as quickly as possible and development-driven factors are used when a leader focuses on developing subordinate's capabilities in the area of decision-making (Oyetunyi, 2006). The study therefore intended to establish whether leaders in schools, exhibit different leadership styles depending on the decision-making processes in schools.

Oyetunyi (2006) quotes Vroom and Jago (1988) who assert that this model, like the path-goal theory, describes how a leader should behave in certain contingencies to enhance effectiveness. It is based on one aspect of the leader 's behavior and focuses on the subordinates' involvement in decision-making. The authors assume that a leader may exhibit different leadership styles; this is particularly important when it relates to the decision-making process. The leader should be able to know when to take charge and when to allow the group to take decisions (Vroom & Jago, 1988). Vroom and Jago (1988) assert that there is no leadership style that is appropriate for all situations. It therefore follows that a leader develops a series of responses ranging from autocratic to democratic and laissez-fair consultative and applies the leadership style that is appropriate to the decision situation.

Path-Goal Leadership Model

According to Okumbe (1998), as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), the fundamental principle of this model is that leadership behavior should be motivating and satisfying to the extent that it increases goal attainment by subordinates and clarifies the behavior that will lead to these goals/rewards. The authors of this model, House and Mitchel, use it to explain how a leader's behavior influences the performance and satisfaction of the subordinates. Unlike some contingency leadership models, this model does not have a leader trait and behavior variable. It therefore, allows for the possibility of adapting leadership to the situation.

Charismatic Approach

Hoy and Miskel (2001) and Lussier and Achua (2001), as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), state that Max Weber initiated the charismatic leadership approach in 1947. According to these scholars, Weber used the term 'charisma' to explain a form of influence based on the followers' perceptions

that a leader is endowed with exceptional characteristics. Oyetunyi (2006) defined charisma as the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organization's objectives. In the same vein, Lussier and Achua (2001) describe charismatic leaders as leaders who have distinguished qualities to inspire and motivate subordinates more than they would in a normal situation. Hoy and Miskel (2001), quotes House and his colleagues who contend that personality characteristics do not make a leader charismatic. But rather they contribute to the development of charismatic relationships (Oyetunyi, 2006). On the other hand, Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) observe that charismatic leaders seek control by controlling others; they initiate a kind of relationship that is meant to cause other people to be dependent on them. Oyetunyi (2006) posits that charismatic leaders are not concerned about the followers and the organization but about themselves, and so many of them make life unbearable for those who deal with them.

Curriculum

The term curriculum refers to the lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or program. In dictionaries, *curriculum* is often defined as the courses offered by a school, but it is rarely used in such a general sense in schools. Depending on how broadly educators define or employ the term, curriculum typically refers to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning standards or learning objectives they are expected to meet; the units and lessons that teachers teach; the assignments and projects given to students; the books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in a course; and the tests, assessments, and other methods used to evaluate student learning. An individual teacher's curriculum, for example, would be the specific learning standards, lessons, assignments, and materials used to organize and teach a particular course.

In many cases, teachers develop their own curricula, often refining and improving them over years, although it is also common for teachers to adapt lessons and syllabi created by other teachers, use curriculum templates and guides to structure their lessons and courses, or purchase prepackaged curricula from individuals and companies. In some cases, schools purchase comprehensive, multigrade curriculum packages often in a particular subject area, such as mathematics that teachers are required to use or follow. Curriculum may also encompass a school's academic requirements for graduation, such as the courses students have to take and pass, the number of credits students must complete, and other requirements, such as completing a capstone

project or a certain number of community-service hours. Generally speaking, curriculum takes many different forms in schools too many to comprehensively catalog here.

It is important to note that while curriculum encompasses a wide variety of potential educational and instructional practices, educators often have a very precise, technical meaning in mind when they use the term. Most teachers spend a lot of time thinking about, studying, discussing, and analyzing curriculum, and many educators have acquired a specialist's expertise in curriculum development i.e., they know how to structure, organize, and deliver lessons in ways that facilitate or accelerate student learning. To noneducators, some curriculum materials may seem simple or straightforward (such as a list of required reading, for example), but they may reflect a deep and sophisticated understanding of an academic discipline and of the most effective strategies for learning acquisition and classroom management.

Curriculum orientations

We will now look at the role of school leadership vis á vis the curriculum. First, it offers a brief overview of school leadership, acknowledging the multitude of systems over educational matters.

Good teaching starts with an operational definition of teaching. There are three common views of what constitutes teaching: teaching as transmission, teaching as transaction, and teaching as transformation (Miller, 1996). The relationship between school leadership and curriculum is a complex one. The school principal was and maybe still is often seen as of very limited authority when it comes to curriculum matters due to little decision making-power and due to the pedagogical freedom on the instructional methods level that teachers. And yet, the school principal being a former teacher, has a certain affiliation with curriculum matters as many school principals see themselves more as pedagogues and educational leaders than just as managers or administrators. Curriculum, in turn, is related to the complex idea of *building*. This concept is typically a normative concept with respect to the purpose and process of education, i.e., reflecting educational ideals as they occur in the curriculum thus guide teaching. The individual's reflective acquisition of cultural knowledge, and personal growth and self-development. The task of education is to support this self-developmental process (Sorkin 1983). The connection between leadership and *curriculum* is thus established through the purpose of education. It might be surprising to an international audience/readership that school leadership research is relatively young even has established school leaders just the last 20 years (Huber 2016a, b, c). In other words, there are many facets and grey

areas to this complex and not well elaborated and discussed is the relationship of school leadership and curriculum.

We then link the discussion to the international discourse on instructional leadership. Next, we present the concept of organizational education (see Rosenbusch 1997, 2005) as a perspective for viewing school leadership in conjunction with the curriculum. Finally, based on the material presented before, we take a reflective look ahead and ponder possibilities of school leadership in the context of curriculum.

Teaching as Transmission. From this perspective, teaching is the act of transmitting knowledge from Point A (teacher's head) to Point B (students' heads). This is a teacher-centered approach in which the teacher is the dispenser of knowledge, the arbitrator of truth, and the final evaluator of learning. A teacher's job from this perspective is to supply students with a designated body of knowledge in a predetermined order. Academic achievement is seen as students' ability to demonstrate, replicate, or retransmit this designated body of knowledge back to the teacher or to some other measuring agency or entity. From this perspective standardized tests are considered to be an apt measure of students' learning. While there are specific instances when this approach is useful, I find little research support for this as a general approach to teaching and learning.

Teaching as Transaction. From this perspective, teaching is the process of creating situations whereby students are able to interact with the material to be learned in order to construct knowledge. Constructivism is an educational philosophy consistent with this view. Here, knowledge is not passively received; rather, it is actively built up or constructed by students as they connect their past knowledge and experiences with new information (Santrock, 2004). And just as each student's past knowledge and experiences are different, so too is the interpretation, understanding, and meaning of the new information that each ultimately constructs.

Teachers are not expected to pour knowledge into the heads of learners; rather, they assist learners in their construction of knowledge by creating experiences where students' old information can transact with new information to create meaningful knowledge (knowledge that is connected to something students already know). Academic achievement from a constructivist perspective is seen as students' ability to use this knowledge to solve real-world problems or to create products or performances that are valued in one or more cultural settings.

Teaching as Transformation. From this perspective, teaching is creating conditions that have the potential to transform the learner on many different levels (cognitive, emotional, social,

intuitive, creative, spiritual, and other). Transformational teaching invites both students and teachers to discover their full potential as learners, as members of society, and as human beings. The ultimate transformational goal is to help develop more nurturing human beings who are better able to perceive the interconnectedness of all human, plant, and animal life (Narve, 2001). Holistic education is an educational philosophy consistent with the transformative view (Miller, 1996). Learning is said to have occurred when these experiences elicit a transformation of consciousness that leads to a greater understanding of and care for self, others, and the environment. Academic achievement from this perspective is similar to self-actualization. That is, it is perceived as discovering and developing each individual's unique talents and capabilities to the fullest extent possible. Academic achievement also involves becoming aware of the multiple dimensions of self and expanding one's consciousness.

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is the part of one style of leadership that focuses on supervision, organization, and performance; it is an integral part of the Full Range Leadership Model. Transactional leadership is a style of leadership in which leaders promote compliance by followers through both rewards and punishments. Through a rewards and punishments system, transactional leaders are able to keep followers motivated for the short-term. Unlike transformational leaders, those using the transactional approach are not necessarily looking to change the future. Transactional leadership "occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things" (Burns, 1978).

Transactional leadership is generally attributed to two factors. The leadership of the first conditional reward is viewed as both an efficient and constructive relationship between the leader and the followers. These followers get bonuses, merits, or recognition with the organization that they are with when they meet certain goals depending on what the company is (Bycio, P., Hackett, R.D., & Allen, J.S, 1995). The rewards, from this contingent reward, is solely based on an agreement between the leader and follower. The second factor of transactional leaders is management by exception. This can be active or passive. Active leaders are always watching to evaluate performances of employees. Passive management only assess after the task has been done and will only let you know about problems after they occurred (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Within the context of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, transactional leadership works at the basic levels of need satisfaction, where transactional leaders focus on the lower levels of the hierarchy.

Transactional leaders use an exchange model, with rewards being given for good work or positive outcomes. Conversely, people with this leadership style also can punish poor work or negative outcomes, until the problem is corrected. One way that transactional leadership focuses on lower level needs is by stressing specific task performance. Transactional leaders are effective in getting specific tasks completed by managing each portion individually.

Transactional leaders are concerned with processes rather than forward-thinking ideas. Transactional leaders are generally split into three dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception: active, and management-by-exception: passive. The type of leader who focuses on contingent reward, also known as contingent positive reinforcement, give rewards when the set goals are accomplished on-time, ahead of time, or to keep subordinates working at a good pace at different times throughout completion. Contingent rewards are also given when the employee engages in any desired behavior. Often, contingent punishments are handed down on a management-by-exception basis, in which the exception is something going wrong. Within management-by-exception, there are active and passive routes. Management-by-exception: active means that the leader continually monitors each subordinate's performance and takes immediate corrective action when something goes wrong. Management-by-exception: passive leaders do not monitor employee performance and wait for serious issues to come up before taking any corrective actions. In addition to the three dimensions of leadership above, another form of transactional leadership is recognized, the laissez-faire dimension. Laissez-faire leadership indicates a lack of leadership and a complete hands-off approach with employees.

Transformational leadership

From Wikipedia and free online encyclopedia, Transformational leadership is a theory of leadership where a leader works with teams to identify needed change, creating a vision to guide the change through inspiration, and executing the change in tandem with committed members of a group; it is an integral part of the Full Range Leadership Model. Transformational leadership is when leader behaviors influence followers and inspire them to perform beyond their perceived capabilities. Transformational leadership inspires people to achieve unexpected or remarkable results. It gives workers autonomy over specific jobs, as well as the authority to make decisions once they have been trained. This induces a positive change in the followers attitudes and the organization as a whole. Transformational leaders typically perform four distinct behaviors, also

known as the four I's. These behaviors are inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration.

The free online encyclopedia equally states that, Transformational leadership serves to enhance the motivation, morale, and job performance of followers through a variety of mechanisms; these include connecting the follower's sense of identity and self to a project and to the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers in order to inspire them and to raise their interest in the project; challenging followers to take greater ownership for their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers, which allows the leader to align followers with tasks that enhance their performance. It is also important to understand the qualities a transformational leadership can bring to a work organization. Transformational leadership enhances commitment, involvement, loyalty, and performance of followers. Followers exert extra effort to show support to the leader, emulate the leader to emotionally identify with him/her, maintain obedience without losing any sense of self-esteem. Transformational leaders are strong in the abilities to adapt to different situations, share a collective consciousness, self-manage, and be inspirational while leading a group of employees.

Inspirational motivation is when the leader inspires their followers to achieve. This leader sets high and reasonable goals for their followers and their organization. They inspire commitment and they create a shared vision for their organization. Leaders that utilize inspirational motivation motivate followers extrinsically and intrinsically, and they are able to articulate their expectations clearly. Inspirational motivation is closely tied to charisma. Charisma leads directly to having a source of authority, and could be considered both inspirational and visionary, leading to a positive emotional impact on that leader's followers.

Idealized influence is when the leader acts as a strong role model for their organization and leads by example. These types of leaders consider the needs of their followers and prioritize their needs. They typically have loads of charisma and are very ethical. Followers of these leaders typically try to emulate their leader as they tend to identify with them easily.

Background James MacGregor Burns (1978) first introduced the concept of transforming leadership in his descriptive research on political leaders, but this term is now used in organizational psychology as well. According to Burns, transforming leadership is a process in which "leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation".

Another researcher, Bernard M. Bass (1985), extended the work of Burns (1978) by explaining the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming and transactional leadership; Bass also used the term "transformational" instead of "transforming." Bass added to the initial concepts of Burns (1978) to help explain how transformational leadership could be measured, as well as how it impacts follower motivation and performance.

Leadership Styles

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

A principal's ability to create a positive school climate and culture can affect teacher morale and academic performance of students. As Adams (1992) states, "principals who control most of the contingencies in the work environment and are the source of much reinforcement for teaching behavior, are the keys to improving the morale and self-esteem of teachers". A Participative Leader, rather than taking autocratic decisions, seeks to involve other people in the process, possibly including subordinates, peers, superiors and other stakeholders. By this, Finni (1991) observes that teachers should be treated by principals as colleagues and not subordinates. This will help to boost the morale of teachers and will make them to be committed to their job, hence, may lead to improvement in the academic performance of students. According to Mintzerg (1989), since schools are professional bureaucracies, the principal should adopt a democratic administrative style through the collegial model where teachers are directly involved in the school. It is in this spectrum that Ndongko (1991) says, teachers have been recognized as the most important collaborators of the principal within the school system and as such should be seen as the main force for the success or failure of the school. By this Mintzerg (1989) maintains that the school principal should work with teachers in the sense of collegial, mutual respect, trust, delegation, autonomy and friendliness. Hence, Sisk (1997:15) says, "The teaching staff should have formal representation within the

various decision-making bodies and structures...” It is in this spectrum that, Straker (1997) in his book titled “Changing Minds” states that

Involvement in decision-making improves the understanding of the issues involved by those who must carry out the decisions. People are more committed to actions where they have involved in the relevant decision-making... When people make decisions together, the social commitment to one another is greater and thus increases their commitment to the decision. Several people deciding together make better decisions than one person alone.

Teacher autonomy has been shown to impact the job. Perie and Baker (1997) found that teachers with greater autonomy showed higher levels of job commitment than those with less autonomy. They suggested that school districts that are able to increase teachers’ control over their classrooms and other school decisions stand to increase the long-term job commitment of its staff members, thus, influencing the performance of students positively. Empowering teachers and including them in the decision-making process can be a productive tool that appears to influence the school culture in a positive way and student performance. People who feel empowered tend to have higher morale which may lead to better commitment and improvement in productivity. It is in this spectrum that Maehr, Midgley and Urdan (1993) state that “people are more personally invested in their work with an organization when they have a voice in what happens to them; and their work has meaning and significance in contributing to a higher purpose or goal”. The same writers say; when teachers’ sense of self-determination and purpose are supported, teachers relate to students in a qualitatively different manner. By treating teachers in ways that empower them, such as involving them in decisions about policies and practices and acknowledging their expertise, administrators can help sustain teacher morale, which may ultimately lead to improvement of academic performance. Although teachers can take steps individually to preserve their professional satisfaction and morale, they must also be nurtured, supported and valued by the broader school community. When teachers are provided with what they need to remain inspired and enthusiastic in the classroom, students as well as teachers will be the beneficiaries. Even though the above author supports teachers’ autonomy, but it is important for the teachers to be subjected under some control so as to ensure that they are functioning according to stated objectives of the school. It is for this reason that Blankstein (1996) affirms that:

If teacher autonomy or inclusion in the decision-making process is to have any significant impact on improving student’s performance and school culture, then it requires all individuals to work cooperatively for the benefit of everyone. Monopolizing power inhibits individuals from viewing themselves as part of the larger system in which they are able to contribute to its overall success.

It is in this light that Leithwood (1992) asserts that transformational leadership will be effective in a school if leaders consider the following goals. First, transformational leadership which is based on bringing about major change in an organization, they help staff develop and maintain a collaborative school culture by collaborating and participating in shared decision-making. Secondly, transformational leaders foster teacher development by giving teachers a role in solving school problems allowing them some ownership of the problem and its solutions. Finally, transformational leaders help teachers solve problems more effectively by encouraging collaboration and promoting the idea that the staff can often find a better solution to a problem than the teacher or administrator acting alone. In line with what the above author has said, when the teachers are consulted before any major decision is taken, they will feel as being part of the system and their morale will be boosted, which will lead to an improvement in student performance because the teachers will be committed and zealous to do their best output. It is in this spectrum that Vegas (2007) asserts that, “devolution of decision-making authority to schools in Central America has in many cases led to lower teacher absenteeism, more teacher homework/assignments, and better parent-teacher relationships”. Delegation of power in any organization is very important for the growth and success of that organization. Hence, Jones (1997) holds that most successful organizations value the input of their employees and involvement in decision-making by the very people who will be responsible for implementation of those decisions seems not only reasonable, but responsible. Participation in this way can produce positive results. In a recent study conducted by Jones, he found a significant positive correlation between both teachers and schools with higher participation in decision-making. Johnson (1999) as cited in Debruyne (2001) in *A Study to Identify the Factors Responsible for Job Satisfaction and Low Teacher Morale*, posited that; “allowing employees a sense of control and competence on the job can increase their motivation and productivity”, Conversely having no voice in an organization often contribute to dissatisfaction, apathetic attitudes and causes teachers to question authority.

Teachers along with other helping or human service occupation are particularly prone to burnout. Unfortunately, it often happens to some of the most able and committed people in the profession. Hence, Maslach and Leiter (1999) hold that the result of having unhappy employees is undesirable because burned out employees perform their jobs at a bare minimum level as opposed to putting forth their best effort. Any teacher who is experiencing burnout or who feels exhausted because of work overload will be unable to produce the best results since he is not satisfied with

the work and may become less committed. Hence, Briggs and Richardson (1992) affirms that, Many teachers are resigning and leaving their positions, some after only a few years of teaching as a result of burnout and retirement. Burnout has been defined by Eichinger (2000:400) as a “syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that often occurs among individuals who work with people”. Weisberg and Sagie (1999) explain it as mounting pressures or job stress that results in emotional and physical exhaustion and negative attitudes toward work, leaving burnout teacher feeling totally over-whelmed and near the breaking point. They provided a list of possible causes for burnout that included: poor facilities, overcrowded classes, discipline problems, excessive workload, inadequate salaries, and lack of both parental and administrative support and open criticism facing teachers. Considering the negative impact that burned out teachers have on the school environment like poor attitudes, diminished quality of instruction and preoccupation with the prospect of leaving the profession, Maslach and Leiter concluded in their research that burnout is not a people problem but is tied to the workplace. When the workplace shows no compassion and demands superhuman effort, employees get burned out. Hence, Czubaj (1996) affirms that

Shared decision-making, rewards and recognition for performance, opportunity for professional growth, supportive leadership and increased parental support, not only does it help to reduce the possibility of burnout, but it also provides an atmosphere for teachers to maintain or increase their motivation for the job. When teachers are motivated not only do the students do better in school, but they become motivated about the process of learning, repeating a positive cycle.

If the above conditions are being met in an institution, the teachers will be committed to their work and the problem of occupational and geographical mobility will be curbed and the students’ performance will likely be improved upon. It is in this spectrum that Lumsden (1998) asserts that; “when teachers are provided with what they need to remain inspired and enthusiastic in the classroom, students as well as teachers will be the beneficiaries”. Having a staff who is satisfied with teaching as a career would be important because it is associated with both teacher effectiveness and ultimately student achievement.

Tsafak (1998) also says “experience has shown that the more informed people are the less is the consideration they have for the teacher because, maybe he no longer has monopoly of knowledge. It seems once the teacher has accomplished his mission or task, he is no longer important to the society”. This kind of public attitude weakens the morale of the teacher and his zeal to work in a way that if he finds an opportunity with better working conditions, he will likely leave the profession. This will greatly affect the academic performance of students if that subject is left vacant.

The leader's emphasis on either the task or human relations approach is usually considered central to leadership style. Ball (1987) as reported in Linda (1999) identified the following leadership styles that emerged in the course of his research in British secondary schools: the interpersonal, managerial style, adversarial and the political style or authoritarian style. He describes interpersonal head teachers as being typically mobile and visible with a preference for consulting with individuals rather than holding meetings. They like to "sound out ideas" and gather opinions. Such head teachers will frequently reiterate to teachers the importance of bringing complaints and grievances to them first of all. Ball (1987) pointed out that this type of leadership style is particularly effective at satisfying teacher's individual needs, and that grievances and staff turnover tends to remain low. On the other hand, he continues, head teachers with managerial styles adopt a leadership style that parallels that of a manager in industry: The use of management techniques involves the importation into the school structures, types of relationships and processes of organizational control from the factory.

The adversarial leadership style is typified by confrontational dialogue between the head teacher and the teachers. Here headship emphasizes persuasion and commitment. Ball (1987) quotes teachers response to this style of leadership during a focus group discussion as follows. Some staff will be unable or unwilling to participate in this form of organizational discourse. Some find it unhelpful; others are unwilling to devote the time and energy necessary to get their points of view across. Ball (1987) depicted authoritarian leadership as being distinct from adversarial leadership by its focus on asserting rather than persuading. Such a head takes no chances by recognizing the possibility of competing views and interests. Opposition is avoided, disabled or simply ignored. No opportunities are provided for the articulation of alternative views or the assertion of alternative interests, other than those defined by the head as legitimate. Indeed, the authoritarian may rely, as a matter of course, on conscious deception as a matter of organizational control (Ball, 1987).

Linda (1999) identified three dimensions of leadership styles: initiating structure, consideration and decision-centralization. She defined these to refer respectively to the extent to which leaders define and structure their own and their subordinate's roles towards attaining goals, the extent to which leaders manifest concern, support for their staff, and the extent to which leaders influence group decisions. Nias (1980) found that the individual school leaders in her study could be positioned differently along each of these three dimensions, and that the resulting spread

revealed what she categorized as three leadership styles: the passive, positive, and Bourbon types, which she describes as thus: One leadership type, the 'passive', gave teachers more freedom than they desired. They perceived themselves as totally free to set their own goals, under heads whose professional standards did not match their own, and who offered neither coherent to the school as a whole nor support and guidance to individuals. The second, the 'Bourbon', was characterized by social distance, authoritarian professional relationships, and administrative efficiency. The third described as 'positive'; set high professional standards for the teachers, adopted a dynamic, but consultative policy towards decision-making, and actively supported the professional development of individuals" (Nias, 1980).

Leaders express leadership in many roles, amongst others, formulating aims and objectives, establishing structures, managing and motivating personnel and providing leadership (Daresh, 2002). Gewirtz (2002), while discussing a handout adapted from Goleman, gives six types of leadership styles, which are:

Democratic Leadership Styles

Democratic leadership refers to a situation where there is equal work among leaders and followers. According to Goldman (2002), democratic organizations typically have the following six characteristics: policies are determined by a group of organizations, technical and job performance measures are discussed so they are understood by all, leaders provide advice to members in regards to implementing tasks, members are free to choose with whom they work, the group determines the distribution of tasks, and leaders try to be objective in giving praise and criticism. Goldman (2000) states that leaders using a democratic style of leadership build consensus through participation, but these leaders also expect a higher level of excellence and self-direction. From my own experience I have observed that these leaders have time to listen and share ideas with their followers. They also tend to be more flexible and are responsive to one's needs. They are able to motivate teachers to participate in decision-making and are respectful.

The democratic style of leadership emphasizes group and leader participation in the making of policies. Decisions about organizational matters are arrived at after consultation and communication with various people in the organization. The leader attempts as much as possible to make each individual feel that he is an important member of the organization. Communication is multidirectional while ideas are exchanged between employees and the leader (Heenan and Bennis 1999). In this style of leadership, a high degree of staff morale is always enhanced (Mba,

2004). In other words, consultation, teamwork and participation are the common key characteristics of successful schools. House and Mitchell (as reported in Oyetunyi, 2006) suggest that a leader can behave in different ways in different situations. The following are the four kinds of leaders' behavior:

Directive Style

Directive leadership style is similar to the task-oriented style. The leader who uses this type of leadership style provides teachers with specific guidelines, rules and regulations with regard to planning, organizing and performing activities. This style is deemed to be appropriate when the subordinates' ability is low and or the task to be performed is complex or ambiguous. Job satisfaction is increased when the leader gives more directives (Hoy & Miskel, 2001:408).

Supportive Style

Supportive leadership style is more of a relationship-oriented style. It requires the leader to be approachable and friendly. He/she displays concern for the well-being and personal needs of the subordinates. He/she creates an emotionally supportive climate. This style is effective when subordinates lack self-confidence; work on dissatisfying or stressful tasks and when work does not provide job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 2001:408).

Participative Style

The leader who employs this style consults with subordinates for ideas and takes their ideas seriously when making decisions. This style is effective when subordinates are well motivated and competent (Lussier & Achua, 2001:175).

Consultative Styles The leader has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in the employees. Although general decisions are made by the leader, he/she seeks the opinions of the employees, but he makes the final decision. The employees have positive attitudes toward the organisation, the manager and their work. When the employees feel that enough consultation has not taken place, they publicly accept orders from the manager, but sometimes covertly resist the order by insubordination, especially when the manager decides on majority rules principle (Owens 1981:207).

Communication flows from and to the hierarchy. The manager consults through relevant channels, with subordinates. They in turn consult with him/her on matters they would like to bring to his/her attention (Brownwell 1985:39-44). Control is mainly at the top. Middle management usually delegates tasks to control subordinates at lower levels. This is done in terms of appraisal,

evaluation and supervision. Subordinates perceive control as a way of maintaining the set standard (Ukeje 1992:105-106).

Achievement-Oriented Style

In this style, the leader sets challenging but achievable goals for the subordinates. He/she pushes work improvement sets high expectations for subordinates and rewards them when the expectations are met. That is, the leader provides both high directive (structure) and high supportive (consideration) behavior. This style works well with achievement-oriented subordinates (Lussier & Achua, 2001).

Authoritative Style

Vibrant enthusiasm and clear vision are the hallmarks of the authoritative style. This leadership, the research has shown, drove up every aspect of the organizational climate. This leader motivates people by making it clear to them how their work fits into the larger vision of the organization. People understand that what they do matters and why, thus maximizing commitment to the organization's goals and strategies. The standards for success and the rewards are clear, but people have great freedom to innovate and flexibility in accomplishing the goals. This style works well in almost any business situation. It works best when the organization is adrift and the authoritative leader charts a new vision. A limitation is if the leader works with a group of experts or peers who are more experienced. They may see the leader as pompous or out of touch. If the leader becomes overbearing, he/she may undermine the egalitarian spirit team.

Pacesetting Style

This style, like coercive, should be used sparingly. The leader sets high expectations, exemplifies them by him/her, and is obsessive about doing things faster and better, and expects that of everyone else. Poor performers get replaced, yet this style destroys climate. Morale drops when people feel overwhelmed by the demands for excellence. Although guidelines may be clear in the leader's head, they are not clearly articulated so that people understand them. People often do not feel that the leader trusts them to work in their own way, so flexibility evaporates and work becomes task focused. This approach works well when employees are highly skilled and self-motivated professionals.

Coaching

This style is used the least often, since leaders say they do not have the time to help people grow. This is a powerful tool, and has a positive impact on climate. Coaching improves results,

even though the focus is on self-development, because it has a way of pushing up the drivers of climate. Coaching helps commitment, because of the message that the leader believes in you. Flexibility and responsibility are up, because people feel cared about and free to experiment and get feedback. This style is not effective when people want to be coached, and want to improve performance.

This style makes little sense when someone is resistant to changing their ways. In some companies, a part of the annual bonus is tied to leader's development of direct reports.

The Leadership Studies Related to School Managers

Influence of leadership style upon teacher's effectiveness cannot be over emphasized; an effective teacher could be rendered ineffective if the principal leadership style is in conflict with the tasks or role of the teacher. If the principal leadership style is appropriate, the way and manner the principal disciplines his staff, his human relations and feelings, his consideration to his members of staff, his inspiration to staff, his way of handling staff welfare, his staff development and a lot of other principals' effectiveness, activities are likely to affect the teacher's productivity. Davies (2003) noted that leadership style and quality of leadership do affect job and job performance in an organization. Davis and Wilson (2003) researched the effects of leadership on the teacher's quality of life at work; they revealed that the more principals engage in behavior that is personally empowering, the more teachers saw that they had choices they could make in completing their work and the greater impact they will perceive they were achieving through their efforts. These intrinsic rewards were found to be more beneficial for motivating teachers, affecting climate and reducing stress. Lumsden (1998) states that high teacher morale could have positive effects on students' attitude and learning; improving teacher morale not only made the education more palatable to teachers, it made the process a richer and more effective learning experience for students. Ibukun (1997) argued that the main task of the principal is to create a conducive atmosphere for the teacher to be able to achieve desired changes in students' learning.

Principals can therefore encourage effective performance of their teachers by identifying their needs and trying to satisfy and meet them. The leadership style of the principals is demonstrated in his activities which make him to be recognized as a leader of a group. Many people strongly believe that when there are good education plans, good school programs, adequate staff and facilities what is more important is a good administrative leadership to coordinate all these for the progress and achievement of the school. The key to any effective leadership is the ability to

lead effectively, coordinate a complex situation and show concern for human and materials resources available. Okafor (1991) noted that most of the success and failure in secondary school administration and other institutions depend largely on the influence of leaders on their subordinate. Subramanaim (2011) pointed out that the important of studying leadership style is because of the significance in an institutions success, and achievement of educational goal.

The Role of School Administrators in Effective School Management and Performance in Secondary Schools in Cameroon

Successful implementation of these functions of the school administrator will depend on the form of leadership and leadership style the administrator will adopt. In terms of the form of leadership, the school administrator can decide to distribute leadership to his vice principals and HODs as well as by promoting teacher leadership by empowering his teachers. School administrators manage tasks professionally which include:

- Setting achievable objectives for education,
- Seizing new opportunities and coping with change,
- Maintaining a committed staff,
- Managing effective teams,
- Developing an effective communication system,
- Allocating and managing resources effectively,
- Participating effectively, staff management, managing time effectively, evaluating the school curriculum and;
- Improved students' learning and achievement is strongly related to the way in which schools are managed.

The school administrator should possess all good attributes of leaders and good quality leaders. Oyetunyi (2006) asserts that leadership matters because effective leaders make a difference in people's lives; they empower followers and teach them how to make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change.

Waters, Marzona and MacNulty's (2004) research findings indicate that school manager's effective leadership can significantly boost teachers' efficiency. The ability of school administrators to relate to the teachers, to enable them to act and to improve organizational performance is critical for the smooth and effective operation of a school. School administrators should motivate and encourage all staff members to feel that they are part of a team with a common

mission. A good team is one that works in an atmosphere of mutual trust and concern for performance. The leader shares and delegates responsibility and ensures that individuals are not afraid to take initiatives and actions as needed. Hurley (2001) asserts that school administrators are the answer to a school's general development and improvement in the academic standard in that an effective school administrator creates an environment that stimulates enthusiasm for teaching/learning. This implies that if educational administrators are effective and uses an appropriate leadership style, he/she will create a positive teaching/learning atmosphere and inspire the staff to give off their best. School administrators should involve the teachers in developing a reasonable code of discipline. Teachers as well as parents need to be brought on board by school administrators to appreciate the vision and aspirations of their country, the ethics and values of the community and the school vision, mission and motto. Proper financial management is important for the development and performance of the school as a whole. Since school administrators are pivotal in this process they need to put into place and implement a proper system for control and management of the financial resources. But above all, school administrators need to ensure that there is transparency and accountability for the use of resources.

Teachers Efficiency

Cooper (1986:3), defines an efficient teacher as one who is able to bring about intended learning outcomes or results. Thus, if a teacher shows good qualities such as kindness, warmth, enthusiasm, steadiness, alertness, sympathy, but is not able to help students achieve desirable results he/she cannot be consider efficient. Thus, it is useless emphasizing the goodness of a teacher in terms of his moral and social behavior forgetting his efficiency. This emphasis is on the difference between teacher's behavior and teacher efficiency arose mostly from what is known in educational research history as teacher efficiency research. This research was conducted in the 1970s in the USA and tried to identify what efficient teachers and inefficient teachers do in classrooms. Presenting this research, Arends (1997:71-74) and McNeil and Wiles (1990:24-29) associated efficient teachers with the following acts or behaviors amongst others:

Communicating Lesson Objectives

Efficient teachers state major goals and lessons objectives clearly at the beginning of the lesson which will help to motivate the learners and to keep them and the teacher more focus.

Avoiding Vagueness

Efficient teachers use words that students understand, provided a variety of adequate examples and are direct and specific.

High Performance Orientation

Efficient teachers are high-performance oriented in that they make their expectations known to their students and work very hard to assist students in the realization of these expectations.

Task Oriented

Efficient teachers are task oriented because they work according to well laid down routines, and cover the required learning or syllabus more fully than inefficient teachers.

Use a Variety of Teaching Methods

Efficient teachers use different teaching methods which can be general or specific, depending on the objectives they wish to attain in each lesson. Some of these teaching methods may include: the lecture method, discussion method, dramatization method, drill and practice method, laboratory method, project method and so on.

Praise

Efficient teacher do not give as much praise as inefficient teacher. Rather, efficient teachers use praise judiciously. This behavior ties well with the research findings that too much praise used under wrong conditions tends not to promote student learning.

Like in Cameroon schools, principals in American schools serve as leaders to increased teachers efficiency. They must know academic content and pedagogical techniques and equally must work with teachers to strengthen their skills because leadership is about the provision of supportive systems. It is also important to indicate that most American systems adopt the democratic style of leadership, which involves subordinates in real decision-making.

Motivation

The education mission seems to be dependent on the way teachers feel about their and how satisfy they are with it. Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers suggest that “schools must give more attention to increasing teacher’s efficiency” (Heller, Clay, and Perkins, 1993). Most research on motivation is rooted in the pioneering work of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) who identify the satisfying and dissatisfying factor. Herzberg’s “two factor theory” associates the satisfying factors, the “motivators”, with the lower order needs (Dinham and Scott, 1998). The higher order needs, the satisfiers, apply to the intrinsic aspects of work, such as

achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and opportunity for advancement. The lower order needs, the dissatisfying factors, correspond to extrinsic matters of work, such as working conditions, supervision, work policy, salary, and interpersonal relationships.

Most teachers feel more committed to their work/tasks when they are motivated. Teachers can be motivated when school administrators or principals are able to create work communities that are supportive and stimulating, student-oriented, facilitate feelings of community, and foster their feelings of efficacy. School administration with poor and inefficient leadership and tender less administrative support makes many teachers to leave their teaching profession (Fiore, 2004). Greenlee (2007) agrees with Carr (1997), and asserts that frustration and dissatisfaction among teachers is rooted in their lack of understanding of the school functions beyond the classroom, such as budgeting, scheduling, and so on. At the same time, it seems that many administrators lacked knowledge to be curriculum and instructional leaders which in turn could hinder schools from becoming high performers.

Schulz and Teddlie (1989) believed that “if teachers are motivated may serve to influence their morale and their general willingness to maximize their teaching potential”. Teachers who are not motivated in their jobs/work sites may result in bad teaching or learning process, and school effectiveness will consequently be negatively impacted. As to the relationship between school leader’s leadership style and teacher motivation, the two basic factors influencing teacher’s efficiency, Chieffo (1991) recognized that the school leaders leadership styles significantly influences teachers efficiency. Therefore, it will be helpful, for reaching the goals of the school and increasing school effectiveness, to clearly comprehend the relationship between these two important factors.

Review of Related Literature by Objective

Transmission Orientation of leaders and Teacher’s Efficiency

This part of the work examines the relationship between the transmission orientation of leaders on teachers efficiency in secondary schools. Mbua (2003:225) refers to this leadership style as “an action of the leader whereby the leader dictates to or imposes tasks to subordinates, giving prominence to organizational demands”. It is a leadership style characterized by individual control over all decisions and little input from group members. These categories of leaders typically make choices based on their own ideas and judgments and rarely accept advice from followers. This leader is dictatorial, unilateral, and arbitrary in decision making. Communication in this orientation

of leadership is one way from top to bottom and human relations are often very poor and initiative is killed. According to Denga (1986:41), an autocratic leader gives little praise when it is due as he considers it a sign of weakness to be nice to others. He further states that it is a very poor leadership style in every setting. Dubrin (1998) describes the autocratic leadership style as a style where the manager retains most authority for him/herself and makes decisions with a view to ensuring that the staff implements it. He/she is not bothered about attitudes of the staff towards a decision. He/she is rather concerned about getting the task done. He/she tells the staff what to do and how to do it asserts him/herself and serves as an example for the staff. This style is viewed as task-oriented (Dubrin, 1998) and is similar to Likert's II and I leadership styles.

Authoritarian sometimes known as transmission orientation of leaders are generally disliked, as there is no scope for initiative, consideration, and self-development on the part of followers. Teachers and students, for example, whose school administrator employs the autocratic leadership style, remain insecure and afraid of the leadership authority. This eventually reduces their ability to explore their potential. This style is typical of a leader who tells his employees what he wants done and how he wants it done, without requesting the input/advice of his subordinates. Some people tend to perceive this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. However, under certain conditions the autocratic leadership style is appropriate, especially when one has all the information to solve the problem, when one has little time, and when employees are well motivated. This work sought to assess the effect of an autocratic school administrator on teacher's efficiency. In the case of secondary schools where autocratic leadership is practiced, its application is most likely to be characterized by arbitrary advances, arbitrary disciplinary measures, and termination of services. The effect has always been dissatisfaction with work on the part of the employees. Balunywa (2000) argues that autocratic leaders in schools are more concerned with despotic influence in order to get the job accomplished rather than with the development and growth of subordinates. As far as they are concerned the work and the accomplishment of the goals of academic success matter more than their concern for those being led.

Autocratic leaders create a situation where subordinates who do not want to realize the importance of work are forcefully led to work (Mullins, 2002). According to Mullins (2002) autocratic leaders supervise subordinates very closely to ensure compliance and the completion of work in the designated time. Leadership is meant to be effective even where the situation seems

harsh so as to drive organizational intentions towards goal achievement. Research findings by Kasule (2007) on the effect of leadership styles on teacher productivity in private secondary schools in the Wakiso district indicate that autocratic leaders usually emphasize ‘authority’ as a means of having the work done. School administrators generally emphasize it, since it reaps results very quickly, as subordinates work under pressure to meet deadlines. Other studies by Storey (1993), however, noted that school administrators who use authority to get things done are too strict in the formality by which things are done. This hinders teacher creativity especially in instances where creativity and planning are imperative to anchor the academic program in schools.

Transformational orientation of leaders and Teachers’ Efficiency

This type of leadership is viewed as an important aspect of empowerment, teamwork and collaboration. It has been observed that a school is more effective when those who are affected by the organization’s decisions are fully involved in the decision-making process. William supra describes the democratic leadership style as that one which expresses greater confidence in the subordinates willingness and ability to assume responsibility, involve subordinates in decision making to a greater extent, and accepts more fully the notion that management has a responsibility to subordinates as well as to superiors. Democratic leadership or transformational orientation of leaders enhances personal commitment and stimulates initiative and creativity, permits self-expression, and group interaction. Decentralization of authority, participatory planning and mutual communication are some of the main features of democratic leadership. However, as Oyetunyi (2006) points out, the major point of focus is sharing; the manager shares decision-making with the subordinates. Even though he/she invites contributions from the subordinates before making a decision, he/she retains the final authority to make decisions (consultative). The manager may also seek discussion and agreement with teachers over an issue before a decision is taken (consensus). He/she may allow the subordinates to take a vote on an issue before a decision is taken (democratic). He/she coaches subordinates and negotiates their demands (Dubrin, 1998). Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (1998) is that the participative/democratic style of leadership wastes time due to endless meetings and may lead to confusion and lack of direction. By implication, it is not appropriate for use in times of crisis when the situation demands on-the-spot decision (Oyetunyi, 2006). However, unlike the laissez-faire style, the leader adopting this style maintains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; rather it

is a sign of strength that one respects the employees' ways of doing things. Using this style is of mutual benefit as it allows staff to become part of the team and allows one to make better decisions.

According to Mintzerg (1983:174), since schools are professional institutions, school administrators should adopt a democratic leadership style through the collegial model where teachers are directly involved in the school administration. By this therefore, we expect the school principal to work with teachers in a sense of mutual respect, autonomy, friendliness which will favor teacher's efficiency. David & Gamage (2007) argues that effective democratic/participatory school administration; leadership and management affect the trust levels of stakeholders. David's (2007) study focuses on a survey of the effectiveness of democratic and participatory school administration and management in one school division in the Philippines. Indicators of participatory school administration, leadership and management effectiveness, according to David's study, correlated with the stakeholders' level of trust. The study suggested that school administrators wishing to enhance the levels of trust among the stakeholders in their schools should consider these indicators, pertaining to the participatory or democratic leadership approach, in carrying out their leadership duties and responsibilities. The implication of this study is that just like in the Philippines; school administrators in Cameroon who favor the use of the democratic style of leadership, attach the same level of trust to their stakeholders in the management of schools. They engage subordinates, parents, students and the community in the decision making process. The principles of democratic leadership are flexibly applied in order to create a climate in which all stakeholders are able to express themselves freely and hence feel that they are part of the democratic decision-making process. Stakeholders need to feel that they are able to have an influence over what should happen and not happen at the school rather than to be subjected to the decisions of those placed in positions of hierarchical power. As pointed out by Kouzes and Posner (2003), school administrators know that no one does his/her work best when feeling weak, incompetent or alienated; they know that those who are expected to produce the results must feel a sense of ownership. In order for a school to provide quality education, those who have been empowered to lead the transformation of the schools to address the challenges of the new millennium should carefully nurture democratic leadership. Democratic leadership can be effectively utilized to extract the best from people and the most effective and efficient educational climate can be created in a school when democracy is employed. The democratic leadership

practices in secondary schools outline procedures to develop and use the potential of all the stakeholders of a school in order to create and foster quality education.

Transactional orientation of leaders and Teacher's Efficiency

This is a type of leadership orientation in which leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. Researchers have found out that this is generally the leadership style that leads to the lowest productivity among group members. The main problem here is that organizational goals are not well targeted and as such not achieved due to lack of direction, and efficiency. Bubbles (1993:141), states that although an "open door" policy would prevail, there will be no reason to see such a leader on problem; he/she will probably say 'do what you think well in the situation". School administrators delegate almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organization. School administrator leads the organization indirectly, he/she does not make decisions; rather he/she abides by popular decisions. There is no setting of goals and objectives by the manager. Tasks are done the way the manager thinks it should be done, but he/she gets involved on request and this may lead to the digression from broad organizational policy. Thus, this style of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced employees (Dubrin, 1998), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy.

Summary of Chapter Two

The researcher has reviewed the relationship that exists between curriculum orientations of school administrators and teachers efficient by looking at the notion of leadership approaches and models, the importance of leadership, qualities of a good leader, strategies of a good leader, mistakes educational leaders make, leadership perspectives and styles, leadership studies related to school managers, the conceptual framework on leadership and teachers efficiency in Secondary schools the teacher/teaching, teacher's efficiency and motivation. From the works of other authors above, it shows that there is a relationship between leadership styles of school administrators and teachers efficiency, which we are going to verify on the field to confirm it. Some theories related to the study were also reviewed. This then takes us to chapter three of the work which centers on designing instruments to take to the field and administer.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Methodology according to Weiten (1989) it is a strategy or procedure that is used for the collection of empirical data. Ogolo (1995:38) looks at research methodology as a procedure to be followed in realizing the goals and objectives of a research. This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used by the researcher in the study; they were as follows: the research design, area of study, population of study, sample population, sampling technique, instruments for data collection, validity and reliability of instruments, method of administering instruments, data analysis techniques, study variables, indicators, and recapitulative table. It was therefore the duty of the researcher to display the scientific basis for her proceedings. We needed to prove, verify and advance an account of the techniques used in the study. According to Grawitz (1981) any scientific work involves the collection of useful data. In order to obtain an objective, it requires the use of some technical means. It is therefore indispensable to use the appropriate tool for a given research.

Research Design

This study was conducted as a mixed research design using quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative research is one whose data is basically descriptive in nature. This means that the data obtained was ordinarily expressed in non-numerical terms while qualitative research is a type of research that is based on the methodological principles of positivism and neo-positivism and adheres to the standards of strict research design developed before the research begins Amin (2005). This method equally provided a strong evidence that confirmed the results and allowed the researcher to use the strength of one method to cancel the weaknesses inherent in the other method. In this way, the researcher based knowledge claims on realistic grounds. According to Johnson and Christenson (2004), implementing mixed method research enables researchers to gather multiple data in a way that combines results to have complementing advantages and no overlapping disadvantages. The design used in this study is therefore the Survey Research Design, made up of questionnaires in order to address the problem of curriculum orientation of school administrators and teacher's efficiency.

Area of study

This study was carried out in the Yaoundé municipality, found in the center region of Cameroon. It is the economic capital of Cameroon with diverse ideas, people, schools etc. Mfoundi

is a division in of the center region of Cameroon. This division covers an area of 297km² and as of 2005 had a total population of 1,881,876. This division forms the Yaounde capital and greater area. Mfoundi division has seven sub divisions. This study will be carried out in the Yaounde 6 Municipality. This division was created following decree NO 74/193 of March 11th, 1974 separating it from the Mefou division. The Yaounde 6 municipalities is occupied by many English speaking Cameroonians. That is the reason why most schools in this area which are lay private to avoid language barrier. In addition, the researcher chose this area because of accessibility to information and population of study.

Population of study

A population is the proportion of the universe to which the researcher has access. According to Ali, Chukwuma, and Mgbodile (1991), it is a group in which a researcher is interested in studying and about which a researcher is interested to obtain information and draw conclusion. In order words a population is the totality of objects or individuals, having one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher and where inferences are to be made. The total population of study was 500 participants, comprising of teachers from English High School (EHS) Yaounde, Franky Comprehensive High School Besquiterie (FCHS), Faith Comprehensive College (FCC) obili, oxford comprehensive College (OCC) Besquiterie and Government Bilingual High School (lycee) etug-ebe. The population of this study consists of vice principals (who are teachers) and teachers from five secondary schools

Targeted population

The target population is a population to which the researcher ultimately wants to generalize the results (Amin, 2005). The targeted population of study was 500 Because, the researcher randomly selected the participants based on the total population per school.

Accessible population

The accessible population was **300** because not everyone welcomed the researcher and so the once who did participate in the research. The table below showed a distribution of accessible participants in which the number varied because they were randomly selected.

Table 1: accessible population of study

| NAME OF SCHOOL | ACCESSIBLE POPULATION OF STUDY |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| EHS | 45 |
| FCHS | 34 |
| FCC | 33 |
| OCC | 33 |
| GBHS | 55 |
| Total | 300 |

Sampling Techniques

Sampling according to Amin (2005) is the process of selecting elements from a population in such a way that the sample elements selected represent the population. The Simple Random Sampling Technique was used in the study. This technique was used in other to enable easy selection of schools since there are many secondary schools in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. The simple random sampling was used, whereby all the teachers will had an equal opportunity to be selected. The researcher equally used this technique in order to eliminate bias and to provide accurate answers, by providing a chance mechanism in which the respondents will be randomly selected. In this regard, the researcher will wrote the names of the various schools found in the Yaounde 6 Municipality on pieces of papers, mix them and finally remove ten pieces from the mixture. The sample size was 300 because that was the final population the researcher was able to access in each school.

Instruments for data collection

Two instruments will be used to obtain data in this research as follows:

Questionnaires

The research instrument which was used in this study was the questionnaires which was be based on the objectives, hypothesis and related literature. The instrument required that the information related to respondents' points of view on the independent variables and the dependent variable should be expressed. In this study, the researcher made use of questionnaires (See Appendix B). The questionnaires was developed using a likert scale where modalities were stated and the participants just had to read the questions and indicate their responses. The first section is was made up of personal information about the respondents while the preceding sections was to

find out the extent to which leadership styles of principals influences teachers' efficiency in diverse secondary school settings in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. Attached to each question was a cover letter to the respondents. This letter was to present the researcher's subject, purpose of the study, and solicited co-operation of the respondents as well as a guarantee of confidentiality. The respondents was to choose among the various alternatives provided. The subject respond to the questionnaire was to make use of a four point Likert-type scale. Responses to items will be given the following scale scores.

1 = Strongly Agree (SA)

2 = Agree (A)

3= Disagree (D)

4 = Strongly Disagree (SD)

They were required to make very honest responses by picking one of the options. Gay and Airasia (2000) points out that the use of questionnaire has some definite advantages over other methods of collecting data in that; they require less time, is less expensive and permits collection of data from a much larger sample.

The questionnaires were grouped in five (5) rubrics, each aimed at grasping pertinent data with respect to the subjects under study. These rubrics included;

- ❖ Background information of respondents
- ❖ Transmission orientation of school principals
- ❖ Transformational orientation of school principals
- ❖ Transactional orientation of school principals
- ❖ Teacher's efficiency

Validation and Reliability of instrument

Validity is the most important idea to consider when preparing or selecting an instrument for use. Validity refers to the appropriateness of the instrument while reliability refers to its consistency in measuring whatever it is intended to measure Amin (2005). After constructing the questionnaire, the researcher gave the questionnaires to some colleagues to read and make their own comments or contributions. The researcher then handed the questionnaire to the supervisor of this project for scrutiny. He reviewed it in terms of clarity and appropriateness to the needs of the study. After due consideration, the supervisor confirmed the representativeness and relevance of

the items in relation to the scope of the investigation. This exercise ensured that a pretest or a pilot test be carried out. This procedure enabled face and content validity of the instrument.

A pilot test was carried out by the researcher using 20 respondents from schools not included in the sample, but which will be part of the targeted population and having characteristics as those of the sample. After collecting back the questionnaires from the respondents, the responses indicated will proof if that the items on the questionnaires are up to what is intended to measure.

Content validity: The researcher crossed checked the questionnaire with regards to the objectives, research questions and hypothesis to confirm the instrument; an activity in which fellow researchers were not left out.

According to Amin (2004), an instrument is reliable when it measures what it is intended to measure. Hence, the reliability of the instrument will be established. Reliability is the degree to which the instrument consistently measures whatever it is measuring. The advantages derived from the pilot test will simply be that new insights will be obtained, the errors pointed out will be corrected, and the total understanding of the questionnaire will be measured, which will help enrich the final questionnaires. In addition, the face and content validity of the research instrument will be ascertained by some test and measurement experts.

Reliability is expressed numerically as reliability coefficient which is obtained by using a correlation. A high reliability coefficient indicates high reliability. 1.00 coefficient means perfectly reliable. 0.00 coefficients means no reliability. The reliability coefficient reflects the extent to which a test is free from error variance. The validity test confirms that the tool is valid; it is obvious that the tool is also reliable. Reliability test was performed to assess the internal consistency of responses using Cronbach Alpha reliability analysis. The Cronbach's Coefficient alpha (α) was used especially in this case where the items are not scored dichotomously in the case of multiple choice tests. The following formula was used to get the reliability of the instrument;

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{K-1} \left[\frac{1 - \sum \sigma_k^2}{\sigma^2} \right]$$

σ = Standard deviation of the test.

Where $\sum \sigma_k^2$ is the sum of the variances of the k parts (usually items) of the test. A pilot test was carried out with a sample of 15 participants from one of the secondary schools, the instrument will have 20 items. A table was produced in other to show the results of the reliability test.

Data collection

Research approval was sought from The Faculty of Education, Department of sciences of Education, University of Yaoundé I (UNIYAO I) to conduct this study in 5 specific secondary schools in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. Once this approval was received, the researcher was to proceed administering the questionnaires after due authorization from the principals of the respective schools. Solicited participants were given the option to voluntarily participate in responding to questionnaires. After which the researcher collected the questionnaires

Data analysis technique

The main techniques of data analysis included; descriptive and inferential analysis. The inferential statistics used was the Chi-square (χ^2) test of independent variable which was the tool used because of its universality. Statistics were used so as to show that there is a relationship between leadership styles of school principals and teacher's efficiency in diverse secondary school settings. Using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program, data were interpreted using charts to express to show the state of affairs. Results were quantitative and helped identify correlations in the course of leadership styles).

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data collected from the field with the use of questionnaires. Charts and frequency tables were used to present the descriptions of the real state of affairs.

Statistical procedure used

In order to measure the correlation between the two variables, the chi test for independence of two variables was used. We used the chi square because it is a statistical tool which measures the relationship between variables.

The formula is described as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{\sum (Fo - Fe)}{Fe} \quad \text{Where: } \sum = \text{Sum}$$

fe = Expected or theoretical frequency

fo = Observed frequency

The degree of freedom is described as:

$$E = \frac{Fr \times Fc}{N}$$

Where: E = Expected frequency

Fr = Frequency of rows

Fc = Frequency of columns

N = Number of frequency

After the frequencies were obtained, they were be squared and divided by the expected frequency after which they will be summed up. Our error margin or level of significance will be 5% or an alpha of 0.05.

To calculate the degree of freedom, the following formula will be used:

$$df = (r - 1) (c - 1)$$

where df = degree of freedom

r = total number of rows

c = total number of columns

Application of chi square

Here, the rule stipulates that if the calculated chi square value is more than the critical value of chi square or the chi square read, the null hypothesis (Ho) will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis (Ha) will be retained. But if the calculated chi square value is less than the critical value, then the alternative hypothesis (Ha) will be rejected and the null hypothesis (Ho) retained.

The contingency coefficient denoted Cc and the contingency maximum; Cmax will be calculated. This will be done in order to determine the magnitude of the relationship between curriculum orientations of school principals and teacher's efficiency.

The contingency coefficient is calculated as:

$$Cc = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{X^2 + n}}$$

Where Cc = contingency coefficient

X² = chi square

n = number of frequency

With respect to the rule, when the coefficient is at 0, it means that there is no relation between the two variables. When the coefficient is less than 0 (that is between -1 and -0.1), it means that there is a negative relationship between the variables. When the calculated coefficient falls

between 0.01 and 1, then there is a positive relationship. Thus, the general range lies between -1 and 1. In order to determine the various ranges to judge the magnitude or strength of the relationship, the following scale can be computed:

$$C_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{k-1}{k}}$$

Where C_{\max} = Contingency maximum

K = lowest level of contingency (rows or columns)

Below is a comparison scale for correlation coefficient to measure the correlation magnitude:

0.0 – 0.59 (Low relationship)

0.59 – 0.6 (Moderate relationship)

0.6 – 1.0 (High relationship)

Study Variables

Amin (2005) defines variables as anything that can take on differing or varying values. The values can differ at various times for the same object or persons. The independent variable for this research study was curriculum orientations of school principals. School principals used various curriculum orientations to control their institutions which produce diverse results. Therefore, it is believed that curriculum orientations of school principals would have a significant influence on teacher's efficiency.

The dependent variable for this research study is teacher's efficiency. This was needed to evaluate the appropriate curriculum orientation and the overall teacher's achievement growth. This data provided quantifiable numbers that will later help statistically to identify correlations between curriculum orientations of school principals and teacher's efficiency.

Indicators of the study

Indicators of Curriculum orientations of school administrators

Transmission orientation of curriculum

The research on curriculum orientations of school administrators was very important to the study because effective teaching/learning cannot take place in a school setting without teacher's efficiency. Teacher's efficiency can only be motivated depending on orientation used by the principal and if order prevails since effective learning can be possible only in a conducive "school atmosphere". Vibrant enthusiasm and clear vision are the hallmarks of the authoritative style. This leadership, the research has shown, drove up every aspect of the organizational climate. This leader

motivates people by making it clear to them how their work fits into the larger vision of the organization. People understand that what they do matters and why, thus maximizing commitment to the organization's goals and strategies. The standards for success and the rewards are clear, but people have great freedom to innovate and flexibility in accomplishing the goals. This style works well in almost any business situation. It works best when the organization/school is adrift and the authoritative leader who is mostly transmission oriented charts a new vision. A limitation is if the leader works with a group of experts or peers/teachers who are more experienced. They may see the leader as pompous or out of touch. If the leader becomes overbearing, he/she may undermine the egalitarian spirit team.

Transformational orientation of curriculum

By spending time getting people's buy-in, the leader builds trust, respect and commitment. Because the transformational leader affords people a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work, it drives up flexibility, responsibility and keeps morale high. Its impact on climate is not as positive as some of the other styles. Its drawbacks are the endless meetings, where consensus remains elusive and people can end up feeling confused and leaderless. This style works best when the leader is uncertain about direction and needs guidance or for generating fresh ideas for executing the vision. In times of crisis, consensus may not be effective.

Transactional orientation of curriculum

This is a type of leadership orientation in which leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. Researchers have found out that this is generally the leadership orientation that leads to the lowest productivity among group members. The main problem here is that organizational goals are not well targeted and as such not achieved due to lack of direction, and efficiency. Burtles (1993:141), states that although an "open door" policy would prevail, there will be no reason to see such a leader on problem; he/she will probably say 'do what you think well in the situation'. School principals delegate almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organization. School principals leads the organization indirectly; he/she does not make decisions; rather he/she abides by popular decisions. There is no setting of goals or objectives by the principal. Tasks are done the way the principal thinks it should be done, but he/she gets involved on request and this may lead to the digression from broad organizational policy. Thus, this orientation of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced

employees/teachers (Dubrin, 1998), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy.

Teacher's Efficiency

Cooper (1986:3) defines an efficient teacher as one who is able to bring about intended learning outcomes or results. Thus, if a teacher shows good qualities such as kindness, warmth, enthusiasm, steadiness, alertness, sympathy, but is not able to help students achieve desirable results he/she cannot be considered efficient. Thus, it is useless emphasizing the goodness of a teacher in terms of his moral and social behavior forgetting his efficiency. This emphasis is on the difference between teacher's behavior and teacher efficiency arose mostly from what is known in educational research history as teacher efficiency research. This research was conducted in the 1970s in the USA and tried to identify what efficient teachers and inefficient teachers do in classrooms. Presenting this research, Arends (1997:71-74) and McNeil and Wiles (1990:24-29) associated efficient teachers with the following acts or behaviors amongst others: avoid vagueness, task oriented, use variety of teaching methods, use praise in the course of learning and communicating lesson objectives. Efficient teachers are good organizers of academic content and instruction, and good classroom management minimizes disruptions and maximizes learning; efficient teachers require mastery of their subject matters. Your goal, as teacher, is to demonstrate caring and interest in your students not just as students, but as people (Seifert, 2009:129).

As efficient teachers, it is our job to add value to the material that we want to use in the classroom. If we fail to do so, our students and principals as well as supervisors will just conclude that we are not living up to our responsibilities, but instead are using the materials as entertainment. Teaching-learning aids should determine the extent of activities selected for each lesson. Learning materials must be selected in terms of the objectives of the lesson because it is the objectives that would determine the kind of materials to be used. The teacher therefore needs to be familiar with the different types of teaching materials to accomplish the task.

Summary of chapter three

It is not known how and to what extent curriculum orientation of school administrator's affects teacher efficiency in diverse secondary settings. Besides, the potential impact of curriculum orientation is unclear because leadership orientations of school principals and teacher's efficiency vary from one school administrator/institution to another. Due to these variations, curriculum orientation of school principals and teacher's efficiency that enhances teaching/learning efficiency

in diverse secondary school settings is not known. Understanding the connection between curriculum orientation of school principals and teacher's efficiency will be important to this study because it will solidify the need for quality curriculum orientations and teaching to increase efficiency. An investigation is therefore needed to determine whether relationship exists between curriculum orientations of school principals and teachers efficiency. Determining this relationship will be essential to improve leadership styles; but in order to improve teacher's efficiency and close achievement gaps, curriculum orientations of school principals need to be identified to increased teachers efficiency.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study from both quantitative perspectives. According to Rocher (1972:18), every scientific research consists of mental reconstruction of reality in the goal of discovering the order, next to the apparent diversity and the incoherence of the phenomena observed. The results collected with the use of questionnaires are presented here using both descriptive and inferential analysis. The collected data was analyzed with the use of the chi square test of independence variables to determine their relationship. The data gotten from the observation guide was mainly for reporting. This chapter is therefore made up of three parts: the first provides demographic data of participating schools, the second part provides a descriptive analysis of data while the third comprises of the verification of hypotheses.

Descriptive Statistics

Here, data collected from the field was presented by the use of descriptive statistics to permit a clear vision of the type of responses based on frequencies and percentages.

Descriptive analysis of data collected on the identification of Respondents:

Table 2: Distribution of respondents according to institution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| EHS | 44 | 14.7 | 14.7 | 14.7 |
| FCHS | 51 | 17.0 | 17.0 | 31.7 |
| FCC | 56 | 18.7 | 18.7 | 50.3 |
| OCC | 81 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 77.3 |
| GBHS | 68 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

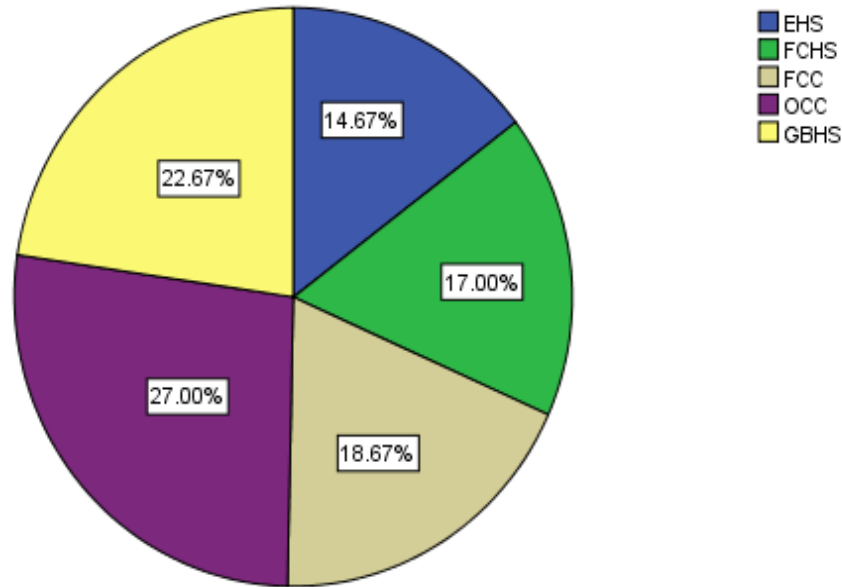


Figure 3: distribution of respondents according to institution

Figure 3 above presents the various institutions in which the study was carried out following our simple random sampling technique. From the above, it is clear that the study was carried out in EHS, which is 14.6%, FCHS comprising of 17.0%, FCC which is 18.67%, OCC making up a percentage of 27.0% and finally GBHS which is 22.67%. This can be clearly seen from the pie chart above.

Table 3: Distribution of teachers according to the Class they teach

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid form one | 102 | 34.0 | 34.0 | 34.0 |
| form two | 37 | 12.3 | 12.3 | 46.3 |
| form three | 29 | 9.7 | 9.7 | 56.0 |
| form four | 59 | 19.7 | 19.7 | 75.7 |
| form five | 30 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 85.7 |
| lower sixth | 21 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 92.7 |
| upper sixth | 22 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

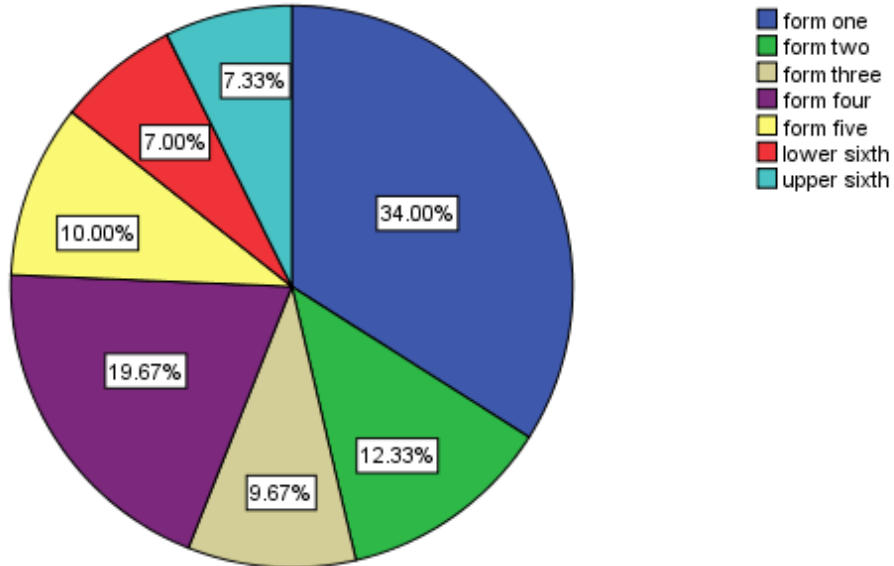


Figure 4: distribution of teachers according to the class they teach

Figure 4 above shows the distribution of teachers according to the class they teach both in the first and second cycle. Form one, two, three four and five have a percentage distribution of 34.0%, 12.33%, 9.67%, 19.67%, 10.00% respectively mean while lower and upper sixth also known as second cycle has a percentage of 14.33%

Table 4: Gender

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid male | 175 | 58.3 | 58.3 | 58.3 |
| Valid female | 125 | 41.7 | 41.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

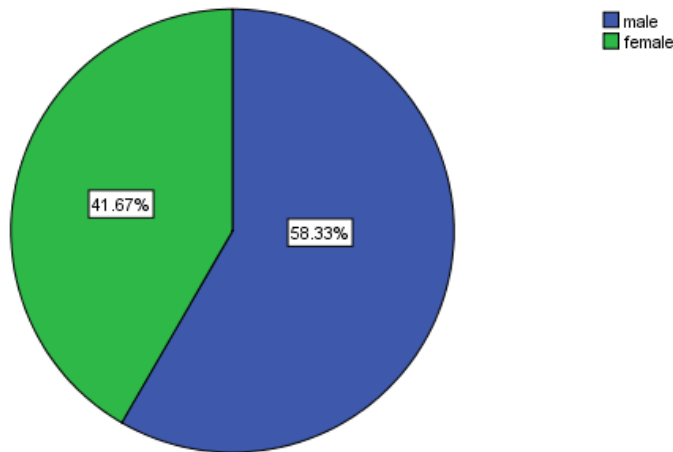


Figure 5: Gender

Figure 5 above shows the distribution of male and female for the entire population. Males comprising a percentage of 41.67 and females 58.33.

Table 5: distribution of respondents as to whether principals determine all working policies before work is done

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 61 | 20.3 | 20.3 | 20.3 |
| agree | 120 | 40.0 | 40.0 | 60.3 |
| disagree | 91 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 90.7 |
| strongly disagree | 28 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

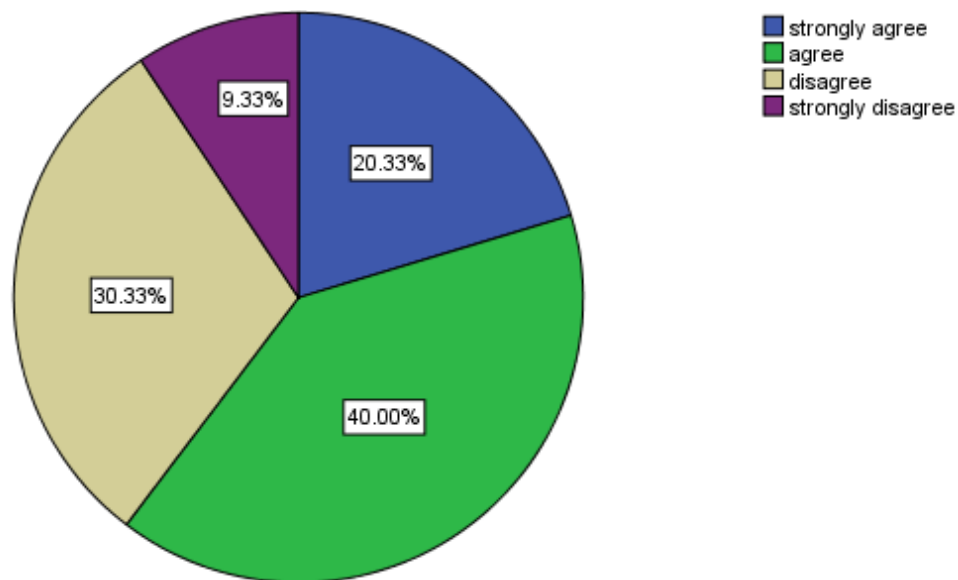


Figure 6: distribution of respondents as to whether principals all working policies before work is done

Figure 6 above represents respondents as to whether working policies are determined by principals before work is done. From the presentation above, 20.33 % of the respondents strongly agree that working policies are determined by principals before work is done, 40.00% of respondents agree that working policies are determined by principals before work is done, 30.33% of respondents disagreed that working policies are determined by principals before work is done and 9.33% of respondents strongly disagreed to the afore mentioned.

Table 6: distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his or her guidance

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 28 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 9.3 |
| | Agree | 96 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 41.3 |
| | Disagree | 152 | 50.7 | 50.7 | 92.0 |
| | strongly disagree | 24 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

my principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his or her guidance

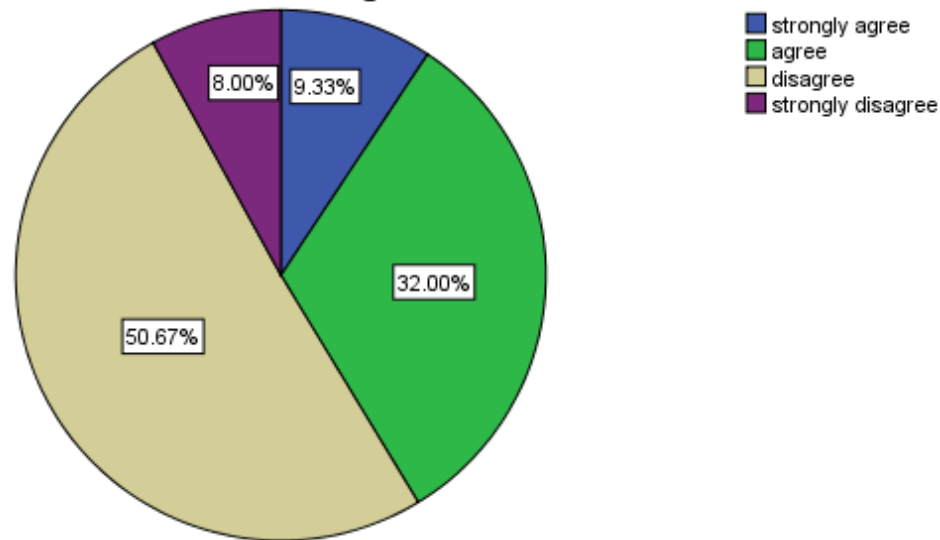


Figure 7: distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his or her guidance

Figure 7 shows the distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very supportive and allows respondents to set priorities with principals' guidance. 9.33% of respondents strongly agree that their principal is very supportive and allows them set priorities with their guidance, 32.00% of respondents agree that their principal is very supportive and allows them set priorities with their guidance, 50.67% of respondents disagree that their principal is very supportive and allows them set priorities with their guidance and 8.00% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal is very supportive and allows them set priorities with their guidance.

Table 7: distribution of respondents as to whether principal allows all the teachers to participate in decision making

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 66 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 22.0 |
| | agree | 146 | 48.7 | 48.7 | 70.7 |
| | disagree | 69 | 23.0 | 23.0 | 93.7 |
| | strongly disagree | 19 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

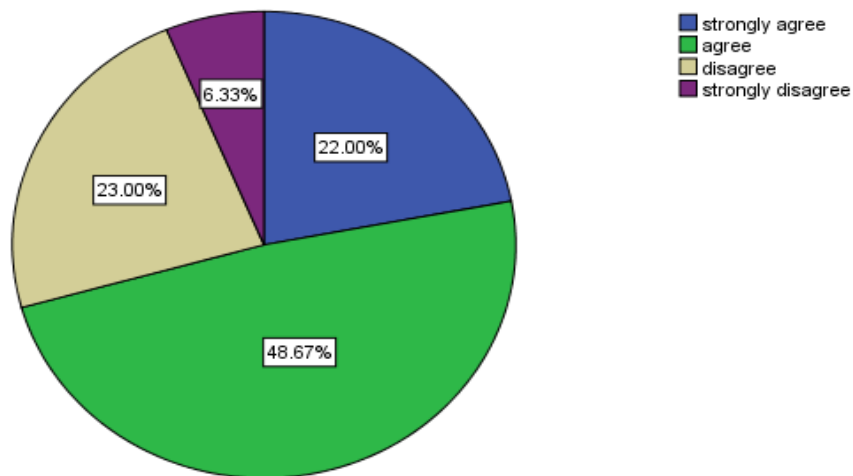


Figure 8: distribution of respondents as to whether principal allows all the teachers to participate in decision making

Figure 8 above presents the distribution of respondents as to whether principal allows all the teachers to participate in the decision-making process. From the total number of respondents, 22.00% of respondents strongly agree that principal allows all teachers in decision making process, 23.00% of respondents disagree that principal allows all teachers to participate in decision making process, 6.33% of respondents strongly disagree that principal allows all teachers to participate in decision making process.

Table 8: distribution of teachers as to whether communication is freely done with principal and whether principal monitors performance closely

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 34 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 11.3 |
| | agree | 106 | 35.3 | 35.3 | 46.7 |
| | disagree | 132 | 44.0 | 44.0 | 90.7 |
| | strongly disagree | 28 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

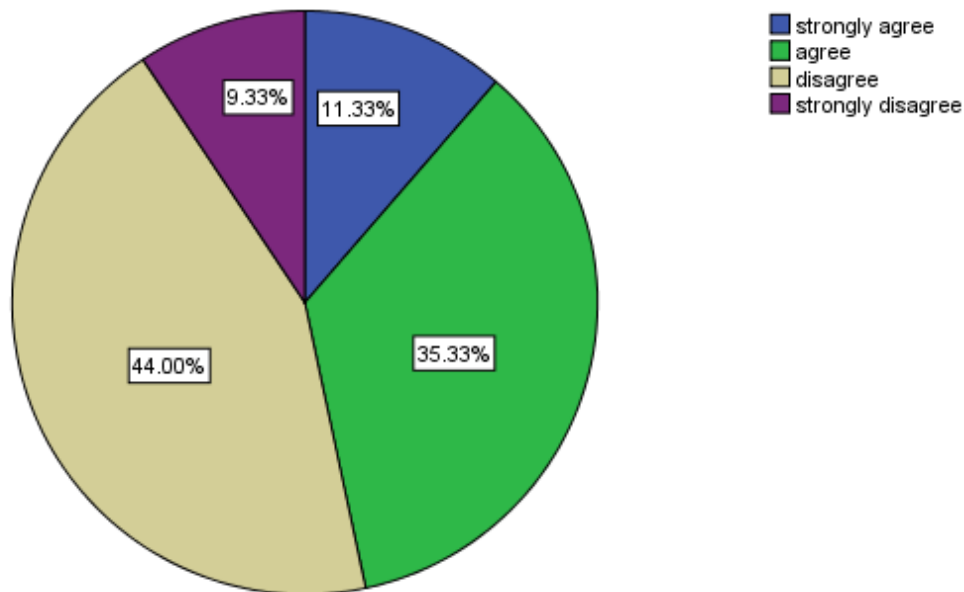


Figure 9: distribution of teachers as to whether communication is freely done with principal and whether principal monitors performance closely

Figure 9 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether communication is freely done with principal and whether principal monitors performance closely. From the total number of respondents, 11.33% of respondents strongly agree that they communicate freely with their principal and their principal monitors their performance closely, 35.33% of respondents agree that they communicate freely with their principal and their principal monitors their performance closely, 44.00% of respondents disagree that they communicate freely with their principal and their principal monitors their performance closely, 9.33 % of respondents strongly disagree that they communicate freely with their principal and their principal monitors their performance closely.

Table 9: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very flexible

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 55 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 18.3 |
| agree | 106 | 35.3 | 35.3 | 53.7 |
| Valid disagree | 81 | 27.0 | 27.0 | 80.7 |
| strongly disagree | 58 | 19.3 | 19.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

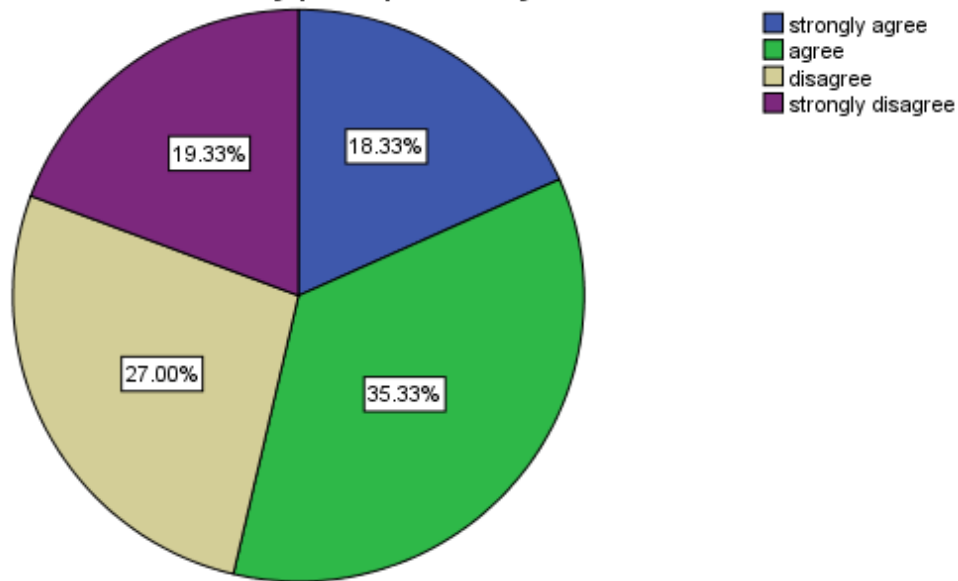


Figure 10: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal is very flexible

Figure 10 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether their principal is very flexible. From the above number of respondents 18.33% of respondents strongly agree that their principals are very flexible, 35.33% of respondents agree that their principals are very flexible, 27.00% of respondents disagree that their principals are very flexible and 19.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their principals are very flexible.

Table 10: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal considers skills and interest before assigning us

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 11 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.7 |
| agree | 133 | 44.3 | 44.3 | 48.0 |
| Valid disagree | 136 | 45.3 | 45.3 | 93.3 |
| strongly disagree | 20 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

my principal considers skills and interest before assigning us

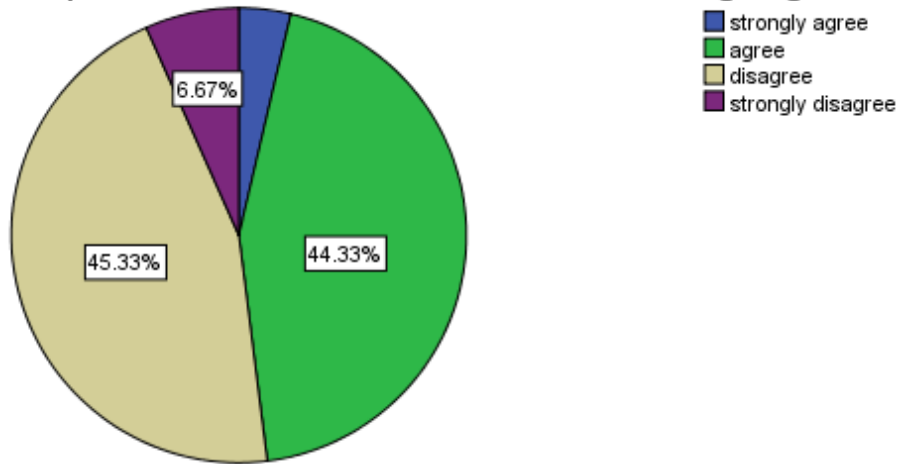


Figure 11: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal considers skills and interest before assigning us

Figure 11 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether principal considers skills and interests before giving tasks. From the total number of respondents, 3.67 of the respondents strongly agree that their principal considers skills and interest before giving them tasks, 44.33% of respondents agree that their principal considers skills and interest before giving them tasks, 45.33% of respondents disagree that their principal considers skills and interest before giving them tasks, 6.67% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal considers skills and interest before giving them tasks.

Table 11: distribution of respondents as to whether principal ask for ideas before he implements plans for any project

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid strongly agree | 64 | 21.3 | 21.3 | 21.3 |
| Valid agree | 46 | 15.3 | 15.3 | 36.7 |
| Valid disagree | 114 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 74.7 |
| Valid strongly disagree | 76 | 25.3 | 25.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

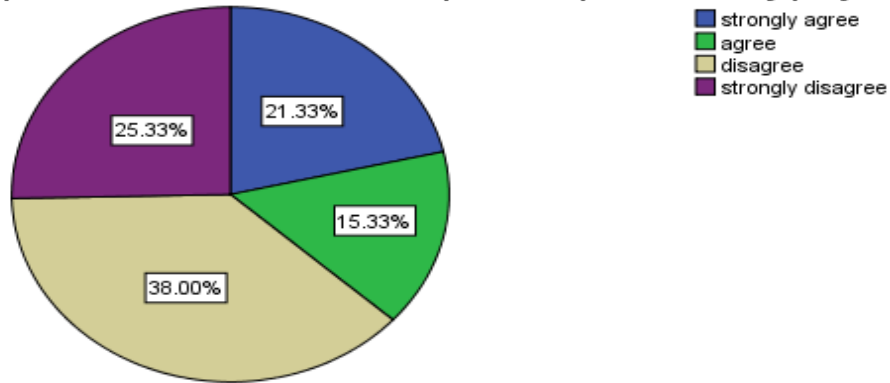


Figure 12: distribution of respondents as to whether principal ask for ideas before he implements plans for any project

Figure 12 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether principal asks for ideas before implementing plans and projects. We have 21.33% of respondents strongly agree that their principal asks for ideas before implementing plans and projects, 15.33% of respondents agree that their principal asks for ideas before implementing plans and projects, 38.00% of respondents disagree that their principal asks for ideas before implementing plans and projects/ while 25.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal asks for ideas before implementing plans and projects.

Table 12: distribution of respondents as to whether principal never runs of negative energy

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 55 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 18.3 |
| agree | 71 | 23.7 | 23.7 | 42.0 |
| disagree | 111 | 37.0 | 37.0 | 79.0 |
| strongly disagree | 63 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

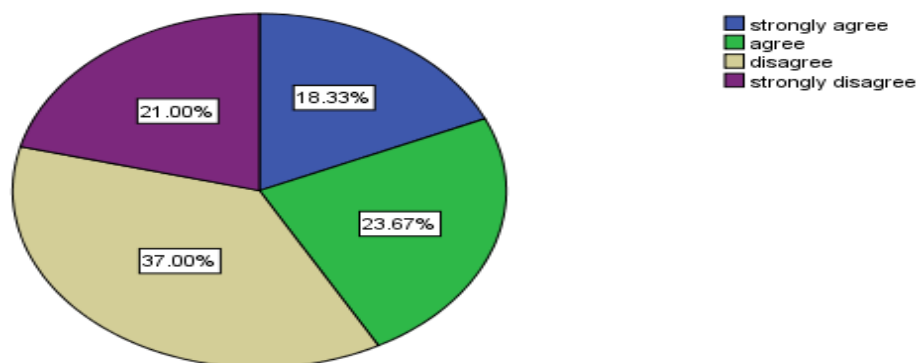


Figure 13: distribution of respondents as to whether principal never runs of negative energy

Figure 13 above shows the distribution of respondent as to whether their principal never runs out of negative energy. 18.33% of respondents strongly agree that their principal never runs out of negative energy, 23.67 % of respondents agree that their principal never runs out of negative energy, 37.00% of respondents disagree that their principal never runs out of negative energy and 21.00% strongly disagree that their principal never runs out of negative energy.

Table 13: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal rebukes them without listening to them

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 17 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 5.7 |
| Agree | 125 | 41.7 | 41.7 | 47.3 |
| Valid disagree | 115 | 38.3 | 38.3 | 85.7 |
| strongly disagree | 43 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

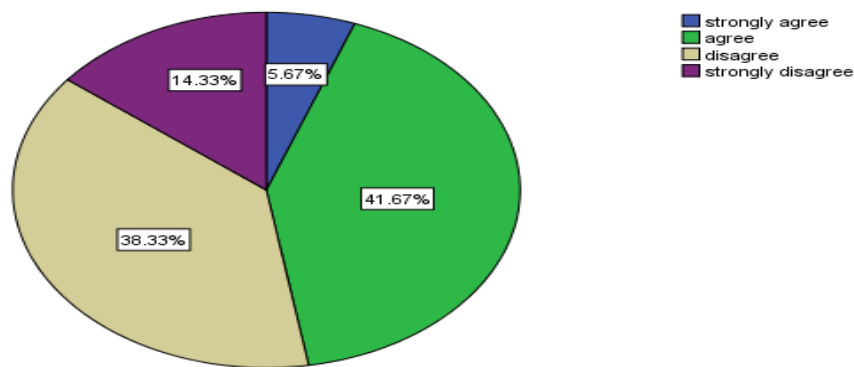


Figure 14: Distribution of respondents as to whether principal rebukes them without listening to them

Figure 14 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether principal rebukes without listening. 5.67% of respondents strongly agree that their principal rebukes them without listening, 41.67% of respondents agree that their principal rebukes them without listening, 38.33% of respondents disagree that their principal rebukes them without listening, 14.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal rebukes them without listening.

Table 14: distribution of respondents as to whether the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by my principal

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 21 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 7.0 |
| | agree | 115 | 38.3 | 38.3 | 45.3 |
| | disagree | 132 | 44.0 | 44.0 | 89.3 |
| | strongly disagree | 32 | 10.7 | 10.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

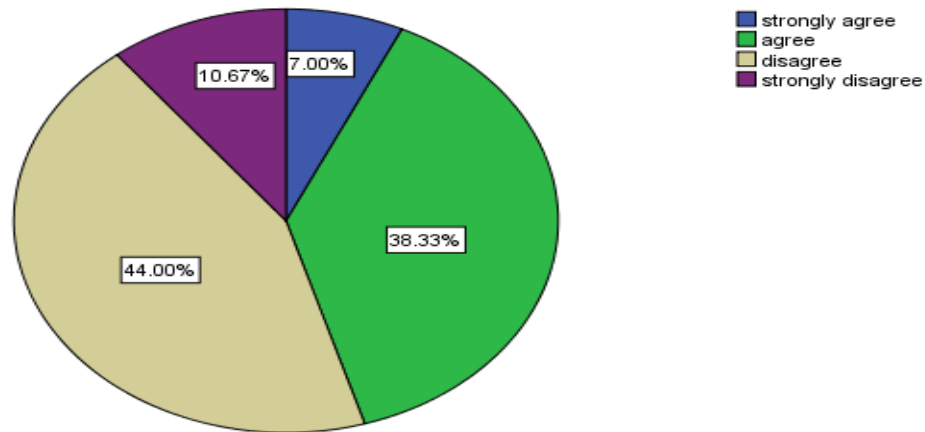


Figure 15: distribution of respondents as to whether the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by my principal

Figure 15 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by principal. From the table above 7.00% of respondents strongly agree that the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by the principal, 36.33% of respondents agree that the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by the principal, 44.00% of respondents disagree that the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by the principal, and 10.67% of respondents strongly disagree that the standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by the principal.

Table 15: Distribution of respondents as to whether you can always notice their principal when they walk into the room

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 52 | 17.3 | 17.3 | 17.3 |
| | agree | 130 | 43.3 | 43.3 | 60.7 |
| | disagree | 63 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 81.7 |
| | strongly disagree | 55 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

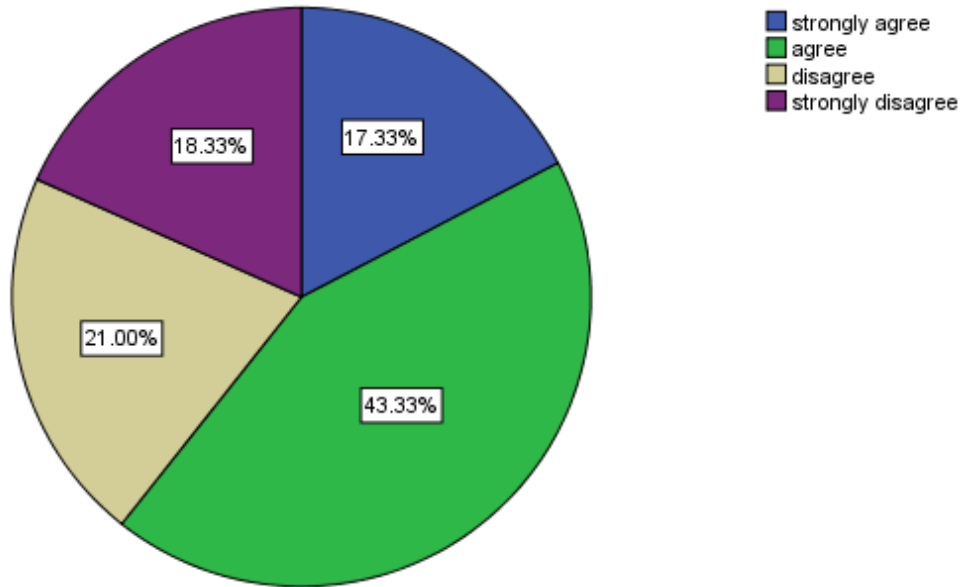


Figure 16: Distribution of respondents as to whether you can always notice their principal when they walk into the room

Figure 16 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether their principals are noticeable when they walk into a room. From the above analysis 17.33% strongly agree that when their principal walks into a room they notice them, 43.33% of respondents agree that their principal is always noticed when they walk into a room, 21.00% of respondents disagree that their principal is always noticed when they walk into a room, 18.33% strongly disagree that their principal is always noticed when they walk into a room.

Table 16: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal is outspoken

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 58 | 19.3 | 19.3 | 19.3 |
| agree | 122 | 40.7 | 40.7 | 60.0 |
| Valid disagree | 92 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 90.7 |
| strongly disagree | 28 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

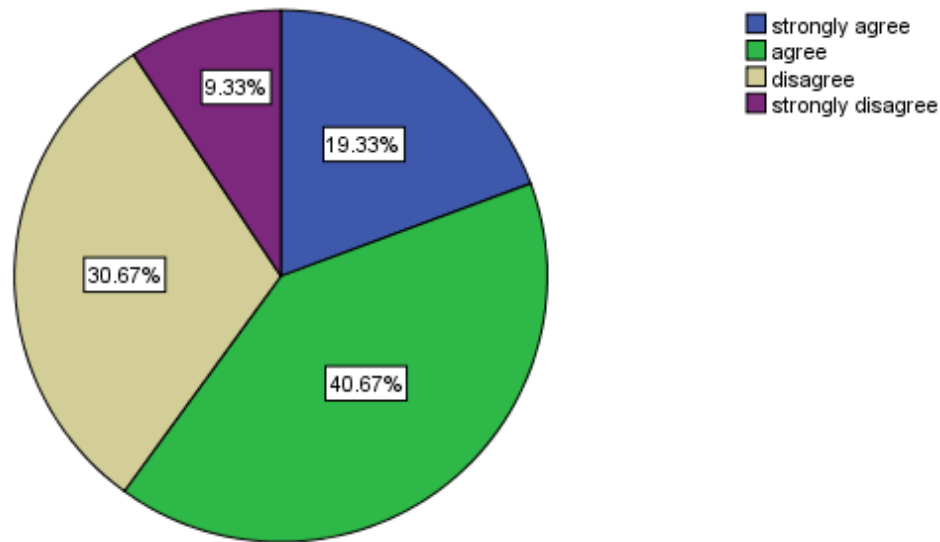


Figure 17: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal is outspoken

Figure 17 above shows the respondents' response as to whether their principal is outspoken or not. From the pie chart above we can clearly see that 19.33% of teachers strongly agree that their principal is outspoken, 40.67% of respondents agree that their principal is outspoken. Equally from the chart 30.67% disagree that their principal is outspoken, while 9.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal is outspoken. Comparing the data above we can clearly see that 60% of respondents are for the fact that their principal are outspoken and 40% of respondents are not for the fact that their principal is outspoken.

Table 17: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal does not consider suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 16 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 5.3 |
| agree | 118 | 39.3 | 39.3 | 44.7 |
| disagree | 132 | 44.0 | 44.0 | 88.7 |
| strongly disagree | 34 | 11.3 | 11.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

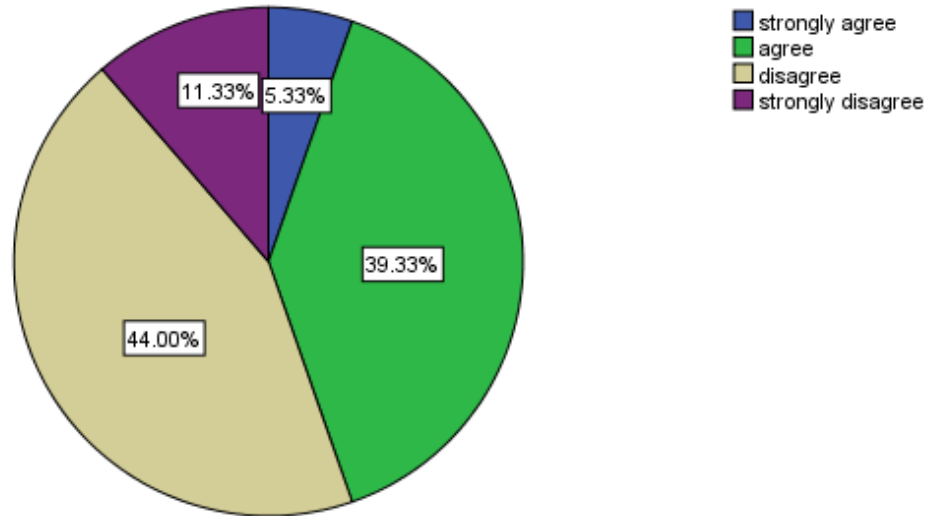


Figure 18: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal does not consider suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them

The table above (figure 18) shows the distribution of teachers as to whether their principal does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them. From the data above 5.33% strongly agree that their does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them. 39.33% of respondents agree that their does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them, 44.00% of respondents disagree that their does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them, 11.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them. This brings us to the conclusion that 44.66% of respondents are for the fact that their does not consider their suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them as compared to a total of 55.34 who are against.

Table 18: Distribution of teachers as to when someone makes a mistake their principal rebukes them and take note

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 76 | 25.3 | 25.3 | 25.3 |
| agree | 106 | 35.3 | 35.3 | 60.7 |
| Valid disagree | 93 | 31.0 | 31.0 | 91.7 |
| strongly disagree | 25 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

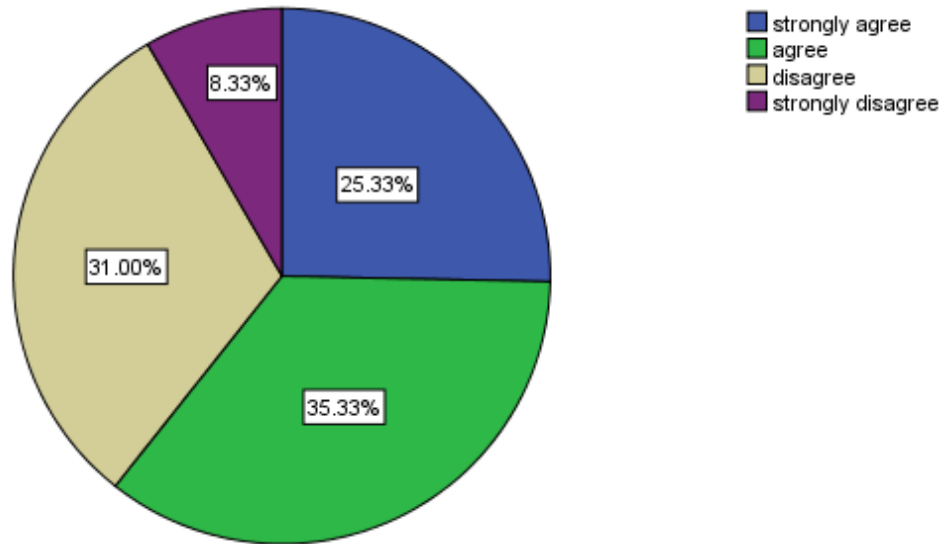


Figure 19 Distribution of teachers as to when someone makes a mistake their principal rebukes them and take note

Figure 19 represents teachers who responded as to whether when someone makes a mistake their principal rebukes them and takes note. Clearly from the data above 25.33 % of respondents strongly agree that when they make mistakes their principal rebukes them and takes note, 35.33% of teachers agree that when they make mistakes their principal rebukes them and takes note, 31.00% of respondents disagree that when they make mistakes their principal rebukes them and takes note, and finally 8.33% of teachers strongly disagree that when they make mistakes their principal rebukes them and takes note.

Table 19: distribution of teachers who think that their principal thinks highly of them

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 66 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 22.0 |
| agree | 76 | 25.3 | 25.3 | 47.3 |
| disagree | 119 | 39.7 | 39.7 | 87.0 |
| strongly disagree | 39 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

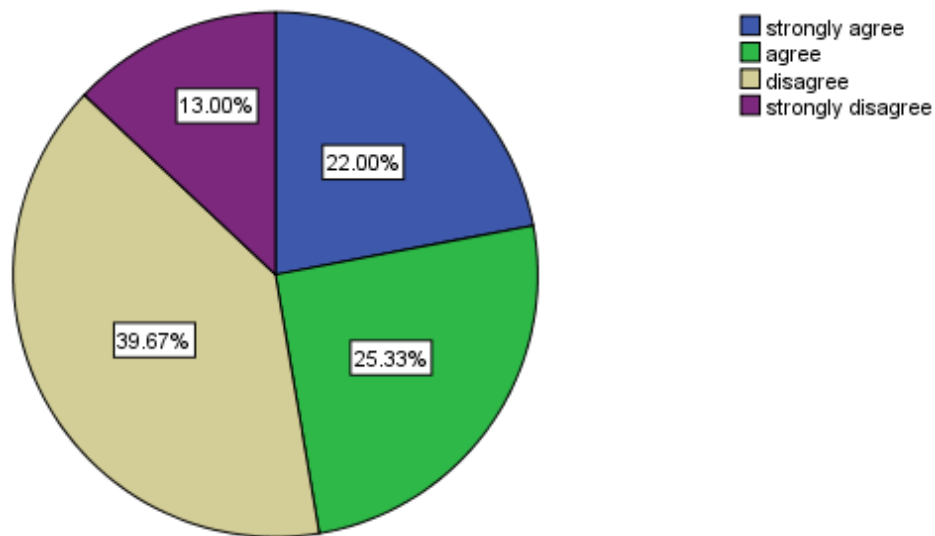


Figure 20: distribution of teachers who think that their principal thinks highly of them

Figure 20 above represents teachers' responses as to whether their principal thinks highly of them. From the above analysed data 22.00% of teachers strongly agree that their principals think of highly of them, 25.33% of population agree that their principals think of highly of them, 39.67% of teachers of the total population disagree that their principals think of highly of them, and 13.00% of teachers from the total population strongly disagree that their principals think of highly of them. This brings us to the conclusion that 47.33% of the total population agree that their principal thinks highly of them and 52.67% of the rest of the population disagree to the fact that their principals do not think highly of them.

Table 20: Distribution of teachers as to whether principal aims too high

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 74 | 24.7 | 24.7 | 24.7 |
| agree | 116 | 38.7 | 38.7 | 63.3 |
| disagree | 91 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 93.7 |
| strongly disagree | 19 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

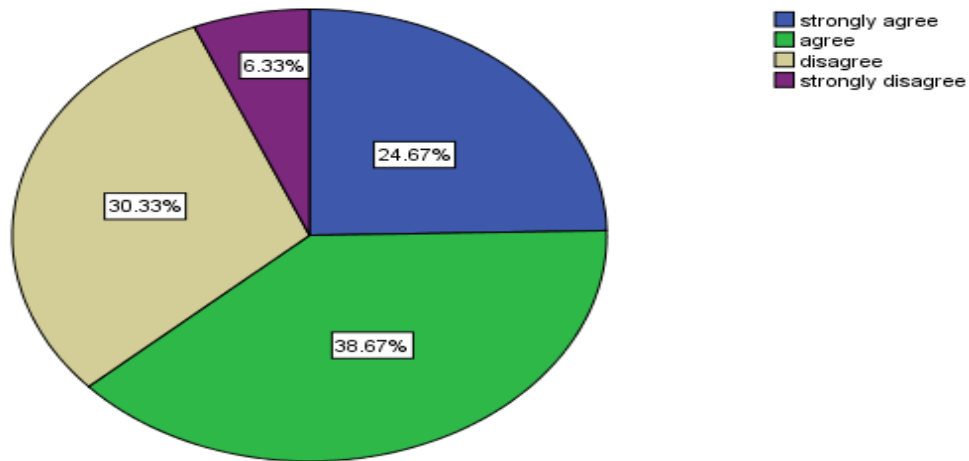


Figure 21: Distribution of teachers as to whether principal aims too high

Figure 21 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether their principal aims too high. From the pie chart above we can clearly see that 24.67% of respondents strongly agree that their principal aims too high, 38.67% of respondents agree that their principal aims too high, 30.33% of respondents disagree that their principal aims too high and finally we have 6.33% of respondents strongly disagree that their principal aims too high. We can therefore conclude from the above data that 63.34% of the total numbers of respondents are for the fact their principal aims too high and 36.66% of the remaining population are for the fact that their principal does not aim too high.

Table 21: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure to finish my paper work

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 60 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 20.0 |
| agree | 150 | 50.0 | 50.0 | 70.0 |
| disagree | 44 | 14.7 | 14.7 | 84.7 |
| strongly disagree | 46 | 15.3 | 15.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Table 20 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure on teachers to finish their work.

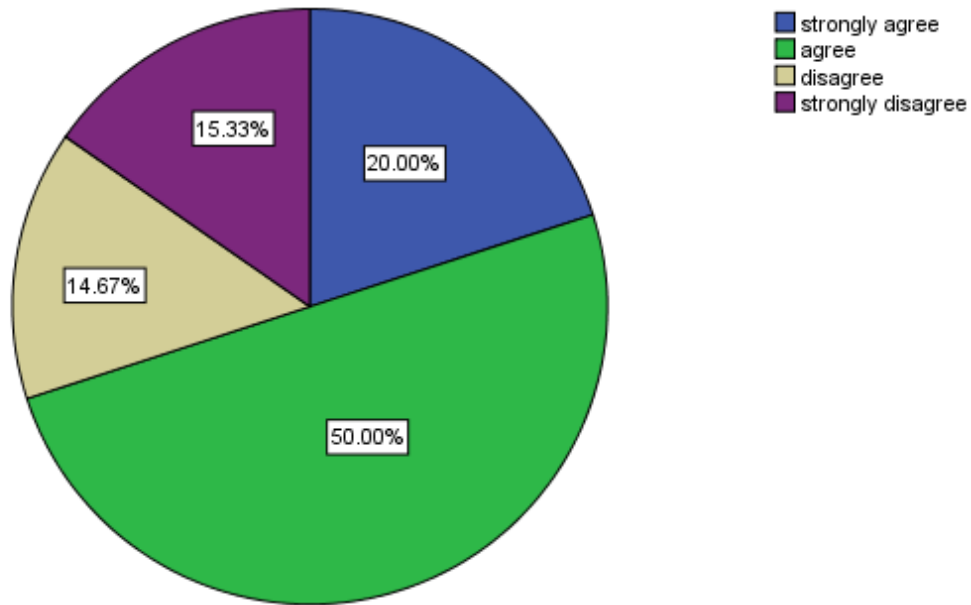


Figure 22: distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure to finish my paper work

Figure 22 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether the principal puts a lot of pressure on teachers to finish their paper work. 20.00% of respondents strongly agree that their principal puts pressure on them to finish paper work, 50.00% of respondents agree that their principal mounts a lot of pressure on them to complete their paper work, 14.67% respondents disagree to the fact that their principal mounts pressure on them to finish their paper work and finally 15.33 % of respondents strongly disagree that their principals mount a lot of pressure on them to finish their paper work.

Table 22: Distribution of teachers as to whether they think the principal does not trust anyone of us teachers

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 68 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 22.7 |
| Agree | 91 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 53.0 |
| Valid Disagree | 103 | 34.3 | 34.3 | 87.3 |
| strongly disagree | 38 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

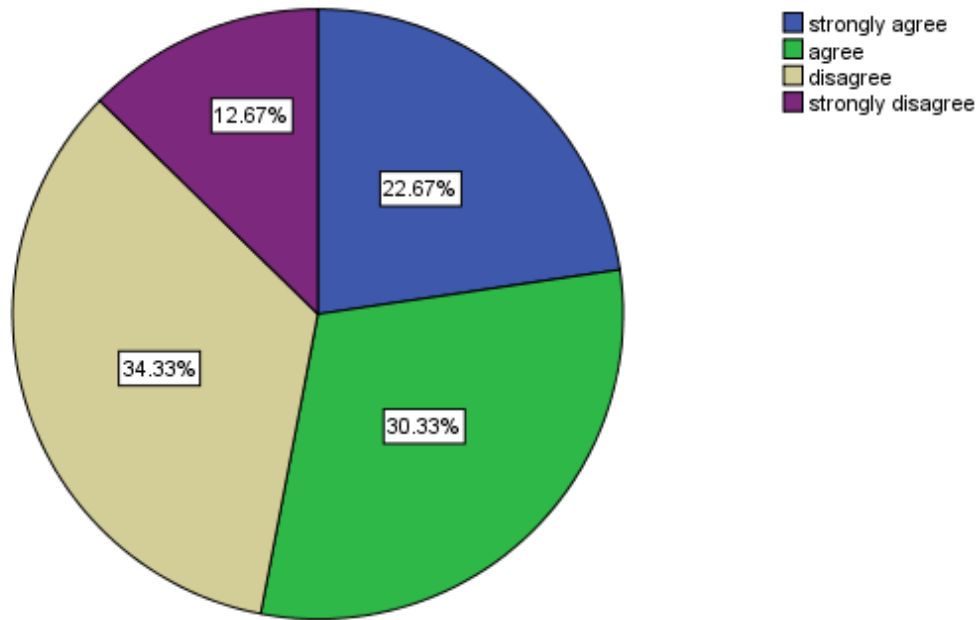


Figure 23: Distribution of teachers as to whether they think the principal does not trust anyone of us teachers

Figure 23 above shows the distribution of teachers who strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree as to whether their principal has trust for them. From the total population of teachers who responded to the questionnaire, 22.67% of the respondents strongly agree that the principal does not trust them, 30.33% of respondents agree that the principal does not trust them, 34.33 of respondents disagree that the principal does not trust them and 12.67% of respondents strongly disagree that the principal does not trust them.

Table 23: distribution of teachers as to whether my principal is a good coach

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 61 | 20.3 | 20.3 | 20.3 |
| agree | 98 | 32.7 | 32.7 | 53.0 |
| Valid disagree | 83 | 27.7 | 27.7 | 80.7 |
| strongly disagree | 58 | 19.3 | 19.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

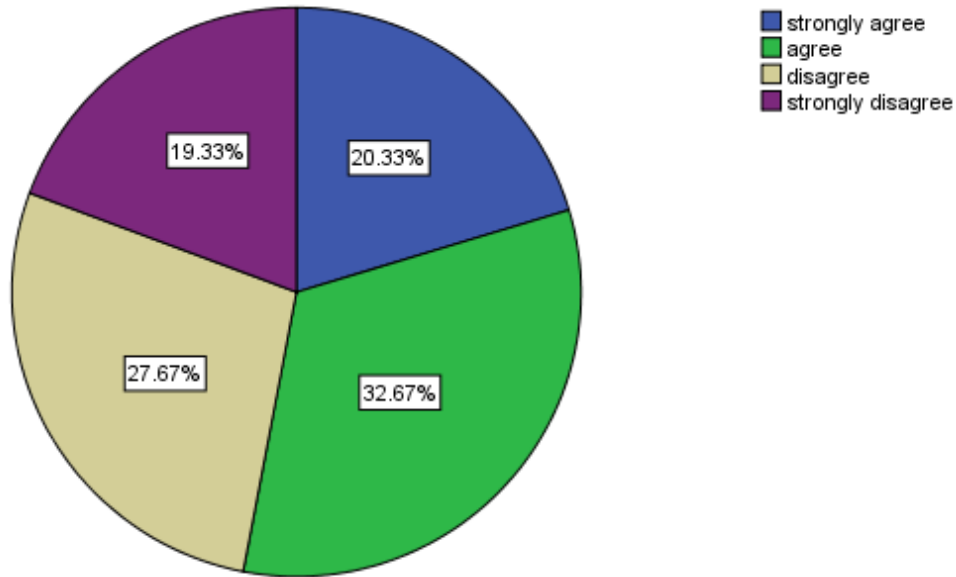


Figure 24: distribution of teachers as to whether my principal is a good coach

Having a coach as a principal has most often been a vital part as concerns a teachers' output. From figure 24 above we have the distribution of teachers according to whether the principal is a good coach. 20.33% strongly agree that their principal is a good coach, 32.67% agree that their principal is a good coach, 27.67% disagree that their principal is a good coach and 19.33% strongly disagree that their principal is a good coach. This gives above 50% of teachers who think their principal is a good coach.

Table 24: distribution of respondents as to whether coaching helps me to be committed and enables me do things I think I could not do

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 82 | 27.3 | 27.3 | 27.3 |
| agree | 134 | 44.7 | 44.7 | 72.0 |
| Valid disagree | 67 | 22.3 | 22.3 | 94.3 |
| strongly disagree | 17 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

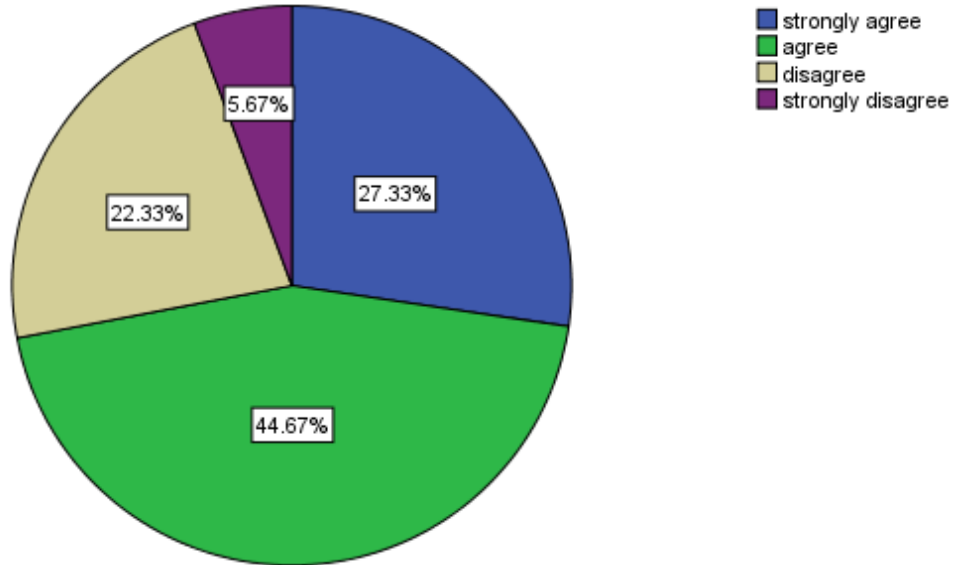


Figure 25: distribution of respondents as to whether coaching helps me to be committed and enables me do things I think I could not do

Figure 25 above shows the distribution of respondents who responded as to whether coaching helps them to be committed and enables them do things they think they cannot do. From the table above 27.33% strongly agree that their performance is enhanced when coached, 44.67% agree that coaching helps them to be committed and enables them to do things they think they cannot do, 22.33% of respondents disagree that coaching helps them to be committed and to do things they think they cannot do, and finally 5.67% of teachers strongly disagree that coaching helps them do things they could not do. This therefore brings us to a total of 28 % who are not for the fact that coaching helps them to be committed and to things they think they cannot do living a greater percentage for the opposite

Table 25: distribution of respondents according to whether my principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process and do what they want

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 71 | 23.7 | 23.7 | 23.7 |
| agree | 88 | 29.3 | 29.3 | 53.0 |
| Valid disagree | 86 | 28.7 | 28.7 | 81.7 |
| strongly disagree | 55 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

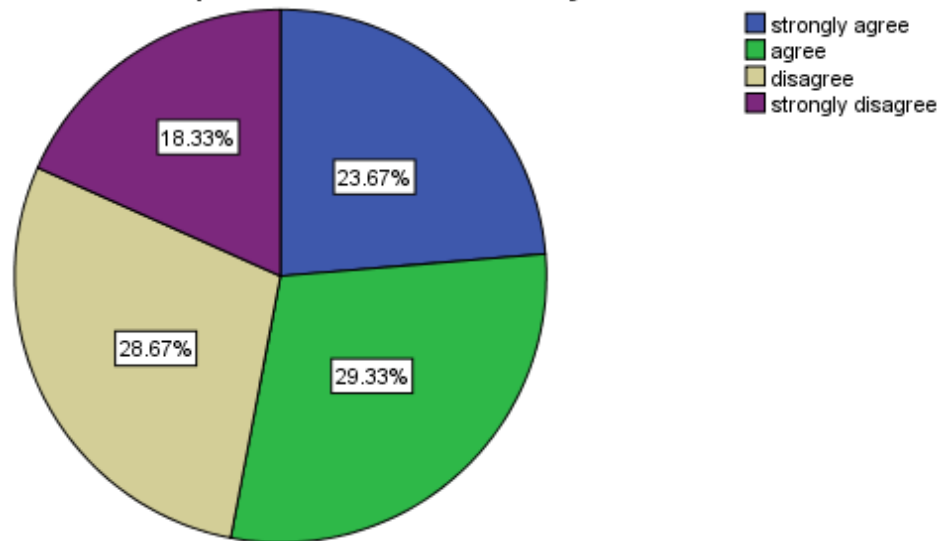


Figure 26: distribution of respondents according to whether my principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process and do what they want

Figure 26 shows the distribution of respondent as to whether principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of process of teaching and do what they want for a better teaching outcome. 23.67% of respondents strongly agree that principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process, 29.33% of respondents agree that principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process, 28.67% of respondents disagree that principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process, and 18.33% of respondents strongly disagree that principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process.

Table 26: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 30 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 |
| agree | 108 | 36.0 | 36.0 | 46.0 |
| Valid disagree | 115 | 38.3 | 38.3 | 84.3 |
| strongly disagree | 47 | 15.7 | 15.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

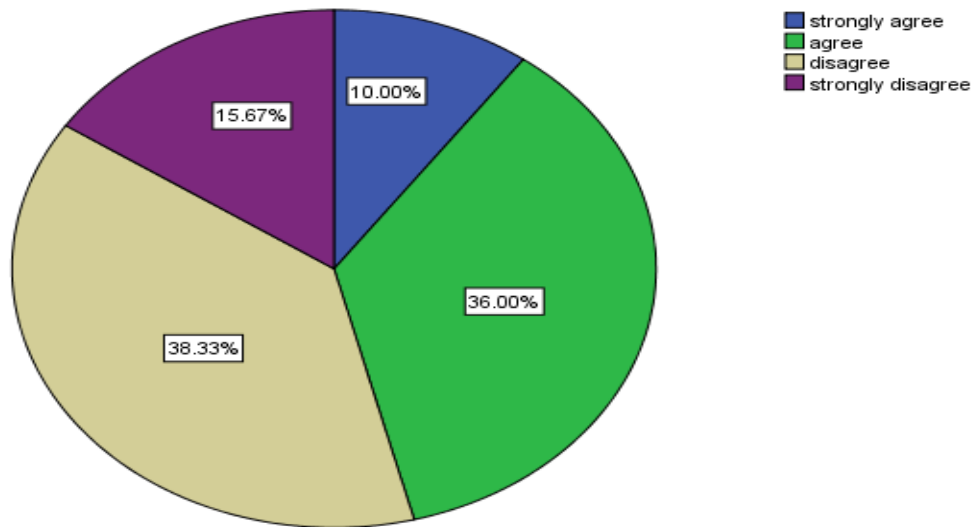


Figure 27: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it

Figure 27 shows the distribution of teachers as to whether the principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it. 10.00% of the teachers strongly agree that principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it, 36.00% of teachers agree that principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it, 38.33% of teachers of the total population disagree that principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it, and 15.67% of the teachers strongly disagree that principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it. This brings us to a conclusion that 46% of teachers of the total population are for the fact that their principal allows teachers to determine what needs to be done and how to do it.

Table 27: distribution of respondents as to whether i know more about their jobs so I do what I want whenever I want to

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 18 | 6.0 | 6.0 | 6.0 |
| agree | 70 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 29.3 |
| Valid disagree | 143 | 47.7 | 47.7 | 77.0 |
| strongly disagree | 69 | 23.0 | 23.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

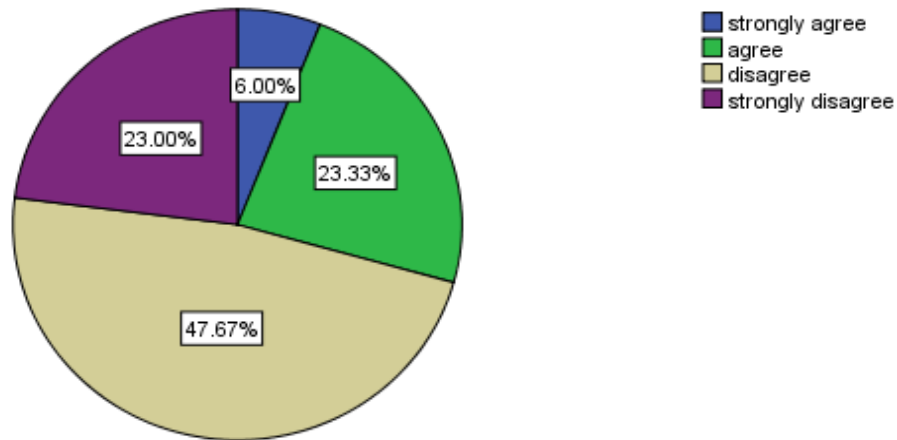


Figure 28: distribution of respondents as to whether i know more about their jobs so I do what I want whenever I want to

Figure 28 shows the distribution of respondents as to whether they know jobs of the principal better so they do what they want whenever they want as teachers. 6.00% of respondents strongly agree that they know their jobs better than the principal so they do what they want whenever they want, 23.33% of respondents agree that they know their jobs better than the principal so they do what they want whenever they want, 47.67% of respondents disagree that they know their jobs better than the principal so they do what they want whenever they want, and 23.00% of respondents strongly agree that they know their jobs better than the principal so they do what they want whenever they want. This brings us to the conclusion that 70.67% respondents admit that they cannot perform the duty of the principal

Table 28: distribution of respondents as to whether each teacher is responsible for defining his or her job

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | strongly agree | 58 | 19.3 | 19.3 | 19.3 |
| | agree | 63 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 40.3 |
| | disagree | 91 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 70.7 |
| | strongly disagree | 88 | 29.3 | 29.3 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

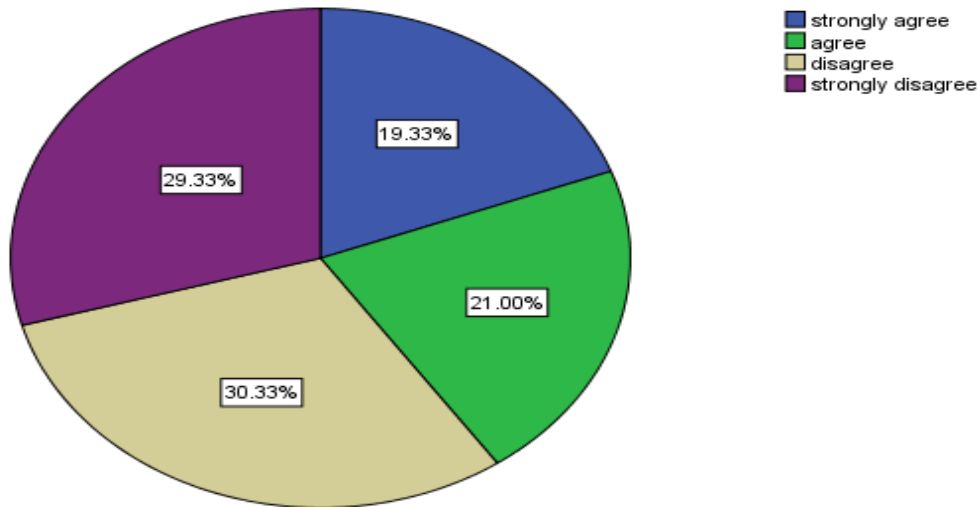


Figure 29: distribution of respondents as to whether each teacher is responsible for defining his or her job

Figure 29 above is a representation of teachers' responses as to whether each teacher is responsible for defining his/her job limits. From the data presented above 19.33% of teachers responded strongly agree that each teacher is responsible for defining the job limits, 21.00% of teachers agree that each teacher is responsible for defining the job limits, 30.33% of teachers disagree that each teacher is responsible for defining the job limits, and finally 29.33% of respondents strongly disagree that each teacher is responsible for defining the job limits

Table 29: distribution of teachers according to my principal abandons his responsibility to us

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 45 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 15.0 |
| agree | 71 | 23.7 | 23.7 | 38.7 |
| Valid disagree | 122 | 40.7 | 40.7 | 79.3 |
| strongly disagree | 62 | 20.7 | 20.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

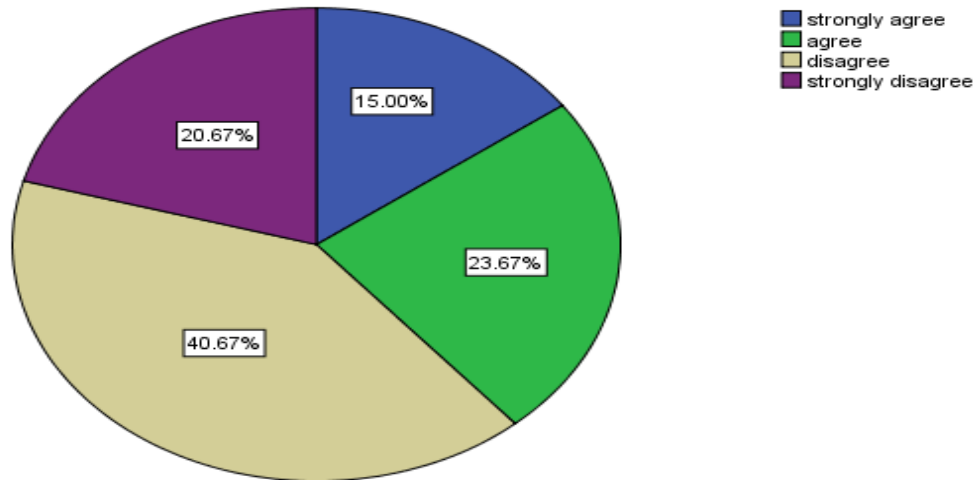


Figure 30: distribution of teachers according to my principal abandons his responsibility to us

One of the most common characteristics of the laissez-faire leadership style is the abandonment of work to others. Figure 30 above shows the distribution of teachers as to whether the principal abandons their responsibility. 15.00% of respondents strongly agree that the principal abandons responsibility to the teacher, 23.67% of the teachers from the total population agree that that the principal abandons responsibility to the teacher, 40.67 of teachers from the total population disagree that the principal abandons responsibility to the teacher, and 20.67% of teachers from the total population strongly disagree that the principal abandons responsibility to the teacher. From the above data we can say that more than half of the entire population 61.34% disagree that the principal abandons his responsibility to teachers living a smaller of percentage 38.66%.

Table 30: distribution of respondents as to whether every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 36 | 12.0 | 12.0 | 12.0 |
| agree | 113 | 37.7 | 37.7 | 49.7 |
| Valid disagree | 79 | 26.3 | 26.3 | 76.0 |
| strongly disagree | 72 | 24.0 | 24.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

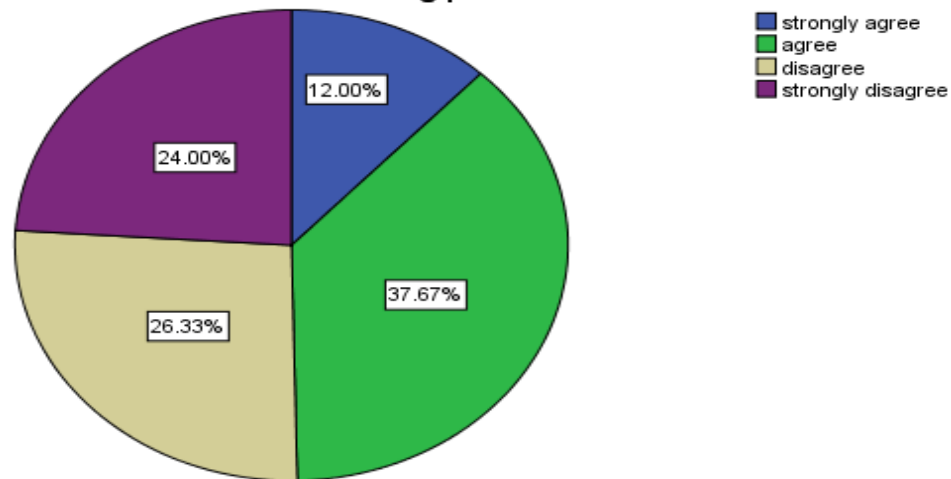


Figure 31: distribution of respondents as to whether every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process

Figure 31 above shows the distribution of teachers as to whether the teacher has the right to determine their own objective in the teaching and learning process. According to the data displayed above, 12.00% of respondents strongly agree that every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process, 37.67% of respondents agree that every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process, 26.33% of respondents disagree that every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process, 24.00% of respondents strongly disagree that every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process.

Table 31: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows me to set my own deadlines for work

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 25 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 8.3 |
| agree | 57 | 19.0 | 19.0 | 27.3 |
| Valid disagree | 148 | 49.3 | 49.3 | 76.7 |
| strongly disagree | 70 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

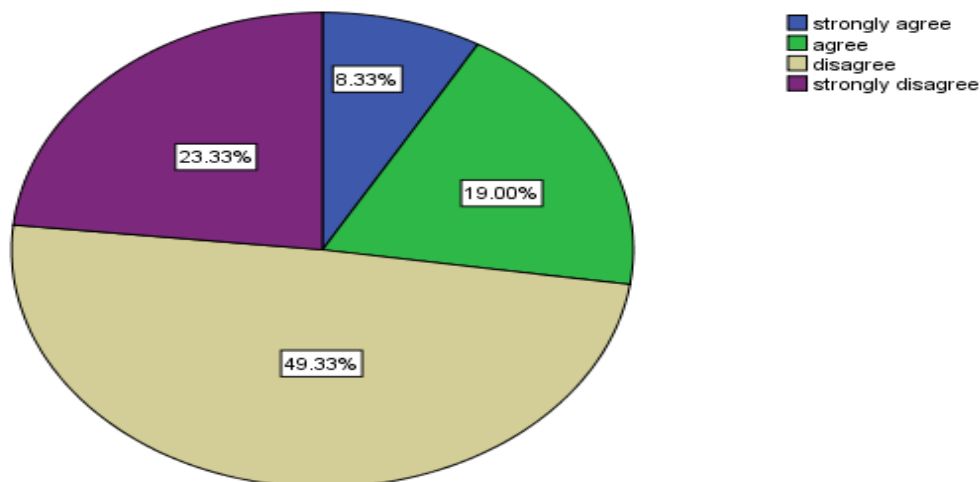


Figure 32: distribution of respondents as to whether my principal allows me to set my own deadlines for work

Figure 32 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether the principal allows teachers set their own deadlines for work. This is one of the major characteristics of the laissez-faire leadership style where work is abandoned in the hands of subordinates. From the data presented above, clearly represented in the pie chat, we have 8.33% of respondents strongly agree that the principal allows teachers to set their own deadlines for work, 19.00% of respondents agree that the principal allows teachers to set their own deadlines for work, 49.33% of respondents disagree that the principal allows teachers to set their own deadlines for work, 23.33% of respondents strongly disagree that the principal allows teachers to set their own deadlines for work. From the above data more than half of the respondents represented by 72.66% of the total population are not for the fact that the principal allows teachers set their own deadlines for work.

Table 32: distribution of teachers as to whether I communicate well during my lessons especially when I am in good terms with my principal

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 45 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 15.0 |
| agree | 117 | 39.0 | 39.0 | 54.0 |
| Valid disagree | 38 | 12.7 | 12.7 | 66.7 |
| strongly disagree | 100 | 33.3 | 33.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

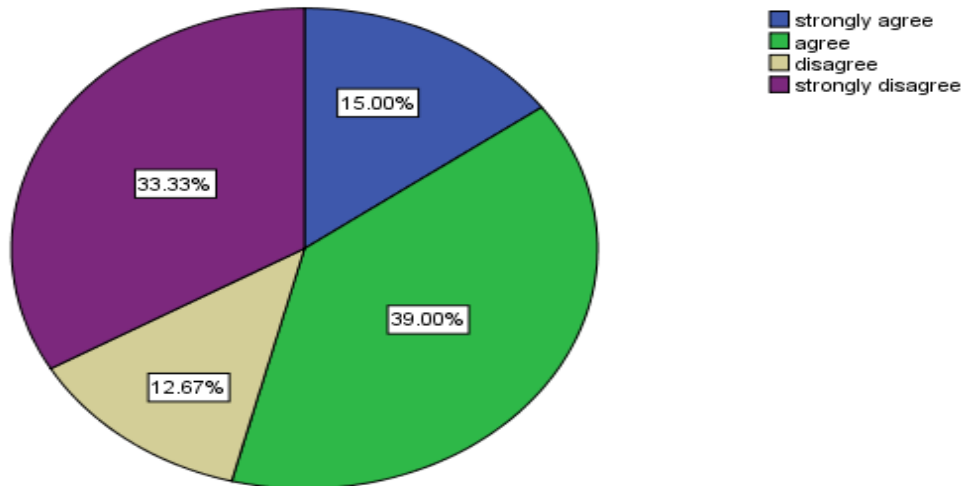


Figure 33: distribution of teachers as to whether I communicate well during my lessons especially when I am in good terms with my principal

Above (figure 33) we have the distribution of teachers as to whether they communicate well during their lesson especially when in good terms with principal. From the data presented above 15.00%strongly agree that they communicate well during their lesson especially when in good terms with principal, 39.00% of respondents agree that they communicate well during their lesson especially when in good terms with principal, 12.67% of respondents disagree that they communicate well during their lesson especially when in good terms with principal, and finally we have 33.33% of respondents who strongly disagree that they communicate well during their lesson especially when in good terms with principal. This brings us to a conclusion that most teachers deliver lessons properly (54%) when they are in good terms with their principal.

Table 33: distribution of teachers as to whether work load is lifted when I am involved in the decision making process of the school

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 63 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 21.0 |
| agree | 138 | 46.0 | 46.0 | 67.0 |
| Valid disagree | 77 | 25.7 | 25.7 | 92.7 |
| strongly disagree | 22 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

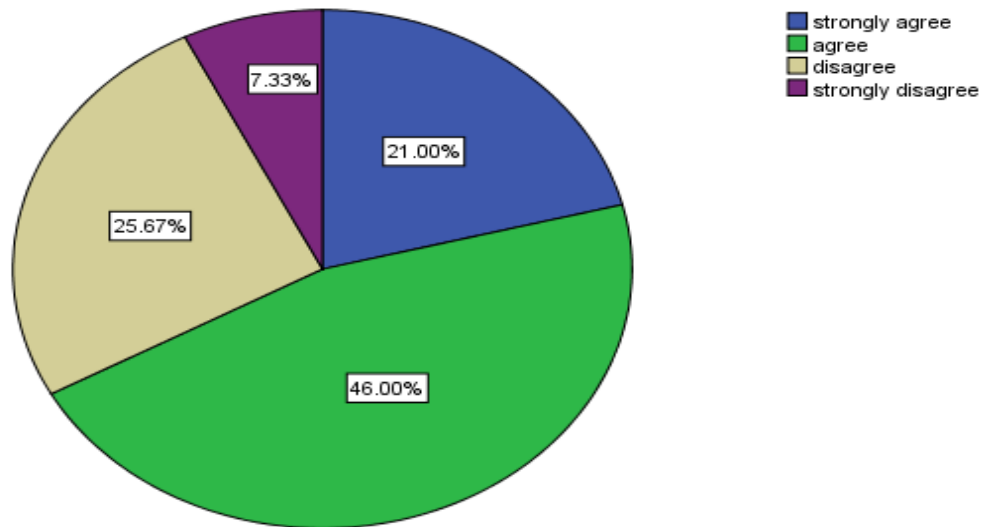


Figure 34: distribution of teachers as to whether work load is lifted when I am involved in the decision making process of the school

Decision making has always been a vital part of the teaching and learning process. Figure 34 above shows the distribution of teachers as to whether being part of the decision making process of the school, reduces the work load. 21.00% of teachers strongly agree that being part of the decision making process of the school reduces the work load, 46.00% of teachers according to the data provided above agree that being part of the decision making process of the school, reduces the work load, 25.67% of teachers disagree that being part of the decision making process of the school, reduces the work load and 7.33% of teachers strongly disagree that being part of the decision making process of the school, reduces the work load.

Table 34: distribution of teachers according to whether they carry out my duties as a teacher properly when the duties are well spelled out by my principal

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 78 | 26.0 | 26.0 | 26.0 |
| agree | 114 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 64.0 |
| Valid disagree | 84 | 28.0 | 28.0 | 92.0 |
| strongly disagree | 24 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

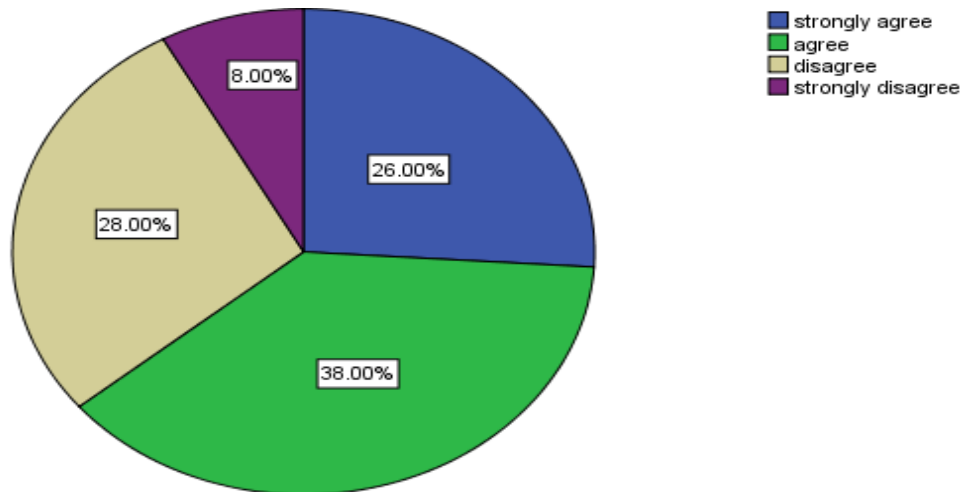


Figure 35: distribution of teachers according to whether they carry out my duties as a teacher properly when the duties are well spelled out by my principal

Figure 35 represents the distribution of teachers according to whether their duties are carried out properly when the duties are well spelled out by the principal. 26.00% of teachers strongly agree that when their duties are well spelled out by principal duties are properly carried out, 38.00% of teachers agree that when their duties are well spelled out by principal duties are properly carried out, 28.00% of teachers disagree that when their duties are well spelled out by principal duties are properly carried out, and 8.00% of teachers strongly disagree that when their duties are well spelled out by principal duties are properly carried out. Conclusion, most teachers (64%) perform their duties better when well spelled out by the principal.

Table 35: distribution of teacher as to whether being coached by my principal makes me perform better in class

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 69 | 23.0 | 23.0 | 23.0 |
| agree | 105 | 35.0 | 35.0 | 58.0 |
| Valid disagree | 99 | 33.0 | 33.0 | 91.0 |
| strongly disagree | 27 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

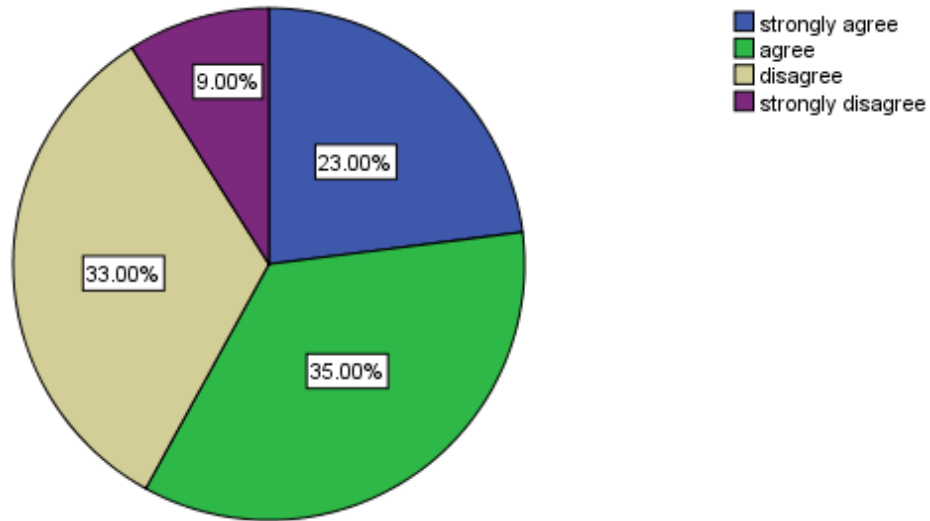


Figure 36: distribution of teacher as to whether being coached by my principal makes me perform better in class

Figure 36 is a representation of data on whether being coached by their principal makes them perform better. 23.00% of respondents strongly agree that being coached by their principal makes their performance better, 35.00% of respondents agree that being coached by their principal makes their performance better, 33.00% of respondents disagree that being coached by their principal makes their performance better, and 9.00% of respondents strongly disagree that being coached by their principal makes their performance better.

Table 36: distribution of teachers as to whether they love a supportive principal

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 85 | 28.3 | 28.3 | 28.3 |
| agree | 94 | 31.3 | 31.3 | 59.7 |
| Valid disagree | 90 | 30.0 | 30.0 | 89.7 |
| strongly disagree | 31 | 10.3 | 10.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

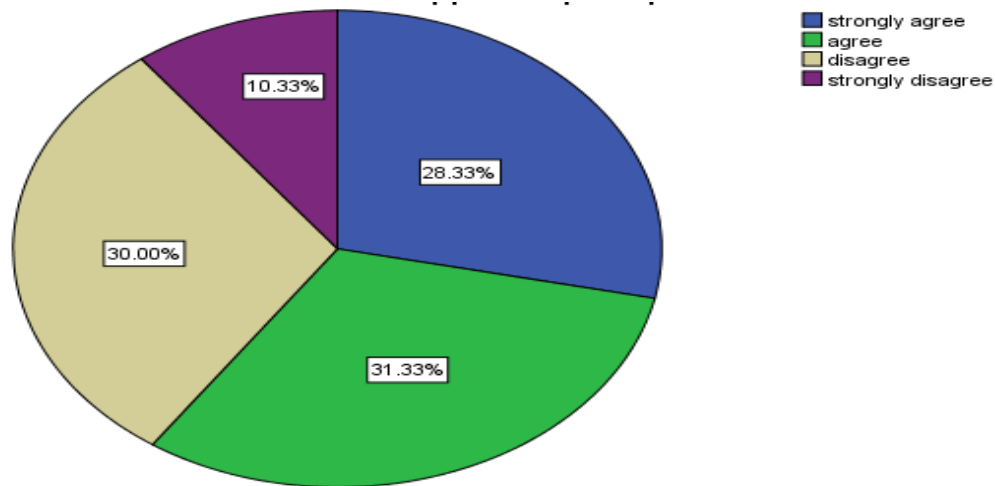


Figure 37: distribution of teachers as to whether they love a supportive principal

Having a supportive principal can be one of the great pillars of a teacher figure 35 produces data that support this hypothesis. From the data presented in figure 4.36 above 28.33% of teachers strongly agree that the love a supportive principal, 31.33% of teachers agree that they love a supportive principal, 30.00% of teachers disagree that they love a supportive principal and 10.33% of teachers strongly disagree that they love a supportive principal. Conclusion from the above data is 59.66% of teachers love to have a supportive principal, this is a little above half the population of teacher as compared to 40.33% of the remaining population.

Table 37: distribution of respondents as to whether they wish they could communicate with my principal in a proper way

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 92 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 30.7 |
| agree | 100 | 33.3 | 33.3 | 64.0 |
| Valid disagree | 73 | 24.3 | 24.3 | 88.3 |
| strongly disagree | 35 | 11.7 | 11.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

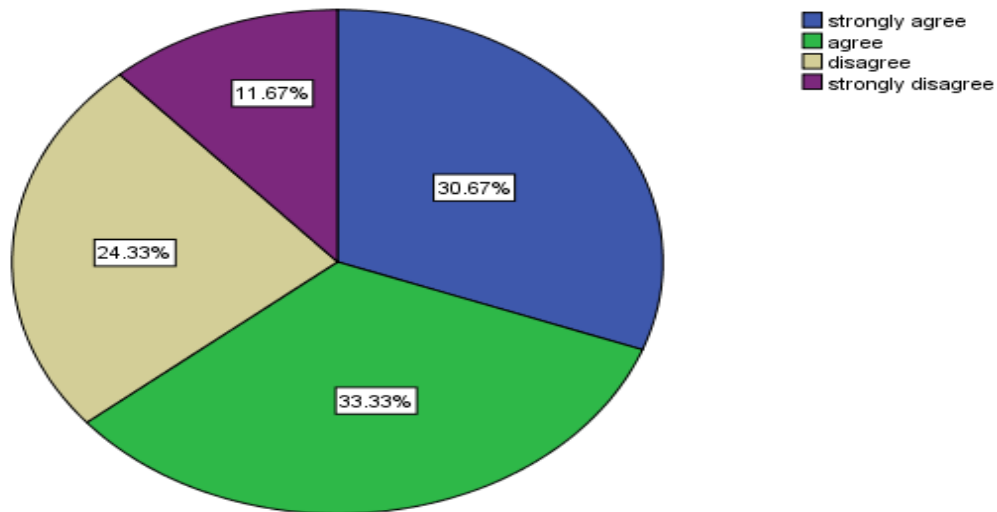


Figure 38: distribution of respondents as to whether they wish they could communicate with my principal in a proper way

Figure 38 above is a vivid description of teachers as to whether they wish to communicate with their principal in a proper way. 30.67% of the respondents strongly agree that they prefer a proper communication with their principal, 33.33% of teachers agree that they prefer a proper communication with their principal, 24.33% of teachers disagree that they prefer a proper communication with their principal, and 11.67% who strongly disagree that they prefer a proper communication with their principal.

Table 38: distribution of respondents as to whether to feel discouraged to carry task each time my principal orders me around

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 95 | 31.7 | 31.7 | 31.7 |
| agree | 128 | 42.7 | 42.7 | 74.3 |
| disagree | 55 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 92.7 |
| strongly disagree | 22 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

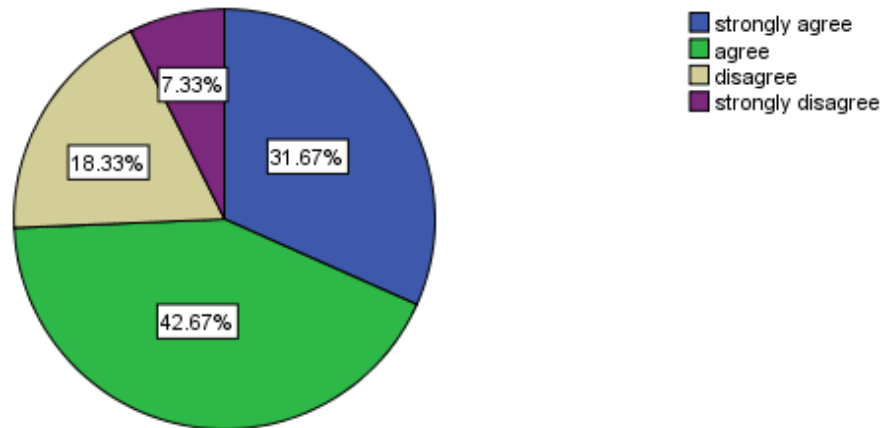


Figure 39: distribution of respondents as to whether to feel discouraged to carry task each time my principal orders me around

Figure 39 above shows the distribution of respondents as to whether teachers feel discouraged to carry task each time the principal orders them around. 31.67% of the respondents strongly agree that they feel discouraged to carry task each time the principal orders them around, 42.67% of respondents agree that they feel discouraged to carry task each time the principal orders them around, 18.33% disagree that they feel discouraged to carry task each time the principal orders them around and 7.33 of respondents feel discouraged to carry task each time the principal orders them around. This leaves us with a total of 74.34 % of the total population agree that they do not appeal to a principal who orders them around.

Table 39: distribution of teachers as to whether they feel discouraged to teach when my principal takes decision without me

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| strongly agree | 68 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 22.7 |
| agree | 96 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 54.7 |
| Valid disagree | 100 | 33.3 | 33.3 | 88.0 |
| strongly disagree | 36 | 12.0 | 12.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 300 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

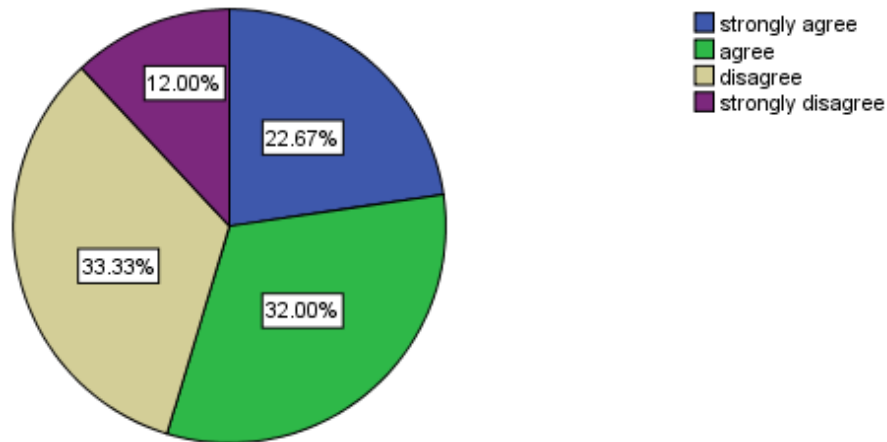


Figure 40: distribution of teachers as to whether they feel discouraged to teach when my principal takes decision without me

Figure 40 is a presentation of data showing whether teachers feel discouraged to teach when the principal takes decisions without them. The pie chart is a visual presentation of the data showing 22.67% of teachers who strongly agree that they feel discouraged when the principal takes decisions without them, 32.00% of teachers agree that they feel discouraged when the principal takes decisions without them, 33.33% of teachers disagree that they feel discouraged when the principal takes decisions without them, and finally 12.00% of respondents strongly disagree that they feel discouraged when the principal takes decisions without them.

Verification of hypothesis and inferential statistics

In this section, each of the hypotheses of the study is restated and the variables are identified. The statistics needed to test each hypothesis is stated and the results of the data analysis are presented and interpreted. Each hypothesis is tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Hypothesis one

- ❖ Alternative Hypothesis (H1): there is a significant relationship between transformational orientation of school leader and the output of the teacher
- ❖ Statistical Hypothesis (H0): there is no significant relationship between transformational orientation of school leader and the output of the teacher

Calculation with Chi Square

Table 40: A contingency table showing the transformational orientation of school leader and teachers performance

Transformational leaders * teachers performance Cross tabulation
Count

| | | Teachers performance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | total | |
|------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | 8.00 | 11.00 | 12.00 | 13.00 | 14.00 | 15.00 | 16.00 | 17.00 | 18.00 | 19.00 | 20.00 | 21.00 | 22.00 | 23.00 | 24.00 | 25.00 | | 26.00 |
| Democratic | 9.00 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| | 10.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| | 11.00 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 6 |
| | 12.00 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 19 | 19 |
| | 13.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 12 |
| | 14.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 11 |
| | 15.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 16 | 16 |
| | 16.00 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 65 | 65 |
| | 17.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 10 |
| | 18.00 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 26 |
| | 19.00 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 5 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 36 |
| | 20.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 11 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 53 | 53 |
| | 21.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 7 |
| | 22.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 18 |
| | 23.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 6 |
| | 24.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| Total | 5 | 21 | 1 | 5 | 19 | 7 | 44 | 16 | 60 | 26 | 18 | 15 | 12 | 22 | 25 | 3 | 1 | 300 | |

Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 1255.828 ^a | 240 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 597.631 | 240 | .000 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | 41.609 | 1 | .000 |
| N of Valid Cases | 300 | | |

a. 263 cells (96.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

Choice of significant alpha = 0.05 or 5%

Determining the critical value of chi square:

- Degree of freedom is = $(C - 1) (r - 1)$
Therefore, $(17 - 1) (16 - 1) = 16 \times 15 = 204$
- The critical value of chi square with 240 as degree of freedom at the alpha 0.05 level of significance 233.994

This value is compared with the calculated value to make a decision about the hypothesis.

The calculated value of chi square is 1255.828

Thus, the calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square.

Decision rule

If the calculated value of chi square is greater than the chi square read, then we reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and accept the alternative hypothesis (Ha).

Decision

The calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square and it falls in the rejected zone of the null hypothesis. In this regard, we reject the Ho and accept the Ha. Since the Ho is rejected, we have to determine the quality or magnitude of the relationship. In order to do this, we use the contingency coefficient which is expressed as follows:

$$C_c =$$

Where n is the sample size and X² is the chi square calculated:

$$\text{Therefore, } C_c =$$

$$1255.828 / \sqrt{1255.828 + 300} =$$

$$1255.828 / 1555.828 = .807$$

Since the data indicate a positive relationship between the two variables, to be positive, we have

$$C_c = .807 = 0.81$$

With respect to the rule, when the coefficient is at 0, it means that there is no relation between the two variables. When the coefficient is less than 0 (that is between -1 and -0.1), it means that there is a negative relationship between the variables. When the calculated coefficient falls between 0.01 and 1, then there is a positive relationship. Thus, the general range lies between -1 and 1. In order to determine the various ranges to judge the magnitude or strength of the relationship, the following scale can be computed:

$C_{max} =$

Where C_{max} = Contingency maximum

K = lowest level of contingency (rows or columns)

Therefore, $C_{max} = \sqrt{.804} = .90$

Based on the chi square analyses above, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .81 and the contingency maximum is .90 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between democratic leadership style and teachers' performance.

Hypothesis two

- ❖ Alternative Hypothesis (H1): there is a significant relationship between transmission orientation of leaders and the output of the teacher
- ❖ Statistical Hypothesis (H0): there is no significant relationship between transmission orientation of leaders and the output of the teacher

Calculation with Chi Square

Table 41: A contingency table showing transmission orientation of leaders and teachers performance

Transmission leaders * teachers performance Cross tabulation
Count

| | | Teachers performance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| | | 8.00 | 11.00 | 12.00 | 13.00 | 14.00 | 15.00 | 16.00 | 17.00 | 18.00 | 19.00 | 20.00 | 21.00 | 22.00 | 23.00 | 24.00 | 25.00 | 26.00 | |
| authoritarian | 9.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| | 10.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | 12.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| | 13.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | 14.00 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 19 | 19 |
| | 15.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 30 |
| | 16.00 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 54 | 54 |
| | 17.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 30 |
| | 18.00 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 39 | 39 |
| | 19.00 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 27 | 2 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 66 | 66 |
| | 20.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 26 |
| | 21.00 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 19 | 19 |
| | 22.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| Total | 5 | 21 | 1 | 5 | 19 | 7 | 44 | 16 | 60 | 26 | 18 | 15 | 12 | 22 | 25 | 3 | 1 | 300 | |

Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|----------------------|-----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 844.841 ^a | 192 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 503.329 | 192 | .000 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .278 | 1 | .598 |
| N of Valid Cases | 300 | | |

a. 210 cells (95.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Choice of significant alpha = 0.05 or 5%

Determining the critical value of chi square:

- Degree of freedom is = $(C - 1) (r - 1)$
Therefore, $(17 - 1) (13 - 1) = 16 \times 12 = 192$
- The critical value of chi square with 192 as degree of freedom at the alpha 0.05 level of significance 212.303

This value is compared with the calculated value to make a decision about the hypothesis.

The calculated value of chi square is 844.841

Thus, the calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square.

Decision rule

If the calculated value of chi square is greater than the chi square read, then we reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and accept the alternative hypothesis (Ha).

Decision

The calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square and it falls in the rejected zone of the null hypothesis. In this regard, we reject the Ho and accept the Ha. Since the Ho is rejected, we have to determine the quality or magnitude of the relationship. In order to do this, we use the contingency coefficient which is expressed as follows:

$$C_c =$$

Where n is the sample size and X² is the chi square calculated;

$$\text{Therefore, } C_c =$$

$$844.841 / \sqrt{844.841 + 300} =$$

$$844.841 / 1144.841 = .737$$

Since the data indicate a positive relationship between the two variables, to be positive, we have

$$C_c = .737 = 0.74$$

With respect to the rule, when the coefficient is at 0, it means that there is no relation between the two variables. When the coefficient is less than 0 (that is between -1 and -0.1), it means that there is a negative relationship between the variables. When the calculated coefficient falls between 0.01 and 1, then there is a positive relationship. Thus, the general range lies between -1 and 1. In order to determine the various ranges to judge the magnitude or strength of the relationship, the following scale can be computed:

$C_{max} =$

Where C_{max} = Contingency maximum

K = lowest level of contingency (rows or columns)

Therefore, $C_{max} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K}} = .86$

Based on the chi square analyses above, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .74 and the contingency maximum is .86 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between transmission orientation of leaders and teachers performance.

Hypothesis three

- ❖ Alternative Hypothesis (H1): there is a significant relationship between pacesetting orientation of school leaders and the output of the teacher
- ❖ Statistical Hypothesis (H0): there is no significant relationship between pacesetting orientation of school leaders and the output of the teacher

Calculation with Chi Square

Table 42: A contingency table showing the pacesetting orientation of school leaders and teachers performance

Pacesetting leaders * teachers performance Cross tabulation

| | | Count | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | total | |
|-------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----|
| | | Teachers performance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 8.00 | 11.00 | 12.00 | 13.00 | 14.00 | 15.00 | 16.00 | 17.00 | 18.00 | 19.00 | 20.00 | 21.00 | 22.00 | 23.00 | 24.00 | 25.00 | 26.00 | |
| pacesetting | 6.00 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| | 7.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | 8.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| | 9.00 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 23 |
| | 10.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 |
| | 11.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| | 12.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 18 |
| | 13.00 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 15 | 3 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 52 |
| | 14.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 7 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 43 |
| | 15.00 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 10 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 56 |
| | 16.00 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 26 |
| | 17.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 9 |
| | 18.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 19 |
| 19.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 21 | |
| Total | | 5 | 21 | 1 | 5 | 19 | 7 | 44 | 16 | 60 | 26 | 18 | 15 | 12 | 22 | | 25 | 3 | 300 |

Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|----------------------|-----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 921.038 ^a | 208 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 542.450 | 208 | .000 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .465 | 1 | .495 |
| N of Valid Cases | 300 | | |

a. 231 cells (97.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Choice of significant alpha = 0.05 or 5%

Determining the critical value of chi square:

- Degree of freedom is = $(C - 1) (r - 1)$
Therefore, $(17 - 1) (14 - 1) = 16 \times 13 = 208$
- The critical value of chi square with 208 as degree of freedom at the alpha 0.05 level of significance 233.994

This value is compared with the calculated value to make a decision about the hypothesis.

The calculated value of chi square is 921.028

Thus, the calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square.

Decision rule

If the calculated value of chi square is greater than the chi square read, then we reject the null hypothesis (Ho) and accept the alternative hypothesis (Ha).

Decision

The calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square and it falls in the rejected zone of the null hypothesis. In this regard, we reject the Ho and accept the Ha. Since the Ho is rejected, we have to determine the quality or magnitude of the relationship. In order to do this, we use the contingency coefficient which is expressed as follows:

$$C_c =$$

Where n is the sample size and X² is the chi square calculated;

$$\text{Therefore, } C_c =$$

$$921.038 / \sqrt{921.038 + 300} =$$

$$921.038 / 1221.038 = .754$$

Since the data indicate a positive relationship between the two variables, to be positive, we have

$$C_c = 0.75 = 0.75$$

With respect to the rule, when the coefficient is at 0, it means that there is no relation between the two variables. When the coefficient is less than 0 (that is between -1 and -0.1), it means that there is a negative relationship between the variables. When the calculated coefficient falls between 0.01 and 1, then there is a positive relationship. Thus, the general range lies between -1 and 1. In order to determine the various ranges to judge the magnitude or strength of the relationship, the following scale can be computed

$C_{max} =$

Where C_{max} = Contingency maximum

K = lowest level of contingency (rows or columns)

Therefore, $C_{max} = \sqrt{.754} = .87$

Based on the chi square analyses above, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .75 and the contingency maximum is .87 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between pacesetting leadership style and teachers performance.

Hypothesis four

- ❖ Alternative Hypothesis (H1): there is a significant relationship between transactional orientation of leaders and the output of the teacher
- ❖ Statistical Hypothesis (H0): there is no significant relationship between transactional orientation of leaders and the output of the teacher

Calculation with Chi Square

Table 43: A contingency table showing transactional orientation of leaders and teachers performance

Transactional leader * teachers performance Cross tabulation

Count

| | | Teachers performance | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | Total |
|---------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | 8.00 | 11.00 | 12.00 | 13.00 | 14.00 | 15.00 | 16.00 | 17.00 | 18.00 | 19.00 | 20.00 | 21.00 | 22.00 | 23.00 | 24.00 | 25.00 | 26.00 | |
| laisser-faire | 7.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | 10.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | 12.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 |
| | 13.00 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| | 14.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 16 |
| | 15.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 4 |
| | 16.00 | 5 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 52 |
| | 17.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 18 |
| | 18.00 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 | 0 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 27 |
| | 19.00 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 6 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 41 |
| | 20.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 7 | 1 | 6 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 28 |
| | 21.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 12 |
| | 22.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| | 23.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 21 |
| | 24.00 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 32 |
| | 25.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | 26.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 10 |
| 27.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | |
| Total | 5 | 21 | 1 | 5 | 19 | 7 | 44 | 16 | 60 | 26 | 18 | 15 | 12 | 22 | 25 | 3 | 1 | 300 | |

Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 1148.246 ^a | 272 | .000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 675.320 | 272 | .000 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .123 | 1 | .725 |
| N of Valid Cases | 300 | | |

a. 299 cells (97.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Choice of significant alpha = 0.05 or 5%

Determining the critical value of chi square:

- Degree of freedom is = $(C - 1) (r - 1)$

Therefore, $(17 - 1) (18 - 1) = 16 \times 17 = 272$

- The critical value of chi square with 272 as degree of freedom at the alpha 0.05 level of significance 287.881

This value is compared with the calculated value to make a decision about the hypothesis.

The calculated value of chi square is 1148.246

Thus, the calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square.

Decision rule

If the calculated value of chi square is greater than the chi square read, then we reject the null hypothesis (H_0) and accept the alternative hypothesis (H_a).

Decision

The calculated value of chi square is greater than the critical value of chi square and it falls in the rejected zone of the null hypothesis. In this regard, we reject the H_0 and accept the H_a . Since the H_0 is rejected, we have to determine the quality or magnitude of the relationship. In order to do this, we use the contingency coefficient which is expressed as follows:

$$C_c =$$

Where n is the sample size and X^2 is the chi square calculated;

Therefore, $C_c =$

$$1148.246 / \sqrt{1148.246 + 300} =$$

$$1148.246 / 1448.246 = .792$$

Since the data indicate a positive relationship between the two variables, to be positive, we have

$$C_c = 0.79$$

With respect to the rule, when the coefficient is at 0, it means that there is no relation between the two variables. When the coefficient is less than 0 (that is between -1 and -0.1), it means that there is a negative relationship between the variables. When the calculated coefficient falls between 0.01 and 1, then there is a positive relationship. Thus, the general range lies between -1 and 1. In order to determine the various ranges to judge the magnitude or strength of the relationship, the following scale can be computed:

$C_{max} =$

Where C_{max} = Contingency maximum

K = lowest level of contingency (rows or columns)

$$\text{Therefore, } C_{max} = \sqrt{.804} = .89$$

Based on the chi square analyses above, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .79 and the contingency maximum is .89 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between laissez faire leadership style and teachers performance.

Conclusion

The finding shows that only one of the three alternative hypotheses was accepted. The retained hypotheses state that there is a significant relationship between the transformational orientation of school principals and teachers efficiency.

On the hand, the alternative hypotheses on the transmissional and transactional orientation of school principals and teacher's efficiency were rejected and the null hypotheses retained. The null hypotheses retained stated that there is no significant relationship between transmission orientation of school administrators and teacher's efficiency; there is no significant relationship between transactional orientation of school principals and teacher's efficiency.

Though the variables on transmissional and transactional orientations were seen to have no relationship on teacher's efficiency while the transformational orientation of school principals has suggests that the use of democratic leadership impedes teachers' motivation to engage efficiently in their teaching profession. Principals administering transmissional orientation institution engaged their teachers in inconsistent discipline. This therefore makes it difficult for teachers to efficiently teach thereby resulting to ineffective attitudes towards school activities and learning. Therefore,

the use of harsh system of administration does not only make the teachers to be inefficient but equally passive.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of findings, discussions of findings, recommendations and suggestions for further study and conclusions. The discussion of findings will be done ascertaining a link to specific authors and theories. In the first place, we shall deal with a summary and discussion of findings. Secondly, we will make recommendations to teachers, students, educational administrators, government as well as other educational stakeholders. Suggestions for future research shall be made at the end.

Summary of findings

This study was meant to assess the extent to which curriculum orientations of school principals influences teachers' output in diverse secondary school settings in the Yaounde 6 Municipality. To collect data, a set of structured questionnaires were used as an interview guide. Before the actual data collection, piloting of questionnaires were done in two secondary schools in Yaounde 6 municipality. To establish the reliability of the instrument, the researcher used the test-retest where the second test administration was done one week after the first one. The study generated both qualitative and quantitative data. In this case the quantitative data was presented in the form of frequency tables, pie charts, percentages and bar graphs. The findings arrived at are as follows:

- There is a significant relationship between transmission orientation of school principals and teachers output.
- There is a significant relationship between transformational orientation of school principals and teachers output.
- There exists a significant relationship between transactional orientation of school principals and teachers output.
- There is a significant relationship between pacesetting orientation of school principals and teachers output

Therefore, the findings of this study reveal to a greater extend that relationships exist between curriculum orientations of school administrators and teachers' efficiency.

Discussion of Results

Hypothesis one

There is a significant relationship between transmission orientation of school principals and teachers output.

The correlation on table 4.41, shows that there is a significant relationship between transmission orientation of school administrators and teachers' efficiency. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted and the null rejected. The analysis of the relationship was seen to be positive and high. This means that the more transmission orientation of school administrators is, the greater the teacher's output. Based on the chi square analyses above, we Can conclude that the contingency correlation is .74 and the contingency maximum is .86 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between transmission orientation of school principals and teachers output.

Components of transmission orientation such as advice teachers on what to do if there is a problem, use reasoning rather than enforcing rules when they want to correct their teachers behavior, listen to their teachers ideas when making decisions, hardly shout at their teachers, explain to teachers why rules should be obeyed, praise their teachers when they do something good, all these are very important and can enhance the ability of some teachers to be more efficient as well as students to achieve good grades and high performance in school.

However, components of transmission orientation such expects his subordinates to follow demands and decisions without questions and not to try things independently. Teachers with authoritarian school administrators tend to be submissive, to obey and not to ask questions from their principals. Such teachers are never given the chance or opportunity to try their ideas. This greatly limits their ability to think and as such they feel worthless. Here, the teachers develop a sense of low self-confidence in their abilities. As such these teachers begin to meet new situations with a sense of uncertainty and fear. Consequently, teachers don't ask questions from their principals and independent in the discussion.

Hypothesis two

There is a significant relationship between transformational orientation of school administration and teachers output.

The first specific alternative hypothesis in this study states that the transformational orientation of school principals towards curriculum has a significant relationship with teachers'

efficiency. We used the chi square as a statistical tool to test this hypothesis. Based on the chi square analyses, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .81 and the contingency maximum is .90 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between transformational orientation of school principals towards curriculum and teachers' performance. The results of our findings shows that majority of the teachers collaborate with their principals in the smooth functioning of the school.

The result is consistent with the findings of McGregor (1960) as Theory X and Theory Y as well as Abraham Maslow's view that people seek inner satisfaction and fulfillment of our human capacities towards self-actualization. It is also compatible with the human relations movement in management. An example of the application of theory Y is management by objectives.

Talking of this principal-teacher relationship, Ann (1987) pointed out that "the relationship between the principal and teacher's is an extremely powerful component in student success; yet so many principals go through the school year without effective communicating with teacher's". This relationship must be that which will work for the academic improvement of the learner. When the relationship between the two actors is mutual, it will increase teacher's efficiency as well as the effectiveness of learning in the academic milieu and the huge investments that the government and other educational partners have made in terms of financial and material expenditures will not be wasted. If on the contrary the relationship is not solid as it is the case with some principals today, there will be a lot of wastage on the part of the government, internal and external organizations involved in education, teachers, parents, and the students themselves. This is because; teachers will struggle to teach while students most likely learn much less than they should. This ineffective learning brings retardation in societal development as it makes leaders of tomorrow to remain on spot and thus drop out in education.

To Havighurst and Levine (1979), the principal's clients are the teachers, and the school as a whole is built around the teacher-student relationship. The teacher has also a secondary or indirect group of clients, the parents of students. Beyond these, the teacher's immediate contact is with colleagues and with administrators. Thus, the teacher's relationships are with four groups of people; students, their parents, fellow teachers and administrators. Friendly relations with co-workers and supervisor contribute to high level of job satisfaction. It is in this light that Baltus (1994) ascertains that when employees have good feeling toward one another, they enjoy their jobs more and morale is usually higher leading to increase productivity. There is more respect for one

another's right and absenteeism is lower. With good company spirit and a feeling of job togetherness, employees hesitate to miss work. Individuals realize that if there are not there to do their share of the workload, their co-workers will be inconvenienced and often overloaded with work. They will therefore not work more independently because they feel a bond with their co-workers. Therefore, if teachers in an institution could develop this spirit of oneness to achieve the goals of the institution, then their efficiency as well as students' academic performance may obviously be improved upon.

Following a report by the National Center for Education Statistics (1999) on job satisfaction found that "teachers in any school setting who receive a great deal of leadership support are more satisfied than teachers who do not". If teachers are satisfied when they have leadership support, it implies they will be committed to their jobs and this may lead to improvement in academic performance of students as well as teachers' efficiency. It is for this reason that Tsafak (1998) contends that the teaching corps in general must feel a sense of solidarity at all levels and in all sectors. At the level of each establishment, teachers must become aware of the common social condition which is derived from their common mission and form a real team. He says secret criticism of colleagues is proof of a complete lack of team spirit, corps spirit and solidarity. As such relations among teachers must be brotherly so as to bring out the best output, which will be seen in the performance of students. The social life of the teaching corps can be organized in the form of clubs and associations of all kinds in order to make them have the feeling of oneness so that they can become committed. Teachers should be entitled to a fair working condition and their profession should be given the public consideration that it deserves so as to keep them in the corps. By so doing, the academic performance of students will also be affected positively.

School principals should not forget that the better the educator (teachers), the better their efficiency. It is in this spectrum that Adam asserts that; "if school principals had more consistent and on-going contact with teachers through more frequent progress meetings and activities to draw teachers into the classroom, they might develop a better appreciation of just what the teacher does". By doing so, this will help to produce the best results on the students. It is therefore obvious that the level of principals' involvement in school directly affects the level of teacher's efficiency and students' performance and improves their relationships. Shelley and Adams (2001) further stipulated that a better predictor of teachers' efficiency as well as student achievement exists in schools that promote a conducive environment that encourages learning, provides high yet

attainable expectations for achievement, and becomes involved at school. It is in this spectrum that Perie and Baker (1997) asserts that, “teachers get a feeling of accomplishment and increased self-worth when their students perform well”. Hence, Schools that receive a great deal of leadership support have teachers that are more satisfied and stable.

Hypothesis three

There exists a significant relationship between transformational orientation of school principals and teachers output

Looking at hypothesis three, it is glaring with the help of our chi square that relationships between the two variables; transformational orientation of school principals and teachers’ efficiency is significant. Based on the chi square analyses above, we can conclude that the contingency correlation is .79 and the contingency maximum is .89 indicating that there is a high positive relationship between transformational orientation of school principals and teachers’ performance. These findings may be due to the Cameroonian context in which this study was conducted. However, transformational orientation of school principals entails letting a team make the vast majority of decisions. The manager or principal spends little time being involved in particular decisions and leaves everything up to the teachers. If the employees are all motivated to achieve an outcome and are able to complete the requirements, a laissez-faire type of leadership can work. If employees lack the motivation, there may be problems with a liberal leadership style. Essentially, this means the manager will assign a number of tasks to their employees and have virtually no contact or additional catch-up until the project is completed. The employees will have much more freedom while being expected to come to the manager if any questions or issues come up. Under this type of leadership, for minor problems, team members are more likely to solve issues among themselves. According to St. Thomas University, while laissez-faire leaders enable employees to make their own decisions regarding how to finish tasks, they still have control over finalizing organization-wide decisions. The type of characteristics employees needs to have in order to succeed under this type of orientation of principals includes experience in a particular occupation, skills, and relevant education.

On the other hand, however Tanyi (2002) states that teachers with laissez-faire leaders may not perform well in their teaching profession because he/she maybe unable to follow rules in school due to lack of inner control between the principal and the teacher.

Observations

On the observation checklist, there were a total of 9 behaviors that could be observed. The behaviors observed in this study were as follows (a) principal/teachers' relationship, (b) teachers' assiduity/punctuality, (c) principals' assiduity, (d) principal/teachers' communication skills, (e) teachers' attitude towards school activities/learning, (f) teachers/students' relationship, (g) principals' management skills, and (h) students' autonomy. These observed behaviors are consistent with prior research conducted by Evertson and Emmer (1990, as cited in Wolfgang, 2001) who stipulated that elementary school teachers were most effective and efficient when (a) discipline problems were handled immediately, (b) procedures for common school areas were broken down and understood, (c) noise level indicators were in place for students working in groups of two or more, (d) student attention and involvement was expected when others were speaking, (e) classroom climates were comfortable with established housekeeping procedures, and (f) respect between principals/teacher and students was mutual.

Teachers and school administrators may therefore need to examine, evaluate, and familiarize themselves with the above behaviors listed supported by research and used by effective school administrators and teachers in this research study to ensure that principals/teachers are implementing effective/efficient management strategies as indicators of personal progress, student progress, and as resources to enhance learning effectiveness in students as well as enhancing teachers' efficiency. To achieve this task, individualized classroom management plans can be generated through school-wide professional development or through one-on-one meetings amongst teachers, students and school administrators. Indicators of effective/efficient learning can be monitored through teacher observations, peer observations, administrative observations, self-reflections as well as evaluation of learners. Beginning teachers or those with consistently low pedagogic skills may need Comprehensive Professional Development Plans (PDP) to enhance teaching abilities or classroom management skills, thereby rendering learning more effective/efficient.

Implication of Findings

Based on the findings discussed above, out of the four alternative hypotheses (H_a) all were retained while none was rejected as well as the null hypotheses (H_0). This decision was based on the principles of chi square which was the statistical tool used in data analysis. This confirmation automatically implies that the general hypothesis which states that: There is a significant

relationship between the principal orientation of curriculum and teacher's output, is not a reality in secondary schools in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. Our calculations through the chi square and contingency coefficient showed that the relationship between these variables (curriculum orientation and teachers output) is positive to a lesser extent and the magnitude of the relationships are higher. This is an indicator of lapses in principal orientation of curriculum in our secondary school settings. Following these findings, it is quite obvious that the government appoints principals that are not capable of administering an institution as well as improving teachers' efficiency. In addition to that, the schools under the principals employed teachers who did not teach the way they described their teaching abilities, nor did they implement classroom management skills they indicated were incorporated into their classrooms. In the final analysis, these findings possibly encouraged participating administrators to identify and implement critical corrective steps, measures as well as leadership styles in an effort to improve teaching ability, management skills, and student learning and teachers' efficiency.

Conclusion

This study has identified that curriculum orientations of school administrator and teachers' efficiency are not correlated and that majority of the teachers' responses about the curriculum orientations of school principals and teachers' efficiency in their job ultimately do not match their actual teaching profession. Many schools in Cameroon today have utilized School-Improvement Plans with the intention to improve schools by expanding teaching methodologies, learning and student performance through data-driven decision making. Therefore, it is necessary for administrators to examine test data to identify learning gaps and class weaknesses, and possibly teacher weaknesses, in order to improve the teaching and learning process.

However, improving teaching and learning may no longer be holistic in nature as 21st century professional development is moving away from one-shot workshops towards more active, coherent, and comprehensive school environments (Cotton, 2003). Proponents believe that active environments provide specific connections to school improvement. This means that today's administrators must be cognizant of school needs and make demands to stakeholders about how to encourage and maintain continuous school improvement (Cotton, 2003). In this regard, school, teacher, and student improvement may need frequent planning and data evaluation to determine teachers' efficiency and to identify future measures that can enable us attain the objectives of education as a whole.

Limitations of the study

A piece of work of this nature is quite demanding materially, intellectually, morally, and financially. It is normal that the researcher encountered major difficulties upon completion of this research work. The following therefore are some difficulties encountered by the researcher during the research exercise:

The researcher was faced with the problem of moving from one institution to another to administer questionnaires and to collect archival data in the different institution. It was actually a challenging task for the researcher to ensure that the questionnaires were responded to and on time. This therefore posed a lot of problems to the researcher.

Also, many teachers were reluctant to respond to the questionnaires in the first place. Some respondents had a lukewarm attitude in completing and returning the questionnaire. Some teachers were not willing to provide detail information about the institution and how efficient they are when it comes to teaching over the years. Some demanded financial reward before any information is given. As such, the researcher had to undergo several trips to meet the respondents coupled with the fact that the population (sample) was too large.

The financial aspect of the research is also worth mentioning. Much finance was required to move from one school to another to collect data and carry out observations on different days; typing and printing of questionnaires for all the selected schools as well as the manuscripts and the actual research material was very costly for the researcher.

Finally, text books and other instructional materials related to the study were very difficult to find. Available library resources were also a problem. The few books found did not provide recent theories and literature on leadership styles of school administration and teachers efficiency. In this regard, the researcher was obliged to consult other relevant sources especially the internet.

Recommendations

General recommendation

This research study was conducted to better understand the influence of curriculum orientations of school administrators on teachers' efficiency in diverse secondary school settings in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. Leadership is the ability of a manager to influence subordinates to voluntarily make efforts towards achieving organizational goals/objectives. In addition to lead, individuals must add to their authority and power personal attributes and social skills. Therefore, in this context, leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group (school)

towards goal setting and achievement. This is because the principal as the leader in a school organization influences teacher's efficiency. In order to be an effective administrator, the principal must have quality leadership skills and a good leadership style suitable for running the institution that will not only influence as well increased students' performance but equally teachers efficiency. These curriculum orientations will enables the principal to recognize and interpret what is happening in an exceptionally complex environment (institution).

Based on the results of the findings, curriculum orientations was the number one factor that affects teachers' efficiency but has not been given its deserved attention in the population of this research. Leadership style, being the highest ranked variable that influenced teachers efficiency in this study; the researcher recommends the following which are addressed to the the government, principals, teachers as well as students.

To the Government

The government should always appoint bilingual principals to head bilingual schools so that there will always be smooth flow of communication.

Government should always organize workshops and seminars wherein principal can be drilled on how to improve on how to improve on their managerial skills and ultimately, teachers efficiency as well as educational performance as a whole.

The government should implement policies that will build a healthy relationship between the school administrators, teachers as well as the students. This will help the administrators to know teachers problem. Principals in collaboration with the Ministry of Secondary Education (MINESEC) should make classrooms self-contained by equipping them with the required materials. Such equipment will serve as motivation for both teacher and learners facilitate classroom management and improve on the effectiveness of learning.

To principals

Principals are call upon to draw towards their knowledge, experience, expertise and judgment by giving teachers the opportunity to participate in the decision making process of the school. As such, this will lead to job satisfaction on the part of teachers and consequently their efficiency.

The principals should not only continue to communicate with teachers but also improve on the means and techniques of communication in their various schools for example, the telephone, the internet, the notice board and should always speak in clear terms.

Principals should be sensitive enough before delegating powers to teachers and this power delegation should base on teachers competence. This therefore will improve on teachers' competence as well as efficiency since they can become principals tomorrow.

To teachers

The concept of effective/efficient teaching should be the watchword of every teacher n matter the leadership style of the principal since these concepts are generally believed to be the primary objectives of a school while the positive outcome from students should be the main concern for teachers for the betterment of the students and society as a whole. Teaching should be student centered.

Teachers should be open and receptive to opportunities that can help them improve on their working conditions and teaching techniques. In this way, they will gain job satisfaction.

Suggestions for further studies

This research study was conducted in five government, three lay private and two private secondary schools in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. To enhance its authenticity, this study could be replicated in diverse urban or rural settings to identify relationships between curriculum orientations and teachers efficiency. Certainly, schools in that municipality could be included to provide a comprehensive overview of the entire principals' curriculum orientations and how it has influence teachers efficiency.

A similar study should be conducted to examine teachers leadership role and students discipline in other higher institutions.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

A common belief among many educational stakeholders is that a quality education depends largely on curriculum content, and school programs that support and enrich curricula implementation, and the quality of teaching occurring in today's classrooms (McCormack, Gore, & Thomas, 2006).

This study has as objectives to

- (a) Determine the relationship that exists between the transmission orientation of school administrators of school administrators and teachers output
- (b) Examine the relationship that exists between the transformational orientation of school administrators and teachers output
- (c) To verify the relationship that exists between transaction orientation of school administrators and teachers output.

The overall goal of this study was to determine the extent to which curriculum orientations of school administrator influence teachers efficiency in Cameroon precisely some selected secondary schools settings in the Yaoundé 6 Municipality. This part of the study concludes the results of this research study and presents professional development practices that may augment continuous improvement of leadership styles and teaching practices in diverse secondary settings.

Curriculum orientation that principals use to improve teachers efficiency vary from principal to another. In this study, various leadership styles, strategies and teaching methodologies that best promoted teachers efficiency in diverse secondary schools were found to be minimal. This study equally revealed that curriculum orientation of school administrators to a greater has a significant influence on teachers output. These findings depict inadequate or ineffective leadership role of our 21st century school principals in this research. It is obvious that leadership style (as an issue and a field of research) has not been given its deserved attention in the population of this research.

Based on the study, it is obvious that curriculum orientations of school administrators to a greater extend has a significant influence on teachers' efficiency due to sex, level of education, religion as well as leadership style. According to J.S Farrant (1980), the teacher as effective manager needs technical skills which have to do with planning the program (syllabus, schemes, timetable, etc) and acquiring resources for teaching (text books, charts, computer and other

instructional materials). The lack of pedagogic knowledge and materials promotes attitude that leads to ineffective/inefficient teaching.

With legislations like Education For All (EFA) and Inclusive Education driving many administrative decisions, teachers should not be subjected to poor leadership role. If schools are to provide quality and equitable educations to maximize potentials in every teachers, then effective/efficient leadership strategies and teaching practices that support and enhance effective teaching/learning may be very imperative. However, to effectively implement these improved strategies, changes might be required. This involves many risks and can possibly evoke negativity. Change is double-sided as it can arouse emotions and discomfort in many educators. Change is not easy but it is very necessary in our educational system today. Thus, if today's school administrators are afraid of risk and change, then they may never create and nurture improvement worth attaining. Even though various research carryout have proven that there is to a greater extend no significant relationship between leadership styles of school administrators and teachers output, based on this study, it is the reverse. Therefore, this does not mean that out of the four alternative hypotheses stated, all were accepted shows that school administrators influence teachers output based on their leadership styles.

REFERENCES

- Amin, E. M. (2004). *Social science research: Conception, methodology and analysis*. Makerere University Printery.
- Ann, M. T. (1987). *Classroom interaction: A scheme for teacher education*. Oxford University Press.
- Arends, R. I., Winitzky, N. E., & Tannenbaum, M. D. (2001). *Exploring teaching: An introduction to education*. McGraw-Hill.
- Ashour, A. S. (1973). The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: An evaluation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 9(3), 339–355.
- Baltus, K. R. (1994). *Personal psychology for life and work* (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Barry, D. S. (1998). *Psychology: Science and understanding*. McGraw-Hill.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), 19–31
- Brown, J. (1993). Leadership for school improvement. *Emergency Librarian*, 20(3), 8–20.
- Brown, M. (2007). Educating all students: Creating culturally responsive teachers. *Educational Forum*, 69(4), 1–12.
- Burbules, N. C. (1997). *Classroom instruction and management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper & Row.
- Can do. (2003). What school leaders can do in challenging contexts. *Journal of Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 6–13.
- Cheng, Y. C. (2002). Leadership and strategy. In T. Bush & L. Bell (Eds.), *The principles and practice of educational management* (pp. xx–xx). Paul Chapman Publishers.
- Chicago Consortium on School Research. (1996). *Research report on school improvement*. University of Chicago Press.
- Cooper, S. (1967). *Teaching for learning: Applying educational psychology in the classroom*. Goodyear Publishing.
- Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and student achievement*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Czubaj, C. A. (1996). Maintaining teacher motivation. *Education*, 116(3), 372–378.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2003). Keeping good teachers: Why it matters, what leaders can do. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 6–13.

- Davies, B., & Ellison, L. (1997). *School leadership for the 21st century*. Routledge.
- DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1998). *Professional learning communities at work: Best practices for enhancing student achievement*. National Education Service.
- Eichinger, J. (2000). Job stress and satisfaction among special education teachers: Effects of gender and social role orientation. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education*, 47(4), 397–412.
- Farrant, J. S. (1980). *Principles and practice of education* (New ed.). Longman.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F. E., Chemers, M. M., & Mahar, L. (1976). *Improving leadership effectiveness: The leader match concept*. Wiley.
- Finzel, Z. (2007). *The top ten mistakes leaders make*. Cook Communications.
- Fonkeng, E. G. (2007). *The history of education in Cameroon, 1844–2004*. Edwin Mellen Press.
- Fonkeng, E. G., & Tamajong, E. V. (2009). *Secondary school administration and the principalship*. ANUCAM Publishers.
- Fullan, M. (2002). The change leader. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8), 16–20.
- Fullan, M. (2010). *All systems go: The change imperative for whole system reform*. Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?* Teachers College Press.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *The new leaders: Transforming the art of leadership*. Little, Brown.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980–1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5–44.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1998). Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 9(2), 157–191.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1999). Can leadership enhance school effectiveness? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 27(4), 415–430.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (2002). Vision, mission, and goals in school improvement. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The second international handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. xx–xx). Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Hallinger, P., Bickman, L., & Davis, K. (1996). School context, principal leadership, and student achievement. *Elementary School Journal*, 96(5), 527–549.

- Harris, A., & Chapman, C. (2002). Democratic leadership for school improvement in challenging contexts. *International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Education*, 6(1), 1–12.
- Henderson, D. L., & Travis, W. H. (1996). Texas teachers, moonlighting, and morale. *Educational Forum*, 60(3), 234–243.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1996). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice* (5th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Finzel, Z. (2007). *The top ten mistakes leaders make*. Cook Communications Ministries.
- Fonkeng, E. G. (2007). *The history of education in Cameroon: 1844–2004*. New York, NY: Edwin Mellen Press.
- Fonkeng, E. G., & Tamajong, E. V. (2009). *Secondary school administration and the principalship*. ANUCAM Publishers.
- Fullan, M. (2002). The change leader. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8), 16–20.
- Fullan, M. (2010). *All systems go: The change imperative for whole system reform*. Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?* Teachers College Press.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *The new leaders: Transforming the art of leadership into the science of results*. Little, Brown.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980–1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5–44.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (1998). Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness: 1980–1995. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 9(2), 157–191.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (1999). Can leadership enhance school effectiveness? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 27(4), 415–430.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (2002). Vision, mission, and goals in school improvement. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The second international handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. xx–xx). Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Hallinger, P., Bickman, L., & Davis, K. (1996). School context, principal leadership, and student achievement. *Elementary School Journal*, 96(5), 527–549.
- Harris, A., & Chapman, C. (2002). Democratic leadership for school improvement in challenging contexts. *International Journal for Leadership in Education*, 6(1), 1–12.

- Henderson, D. L., & Travis, W. H. (1996). Texas teachers, moonlighting, and morale. *The Educational Forum*, 60(3), 234–243.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1996). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice* (5th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Imprimerie Nationale Yaoundé. (n.d.). *Educational development in Africa*. Author.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2004). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.
- Jones, J. (1997). *Management skills in schools: A resource for school leaders*. California Learning Institute of Education.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (1997). Explaining variation in teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership: A replication. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35(4), 312–331.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), 112–129.
- Lewis, M. (2000). *Altering fate: Why the past does not predict the future*. Guilford Press.
- Luma, L. E. (1993). *The education of African teachers* (1st ed.). SOPECAM.
- Lumsden, L. (1998). *Teacher morale*. ERIC Digest No. 120. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.
- Lydia, E. L. (1983). *Education for African teachers*. SOPECAM.
- Maehr, M. L., Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. (1993). School leader as motivator. In National Center for School Leadership (Ed.), *Occasional papers on school leadership and educational reform* (pp. xx–xx). National Center for School Leadership.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1999). Take this job and love it: Six ways to beat burnout. *Psychology Today*, 32(5), 50–53.
- Mbala, O. (1986). *Stratification socioculturelle camerounaise et élite scolaire*. Imprimerie Nationale.
- Mbua, F. N. (2003). *Educational administration: Theory and practice*. Design House.
- McNeil, J. D. (1971). *Toward accountable teachers: Their appraisal and improvement*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Mintzberg, H. (1989). *The structure of organizations*. Prentice Hall.

- Mondy, R. W., Holmes, R., & Flippo, E. (1980). *Leadership and school effectiveness*. McCutchan Publishing.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (1998). *Compendium: Projections of education statistics to 2008*. Department of Education.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2004–05 teacher follow-up survey*. Department of Education.
- Ndongko, T. M. (1991). *A handbook on secondary school administration*. Heinemann Educational Books.
- Ndiva Mbua, F. (2003). *Educational administration: Theory and practice*. Design House.
- Nicky, H. (1998). *Foundations of psychology: An introductory text*. Clays Ltd.
- Ololube, N. P. (2004). Benchmarking the motivational competencies of academically qualified teachers and professionally qualified teachers in Nigerian secondary schools. *The African Symposium*, 5(3), 12–23.
- Ololube, N. P. (2007). Professionalism, demographics, and motivation as predictors of job satisfaction among Nigerian teachers. *International Journal of Education*, 2(7), 1–14.
- Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. (2000). *Organizational conditions and student engagement*. OISE Press.
- Perie, M., & Baker, D. P. (1997). Teacher job satisfaction: Effects of workplace conditions, background characteristics, and teacher compensation. National Center for Education Statistics.
- Pont, B., Nusche, D., & Hopkins, D. (2008). *Improving school leadership: Volume 2—Case studies on system leadership*. OECD Publishing.
- Tamukong, J. A. (2004). *Towards better management of public education in Cameroon: The case of decentralization*. Presses Universitaires d’Afrique.
- Tamukong, J. A., & Oben, D. A. (2005). *Educational administration*. Presses Universitaires d’Afrique.
- Tchombe, T. S. (1997). *Classroom events: Methods, techniques, and psychological correlates*. VITA Press.
- Tsafack, G. (1998). *Ethics and deontology in education*. Presses Universitaires.
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (1988). *The new leadership: Managing participation in organizations*. Prentice Hall.

- Walberg, H. (1974). *Evaluating educational performance*. Pacific Resources for Education and Learning
- Maehr, M. L., Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. (1993). School leader as motivator. In National Center for School Leadership (Ed.), *Occasional papers on school leadership and educational reform* (pp. xx–xx). National Center for School Leadership.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1999). Take this job and love it: Six ways to beat burnout. *Psychology Today*, 32(5), 50–53.
- Mbala, O. (1986). *Stratification socioculturelle camerounaise et élite scolaire*. Imprimerie Nationale.
- Mbua, F. N. (2003). *Educational administration: Theory and practice*. Design House.
- McNeil, J. D. (1971). *Toward accountable teachers: Their appraisal and improvement*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Mintzberg, H. (1989). *The structure of organizations*. Prentice Hall.
- Mondy, R. W., Holmes, R., & Flippo, E. B. (1980). *Leadership and school effectiveness*. McCutchan Publishing.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (1998). *Compendium: Projections of education statistics to 2008*. U.S. Department of Education.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2004–05 teacher follow-up survey*. U.S. Department of Education.
- Ndongko, T. M. (1991). *A handbook on secondary school administration*. Heinemann Educational Books.
- Nicky, H. (1998). *Foundations of psychology: An introductory text*. Clays Ltd.
- Ololube, N. P. (2004). Benchmarking the motivational competencies of academically qualified teachers and professionally qualified teachers in Nigerian secondary schools. *The African Symposium*, 5(3), 12–23.
- Ololube, N. P. (2007). Professionalism, demographics, and motivation as predictors of job satisfaction among Nigerian teachers. *International Journal of Education*, 2(7), 1–14.
- Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. (2000). *Organizational conditions and student engagement*. OISE Press.
- Paul Chapman Publishing. (1997). *International handbook of educational leadership and administration*. Author.

- Perie, M., & Baker, D. P. (1997). Job satisfaction among American teachers: Effects of workplace conditions, background characteristics, and teacher compensation. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Pont, B., Nusche, D., & Hopkins, D. (2008). *Improving school leadership: Volume 2—Case studies on system leadership*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.
- Presses Universitaires d'Afrique. (2005). *School leadership in Africa*. Author.
- Republic of Cameroon, Ministry of Basic Education. (2004). *Public administration country profile*. Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform.
- Republic of Cameroon, Ministry of National Education. (1998). *Law No. 98/004 of 14 April 1998 to lay down guidelines for education*. Government Printing Office.
- Rinehart, W. F., & Winston, H. S. (1990). *Leadership and supervision in education*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Sashkin, M., & Sashkin, M. G. (2003). *Leadership that matters: The critical factors for making a difference in people's lives and organizations'*. Berrett-Koehler.
- Schratz, M., et al. (2009). The role of school leadership in the improvement of learning: Country reports and case studies of a Central-European project. *OECD Working Papers*. Retrieved from [URL unavailable].
- Seifert, K. (2009). *Educational psychology*. Jacobs Foundation.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1984). Leadership and excellence in schooling. *Educational Leadership*, 41(5), 4–13.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1990). Adding value to leadership gets extraordinary results. *Educational Leadership*, 47(8), 23–27.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (2002). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Shelley, F., & Adam, R. (2001). What keeps some teachers in the classroom while others give up? *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 33(1), 57–62.
- Southworth, G., & Quesnay, H. D. (2005). School leadership and system leadership. *School Leadership and Management*, 18(2), 123–140.
- Student Achievement Institute. (1996). *The student achievement report*. Bloomington, IN: Author.
- Supervision and Curriculum Development. (2003). *Annual review of educational leadership*. ASCD.

- Tambo, I. L. (1989). *General pedagogy: Principles and foundations of education*. University of Yaoundé Press.
- Tambo, I. L. (2003). *Principles and methods of teaching: Applications in Cameroon schools*. ANUCAM Publishers.
- Tambo, I. L. (2006). *Principles and methods of teaching: Applications in Cameroon schools* (Revised ed.). ANUCAM Publishers.
- Tamukong, J. A. (2004). *Towards better management of public education in Cameroon: The case of decentralization*. Presses Universitaires d'Afrique.
- Tamukong, J. A., & Oben, D. A. (2005). *Educational administration*. Presses Universitaires d'Afrique.
- Tchombe, T. S. (1997). *Classroom events: Methods, techniques and psychological correlates*. VITA Press.
- Tsafack, G. (1998). *Ethics and deontology in education*. Presses Universitaires d'Afrique.
- University Press of Yaoundé. (n.d.). *Educational development in Africa*. Author.
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (1988). *The new leadership: Managing participation in organizations*. Prentice Hall.
- Walberg, H. (1974). *Evaluating educational performance*. Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.
- Williams, J. C. (1978). *Human behavior in organizations*. South-Western Publishing.

Www.tka.hu

APPENDIX
RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

REPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN
Paris-Trouad-Pansu

UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I

FACULTE DES SCIENCES DE
L'EDUCATION

DEPARTEMENT DE CURRICULA
ET EVALUATION



REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON
Paris-Trouad-Pansu

UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF
CURRICULUM AND
EVALUATION

N° Hist. UY/ES/ADSS/E

AUTORISATION DE RECHERCHE

Je soussigné, **Professeur Barnabé MBALA ZE**, Doyen de la Faculté des Sciences de l'Education de l'Université de Yaoundé I, certifie que l'étudiante **YONGKA NORA SHAM**, matricule **15XU359** est inscrite en Master II, à la Faculté des Sciences de l'Education, Département de Curricula et Evaluation, Option: **Recherche**.

L'intéressée doit effectuer des travaux de recherche en vue de l'obtention de son diplôme de Master. Elle travaille sous la direction du **Dr SHEY PATRICK**, chargé de cours à l'Université de Bouda et son sujet porte sur : « *The effects of principal leadership style's and its effects on teachers' performance (efficiency) : The case of Mfoundi Divisions* ».

Je vous salue gré de bien vouloir mettre à sa disposition toutes les informations susceptibles de l'aider.

En foi de quoi, cette autorisation de recherche lui est délivrée pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

Fait à Yaoundé, le ... **28 MAI 2018**

Pour le Doyen et par ordre

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITÉ DE YAOUNDÉ I
 ++++++
 CENTRE DE RECHERCHE ET DE FORMATION
 DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES HUMAINES,
 SOCIALES ET EDUCATIVES
 ++++++
 UNITE DE RECHERCHE ET DE FORMATION
 DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION
 ET INGENIERIE EDUCATIVE



UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I
 ++++++
 POST COORDINATION SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL AND
 EDUCATION SCIENCES
 ++++++
 DOCTORATE UNIT OF RESEARCH AND TRAINING
 IN SCIENCES OF EDUCATION AND
 EDUCATIONAL ENGINEERING

Questionnaire for teachers

Dear teacher,

I am a student of the Department of Curriculum and Evaluation from the faculty of Education in the University of Yaoundé 1. I am working on the topic titled, “**the effects of curriculum orientations of school principals and its effect on teacher’s performance**”. I should be grateful if you will help complete the following questionnaire. All answers you give will be used solely for academic purpose; thus, you do not need to reveal your identity. Thanks for your cooperation

Yours sincerely
 Yongka Nora S.

Instructions: Please tick (√) and fill where appropriate.

SA: strongly agree, A: agree, D: disagree, SD: strongly disagree

Section A: Demographic Information

Name of school-----

Teacher of Class(es): -----

Sex: Male () Female ()

Section B: Transformational Orientation And Teacher’s Performance

| | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1) My principals determines all working policies before work is done | SA | A | D | SD |
| 2) My principal is very supportive and allows me to set priorities with his/her guidance | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| 3) My principal makes sure everyone participates in a discussions involving teaching however he/she determines the final decision. | | | | |
| 4) I communicate freely with my principal and he closely monitors me to ensure my performance | | | | |
| 5) My principal is very flexible | | | | |
| 6) When assigning tasks , my principal consider peoples skills and interests | | | | |
| 7) My principal asks for ideas before he implements plans for any project | | | | |

Section C: Transmission orientation of curriculum and Teacher’s Performance

| | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1) My principal never runs out of negative energy | SA | A | D | SD |
| | | | | |
| 2) My principal rebukes us without listening to us | | | | |
| 3) Standards for success and rewards are clearly stated by my principal | | | | |
| 4) You can always notice my principal when he walks into a room | | | | |
| 5) My principal is out spoken | | | | |
| 6) My principal does not consider suggestions made by teachers as he/she does not have time for them | | | | |
| 7) When someone makes a mistake my principal tells them never to do that again and he/she takes note | | | | |

Section D: Transitional orientation of curriculum and Teacher’s Performance

| | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1) I think my principal thinks highly of me | SA | A | D | SD |
| | | | | |
| 2) My principal aims too high | | | | |
| 3) My principal puts a lot of pressure on me to finish my paper work | | | | |
| 4) I think My principal does not trust anyone of us his teachers | | | | |
| 5) MY principal is a good coach | | | | |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| 6) Coaching helps me to be committed and enables me do things I think I could not do | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|

Section E: Transactional orientation of curriculum and Teacher's Performance

| | SA | A | D | SD |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1) my principal creates an environment where teachers take ownership of the school process and do what they want | | | | |
| 2) my principal allows teachers determine what needs to be done and how to do it | | | | |
| 3) I know more about their jobs (the principal and the vice) so I do what I want when I want | | | | |
| 4) Each teacher is responsible for defining his or her job | | | | |
| 5) My principal abandons his responsibility to us | | | | |
| 6) Every teacher has the right to determine their own objectives in the teaching and learning process | | | | |
| 7) My principal allows me to set my own deadlines for work | | | | |

Section F: Dependent Variable (teachers' performance)

| | SA | A | D | SD |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1) I communicate well during my lesson especially when I am in good terms with my principal | | | | |
| 2) Work load is lifted when I am involved in the decision making process of the school | | | | |
| 3) I carry out my duties as a teacher properly when my duties a well spelled out by my principal | | | | |
| 4) Being coached by my principal makes me perform better in class | | | | |
| 5) I love a supportive principal | | | | |
| 6) I wish I could communicate with my principal on a proper | | | | |
| 7) I wish I could tell my principal the difficulties I go through as a teacher | | | | |
| 8) When my principal orders me around I feel discouraged carrying out my task | | | | |
| 9) When my principal allows me to do as wish, I become more effective | | | | |
| 10) When my principal takes decisions without me I am no encouraged to teach | | | | |