

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
SCHOOL CLIMATE IN BOTSWANA SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that *The relationship between leadership style and school climate in Botswana secondary schools* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE
(MRS C.O. OYETUNJI)

DATE

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Summary

In Botswana secondary schools, a positive climate is more of an ideal than a reality. It is the task of stakeholders particularly the headteacher's to create and sustain a conducive learning environment to improve pupils' academic and behaviour standards. To a large extent, the headteacher, as an individual occupying the highest official position in the school, determines how the school is run. His/her expectations, values, beliefs, relationships with teachers and the examples he/she sets for the whole school shape the climate in the school. The headteacher can promote or inhibit a positive climate through his/her leadership behaviour pattern. Thus, the headteacher's leadership style is significant in creating and sustaining a positive school climate. This study has been undertaken to examine the connectedness between headteacher leadership style and school climate. This research focuses on the improvement of climate in Botswana secondary schools through the headteacher's appropriate use of leadership styles in different situations with a view to answer the following questions: What different leadership styles are employed by school headteachers? What are the different types of climates in schools? Are the leadership styles of school headteachers responsible for the climate that exists in their schools? What are the implications of the headteachers' leadership styles for school climate? How can school climate be improved? What roles can the headteachers, teachers and other stakeholders play to improve school climate? The research report comprises six chapters: Chapter one contains the background information of the research, statement of the research problem, aim and objectives of the research, demarcation of the study, definition of concepts, research methods and the research structure. Chapter two presents a review of literature on leadership styles, factors affecting it and discussion of models from different perspectives form part of this chapter. However, the emphasis is on Hersey and Blanchard's situational model which proposes the appropriate use of leadership styles to suit situations. Chapter three covers a review of relevant literature on school climate and factors affecting it. Chapter four presents detailed report on the empirical study. Questionnaires each of which contains items on leadership styles and school climate were responded to by secondary school teachers and interviews were conducted with headteachers. Chapter five contains data analysis and

interpretation. Various leadership styles used by headteachers and the corresponding climates were identified. The findings indicated that the type of climate that exists in schools is related to the headteachers leadership style. It emerged that organisational climates vary in schools and that the participating leadership style promotes an open organisational climate. Implications for school performance and for the nation's vision (Vision 2016) was given. Chapter six presents findings from the literature study as well as the empirical study, conclusions based on the findings and recommendations for improvement for practice and further research.

KEY WORDS

School Climate; Leadership Styles; Pupils' Behaviour; Poor Academic Performance; Teachers' Commitment; Closed/Open Climate; Headteacher-teacher Relationship; Parent Involvement; Accountability; Vision 2016.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE	1
THE BACKGROUND INFORMATION	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM	4
1.2.1 Exposition of the problem	4
1.2.2 Exploration of the problem	7
1.2.3 Statement of the research questions	9
1.3 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	10
1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	11
1.4.1 Objectives of the research	11
1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH	11
1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS AND ACRONYMS	11
1.6.1 Leadership style	12
1.6.2 School climate	13
1.6.3 Headteacher	13
1.6.4 Community Junior Secondary School (CJSS)	14
1.7 THE RESEARCH METHOD	15
1.7.1 Instrument for collecting data	15
1.8 PLAN OF STUDY	16
1.9 CONCLUSION	17
CHAPTER TWO	19
A REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP STYLE LITERATURE	19
2.1 INTRODUCTION	19
2.2 WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?	20
2.2.1 The difference between leadership and management	22

2.2.2	Importance of leadership	25
2.3	LEADERSHP THEORIES	27
2.3.1	Great man and trait theories	27
2.3.2	Behavioural theories	29
2.3.3	Situational/Contingency theories/models	29
2.3.4	The New leadership perspectives	30
2.4	LEADERSHIP STYLES	30
2.4.1	Likert's management systems	31
2.4.1.1	System I: Authoritative-coercive	31
2.4.1.2	System II: Authoritative-benevolent	32
2.4.1.3	System III: Consultative	33
2.4.1.4	System IV: Participative	33
2.4.2	The Leadership Grid	35
2.4.2.1	The Impoverished leader (1,1)	35
2.4.2.2	The Authority-compliance leader (9,1)	36
2.4.2.3	The Country-club leader (1,9)	37
2.4.2.4	The Middle-of-the-road leader (5,5)	37
2.4.2.5	The Team leader/high-high (9,9)	37
2.4.3	Situational/Contingency approaches to leadership	39
2.4.3.1	The Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership Continuum	39
2.4.3.2	The Autocratic-participative-free-rein continuum leadership	43
2.4.3.3	Fiedler's Contingency theory	45
2.4.3.4	The Path-goal leadership model	47
2.4.3.5	The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative contingency model	50
2.4.3.6	Hersey and Blanchard's Situational leadership model	54
2.4.4	Charismatic approach	59
2.4.4.1	House's charismatic leadership	60
2.4.5	Transformational and Transactional leadership	61
2.4.5.1	Transactional leadership	62
2.4.5.2	Transformational leadership	64
2.5	CONCLUSION	67

CHAPTER THREE	71
A REVIEW OF SCHOOL CLIMATE LITERATURE	71
3.1 INTRODUCTION	71
3.2 WHAT IS SCHOOL CLIMATE?	72
3.2.1 Importance of school climate	76
3.2.2 Perspectives on school climate	77
3.2.2.1 Climate as personality	77
3.2.2.2 Pupil-control perspective	82
3.2.2.3 Climate as health	84
3.2.3 Dimensions of school climate	86
3.2.3.1 Headteachers' behaviour	87
3.2.3.2 Teachers' behaviour	89
3.2.3.3 Pupils' behaviour	93
3.2.3.4 Parents' behaviour	100
3.3 CREATING A POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE	102
3.3.1 Creating a positive climate	103
3.4 SUSATAINING A POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE	105
3.4.1 Motivation	105
3.4.2 Evaluation and Feedback	105
3.4.3 Staff development	106
3.4.4 Teamwork	107
3.5 CONCLUSION	108
CHAPTER FOUR	111
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	111
4.1 INTRODUCTION	111
4.2 SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE TECHNIQUES	112
4.3 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	114

4.4	SURVEY	115
4.5	RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF METHODOLOGY	116
4.6	DETERMINING RESEARCH SAMPLE SIZE	118
4.7	RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY	122
4.8	PRINCIPLE AND ETHICS GUIDING RESEARCH	123
4.9	SAMPLING OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS	124
4.9.1	Data collection procedures	126
4.10	INSTRUMENTS	126
4.10.1	The OCDQ instrument	127
4.10.2	The LEAD instrument	128
4.11	RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF THE OCDQ AND LEAD INSTRUMENTS	130
4.12	GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWING	135
4.13	QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS: RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	136
4.14	QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	138
4.15	DATA PROCESSING	139
4.16	CONCLUSION	139
	CHAPTER FIVE	141
	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	141
5.1	INTRODUCTION	141
5.2	RESPONSE RATE AND STRUCTURE OF DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS	141
5.3	ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE OCDQ-RS AND LEAD-Other DATA	142
5.3.1	The OCDQ-RS data	142
5.3.2	The LEAD-Other data	160
5.3.2.1	Headteachers' supporting leadership styles	169
5.3.3	Interview data	171

5.3.4	Observations made in participating schools	179
5.4	CONCLUSION	182
	CHAPTER SIX	184
	RESEARCH FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH	184
6.1	INTRODUCTION	184
6.2	RESEARCH RESULTS	187
6.2.1	School climate differs from school to school	188
6.2.2	Headteachers employ various styles while performing their duties	188
6.2.3	Headteachers' perception of their behaviour is different from how teachers perceive them	190
6.2.4	Most schools have the necessary facilities	190
6.2.5	Teachers are not committed to their work	191
6.3	RECOMMENDATIONS	192
6.3.1	Headteachers use different leadership styles	193
6.3.2	Two different types of climate in Botswana secondary schools	194
6.3.3	Headteachers' leadership styles are responsible for school climate	194
6.3.4	There is a relationship between leadership style and school climate	195
6.3.5	The role of government in the improvement of school climate	196
6.3.6	Headteachers' role in the improvement of school climate	197
6.3.7	Teachers' role in the improvement of school climate	199
6.4	THEMES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	199
6.5	CONCLUDING REMARKS	200

- Appendix A Teachers' questionnaires
- Appendix B An Interview guide for headteachers
- Appendix C Covering letter

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Theoretical sample sizes for definite population sizes	120
Table 4.2	Sample size, confidence levels and sampling error	121
Table 5.1	Standardised mean and standard deviation	145
Table 5.2	Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group A)	147
Table 5.2.1	Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group B)	148
Table 5.2.2	Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group C)	150
Table 5.2.3	Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group D)	152
Table 5.2.4	Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group E)	154
Table 5.3	Summary of behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate for all the 35 schools	156
Table 5.4	Scorecard (LEAD-Other)	161
Table 5.4.1	Group A response on LEAD-Other	163
Table 5.4.2	Group B response on LEAD-Other	163
Table 5.4.3	Group C response on LEAD-Other	164
Table 5.4.4	Group D response on LEAD-Other	164
Table 5.4.5	Group E response on LEAD-Other	165
Table 5.5	Summary of the LEAD-Other responses	166
Table 5.6	Leadership styles and school climates of participating schools	176

CHAPTER ONE

THE BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Education is described by Kirk and Gallagher (1983:34) as the mirror of the society, showing its strengths, weaknesses, hopes, biases and key values of its culture. Thus, education has a definite role to play in the development of people and countries. Education plays a significant role in the development of people because people are the wealth of any nation; therefore, people are viewed as a focus for development. It plays a vital role in the development of the country because education is the source of growth of any country. This may be one of the reasons why United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2001:9) declare education a vehicle for and indicator of development.

Education and training play a vital role in assisting individuals and societies to adjust to social, economic and cultural changes and promote the development of the human capital essential for economic growth. Modern education, schooling in particular, aims at imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes required by the young ones to become functional in their respective societies. Schools are therefore intended to serve as agents for developing individual citizens within a country (Pandey 1996:77). In essence, schools are institutions where children are groomed to appreciate what the society in which they live stands for and are equipped in order for them to contribute to the advancement of their society.

In Botswana, formal education has been the central focus in the government's development policy (Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland Symposium (BOLESWA) 1995:103-110). Formal education reflects the skills needed in the economy, and it often determines income level, social status and quality of life of a people. Education in Botswana is perceived as a socializing process through which values, norms and skills are

perpetuated. Thus, schools seem to be at the centre of peoples' aspirations and hope (BOLESWA Symposium 1995:103-110). Besides, some years ago, the Botswana government conceived a new Botswana whose citizens by 2016 would live a better quality life and compete at international level in all areas. Quality education was considered as one of the key areas of concentration for Batswana to reach their projected destination (Botswana Task Group 1997: 5).

Freiberg and Stein (1999:3-4) observe that schools are similar with a moderate difference in the organisational structures. According to these scholars, schools have a category group of students with a teacher, scheduled times for teaching and all other activities, specific times for starting and closing the school day, and management structures which are mainly hierarchical. The highest official position in the school is that of headteacher. Thus, the responsibility of running the school is that of the headteacher.

In spite of the similarities in the organisational and administrative structures of schools, studies have shown that schools are different, one from the other in the way they function as well as the effects they have on the lives of children. For example, Head's (1999: 84-85) report of Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore and Ouston research findings indicate that some schools are superior than others. They observe that schools which perform above average with regard to pupils' behaviour have the tendency to perform above average in academic achievement. In other words, it appears that there is a correlation between students' conduct and their academic attainment. Head (1999:93) is of the opinion that, in terms of academic achievement or of behaviour, some schools are better than others, even when they all have similar intakes. It could therefore be inferred that some schools are better than others in academic achievement as well as behaviour regardless of having comparable intakes.

According to Dunklee (2000:11and 66) the differences in students' behaviour and academic outcomes are influenced inter alia by the headteacher. The headteacher leads from his/her values. The activities of the school are determined by what the headteacher does. He/she influences everyone else's behaviour: his/her values are contagious, his/her

good sense of ethics instils respect and trust in the system; he/she communicates a powerful message about what is important, how people are to be treated and how the school should operate daily. Buttressing the above claim, Ramsey (1999:190) contends that, in an organisation like the school, students and staff tend to live up to the image of the headteacher; because no school is high performing without an effective and efficient headteacher; he is the gospel that his/her staff and pupils read, a model of behaviour and work attitude to be copied by all. It implies that the headteacher is therefore expected to accept responsibility for whatever pupils and staff do and lead, both by word and action, creating a school climate that facilitates effective teaching and learning.

Wilmore (2002:4) states that headteachers play diverse roles: they are responsible for effecting education policy, keeping track of all activities within the school and ensuring that their schools run smoothly. According to Hargreaves and Fink (2003:693-700), the headteachers' tasks are divided into two major types: instructional and the leadership roles. The instructional role focuses on the training and education of children by creating motivating and challenging activities that aid children grow to become productive citizens. These scholars opine that the leadership role complements the functional role. The former aims at successful implementation of the latter. The leadership role largely comprises personnel management (both students and teachers) and decision- making.

Against this background, headteachers in Botswana are responsible for checking the schemes and records of work, measuring the efficiency of instruction, conducting staff meetings, visiting classrooms and teachers' work rooms, adjusting pupils' activities, appraising teachers and giving teachers instruction on appropriate teaching methods, etc. (Isaiah 1999:2)

Headteachers differ in the styles they use to carry out all these tasks. Mazzarella and Smith (1989:58) state that some leaders employ an autocratic leadership style; some use a democratic style, while others use the *laissez-faire* leadership style. Ramsey (1999:39-40) believes that leadership styles are as many as personality types that exist. According to him, some styles are open, some are closed, and some are flexible while others are rigid.

Some leaders use a style that is manipulative; others use more participatory styles. Some styles are driven by product whereas others are driven by process.

Considering the importance of the headteacher's tasks, his/her leadership style is one of the major factors determining the school climate in his/her school. Parsons (1985:84) contends that the creation of any school climate starts with the headteacher, and it is reflected in the relationships among teachers, between teachers and students, among the student body, commitment of teachers to the achievement of school goals and objectives, ethos of the school, etc. In other words, the headteacher is in the position to initiate and maintain the kind of atmosphere he/she wants through his/her behaviour. Taylor (2002:42-43) affirms this claim by saying that the headteacher deliberately models a positive climate in school. She explains further that the existence of quality relationships between the headteacher and teachers, among the teachers, and between the teachers and students and among students reflects a positive school climate.

Ribbins and Marland (1994:1-4) hold that the headteacher is significant in determining the quality of a school and the achievement of its pupils. Hoy and Sabo (1998:13) highlight various types of school climate: a school may have an open climate, an autonomous climate, a controlled climate, a familiar climate, a paternalistic climate or a closed climate. In the light of the above, it can be assumed that the headteacher's leadership style principally determines the kind of climate that prevails in the school. Ordinarily, the main task of the headteacher is to help create a healthy working environment in which pupils are happy and prepared to learn and teachers identify with the school's mission and goals.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.2.1 Exposition of the Problem

In more than fifteen years of practice as a secondary school teacher, the researcher has become increasingly aware and interested in the manner a headteacher creates a climate for the school. Having taught in different schools and countries, the researcher, in some situations, has witnessed a change in the climate of a particular school shortly after a new

headteacher's assumption of duty. In some cases, pupils begin to show better attitude toward school and schoolwork; the teachers are more hardworking, striving to meet the new headteacher's expectations and standard. The impact of the new headteacher is felt to the extent that by the end of the academic year, there is a remarkable improvement in students' behaviour and academic achievement. The teachers are not only mere active, but they also put in their best for the accomplishment of the school goals. In some other situations, the opposite is the case so much that the parents and other stakeholders grossly dissatisfied with the performance of the school initiate the transfer of the headteacher. To corroborate this claim O'Hanlon and Clifton's (2004:3) study indicates that the headteacher can promote or destroy a school through the climate he/she creates. They observe that the school climate in various ways mirrors the headteacher's personality. The comment made by one of the headteachers who participated in O'Hanlon and Clifton's (2004:3) study captures the effect of the headteacher's personality on the school:

I think that I have heard that some schools even smell like the principal because as the principal walks from room to room that fragrance, whatever kind of fragrance that the lady wears, follows her along.

Available literature indicates that pupils are involved in various types of discipline problems. For example, research conducted by Barone (1997:16) and Nansel, Overpeck, Pilla, Ruan, Simons-Morton and Scheidt (2001:2097-2098) reveal that a considerable percentage of pupils are victims of bullying, aggression or victimization. Researchers and scholars, for example, Orpinas, Horne and Staniszewski (2003:432) and Saxon (2005:9) believe that hostile activities or any form of school aggression can create an environment which is not conducive to learning as it negatively affects pupils emotionally, contributes to pupils' low academic achievement and increases drop out rates.

Apart from that, Hyman (1997:318) states that sexual abuse is common in schools. According to him, the studies carried out by the American Association of University Women in 1993, reveals that sexual harassment is a problem so much that an average American school child sees it as an acceptable behaviour, and therefore a natural occurrence. Moreover, Stein and Sjostrom (in Seyfarth 1999:311), show that a high percentage of students are reported to have experienced sexual harassment either from schoolmate or school workers.

A similar study by Curcio and First (1993:46) indicates that people working in schools abuse students through physical and sexual assault. According to them, a teacher was found to have subdued a student persistently to harassment and coercive sex without intervention from the school authority. Again, a teacher weighing 230 pounds was reported to have picked up a 14-year-old boy of less than half of his weight and dropped him on the ground leaving him with a fractured arm for ignoring the teacher's instruction. In the same study a teacher, out of anger hit his student's nose. Besides, Spitalli (2005:30) contends that teachers disturb pupils in other subtle ways. He reports that research has revealed that teachers can and do intimidate pupils by mocking, insulting or ridiculing them. He is of the opinion that intimidating pupils de-motivates and causes pupils to misbehave and more than that pupils feel abused and thus they are upset for a long time. Heller (2002:77) points out that people working in schools are expected to create civilized environment where pupils are moulded to be humane, caring and competent in handling issues in their lives.

Other acts of indiscipline in schools are: teenage pregnancy, drug and alcohol abuse, fighting, violence and gangs. In addition, negligence of duty by the teachers, increase in the number of school dropouts and a decline in the performance of pupils found in schools can be attributed to a negative school climate. The researcher's experience confirmed by the literature on leadership styles and school climate shown that it is possible for a headteacher's leadership style to dictate the type of atmosphere that prevails in the school (Barker 2001:70-72; Williams 2001:41-45).

A number of studies have shown that parents and other stakeholders are highly concerned about the state of indiscipline in schools. For example, studies (Elam, Rose, & Gallup 1996:42) and Okorie's (2003:109-110) reveal that the headteachers are aware that parents are worried about lack of indiscipline, drugs abuse, alcoholism, fighting and gangs, vandalism and other criminal activities that children commit in schools. These researchers state that the community wants to see that the purpose of schooling is being fulfilled; and that pupils are being prepared to become responsible citizens in the society. This implies that the present situation in some schools does not contribute to the fulfilment of the community's dreams.

O'Hanlon and Clifton (2004:2-3) hold that a positive school climate does not exist by chance rather the headteacher's expectations, examples and values shape the climate of the school. Thus, it appears that the headteacher's leadership style impinges on the school climate. This has motivated the researcher to investigate the relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the researcher believes that the issue of individual headteacher-teacher relationships which, according to Barnett and McCormick (2004:430) has not been given the due attention, in research is critical to the improvement of performance in schools. The researcher therefore, assesses the relationship between the headteacher's behaviour and the atmosphere that prevails in Botswana secondary schools.

1.2.2 Exploration of the Problem

The Botswana Commission for Education reports that schools in Botswana are intended to instil in pupils 'moral and social values, cultural identity and self-esteem', so that pupils can become responsible and productive citizens (Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) +1994:5). In effect, schools are given the responsibility to mould children into dependable adults in the society. However, Phaswana (1996:136) observes that pupils have become 'socially corrupted and modern cultural misfits'. The Botswana Presidential Botswana Task Group (1997:18) and Pinielo (2003:13) report that there is an increase in the number of pupils dropping out of Botswana schools because they are being bullied by peers and assaulted by teachers. According to Pinielo (2003:13), 92 percent of pupils were beaten by teachers and the same percentage of pupils was victim

of bullies; 94 percent complained of theft cases, which were said to be rampant among pupils. The findings from the same study also reveal that more than 50 percent of the parents of the pupils studied do not believe that their children are happy in schools.

Mokgabisi's (1994:32) study to explore the knowledge, attitude and practices of smoking among adolescents, reveals that 20 out of 50 respondents smoked essential cigarettes while 3 of them admitted to smoking dagga. Peer pressure was found to be the main factor for school students for smoking habit. A similar study conducted by Gatsha (1998:27) reveals that some community junior secondary school students are involved in drug abuse, sexual misconduct, stealing, truancy, vandalism and some drop out because of early pregnancy. According to Gatsha (1998:28), the situation is serious to the extent that the school often calls parents to pay for the damage caused by students and sometimes invites the police to intervene. The study also indicates that such students do not usually perform well in their studies. From the foregoing, it is evident that many pupils involve themselves in immoral activities.

Reporting suicide cases in Tutume Mc Connell College, Gabathuse (2003:16) confirmed that two of the three students who committed suicide cited social problems as reasons for taking their lives. The suicide victims were suspected to have taken part in destroying the boys' hostels by setting the building ablaze, an incident that occurred just before the suicide cases.

Mosomodi's (2002:20) study reveals that a large proportion of students have as many as ten lifetime partners. As a result students are at high HIV/AIDS risk. Also, Phaswana (1996:136) asserts that some male teachers in Botswana schools, due to lack of professional ethics have established sexual relations with students. Nduchwa's (1998:46) findings confirm this assertion as it reveals that sexual relationship between teachers and students is not uncommon in community junior secondary schools. Moreover, Phaswana (1996:137) observes that many teachers in secondary schools have a negative attitude towards their profession, and this has caused concern among parents and stakeholders; 'absenteeism, negligence of professional duties and *laissez faire* attitudes are seen among

teachers in many schools. Phaswana (1996:136) expresses concern over the rate of staff turn-over and transfer of teachers which destabilizes the smooth running of any school; as a result, there has been a gradual decline in performance of secondary school students from year to year.

Moswela's (2004:173) recent study on discipline in Botswana secondary schools indicates that students' misbehaviour is on the increase. The study also indicates that there is correlation between students' behaviour problems and their performance on one hand and between students' behaviour problems and the school's performance on the other. The National Conference on Teachers Education (1997:343) states that 'students' general behaviour is responsible for the decline in some schools' performance. Then, the question is what can be done to improve the situation? Moswela (2004:179) holds that for effective learning to take place, the learning environment must be friendly to both the students and the teachers. He believes that learning can become more pleasant and effective if the school environment is more conducive and welcoming than hostile. This situation could be linked to the absence of the necessary leadership skills and appropriate leadership styles. Even though there may be other factors contributing to this situation, one major factor that could be responsible is the headteachers' lack of the necessary leadership skills and appropriate leadership styles.

1.2.3 Statement of the research questions

The above-mentioned situation may create a negative climate in schools. The questions that arise from this are: (1) If headteachers are equipped with the necessary leadership skills, are they using the appropriate styles? (2) If they are well informed about school climate, could they help to create a more positive and open climate where students can learn and teachers love to work? Whatever the answers to these questions, it is essential to ascertain whether the school headteacher can play an important role in creating a positive climate through effective leadership. It is important to find out which leadership style(s) the headteachers use and whether these styles create a type of climate. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What different leadership styles are employed by school headteachers?
2. What are the different types of climates in schools?
3. Are the leadership styles of school headteachers responsible for the climate that exists in their schools?
4. What are the implications of the headteachers' leadership styles for school climate?
5. How can school climate be improved? What roles can the headteachers, teachers and other stakeholders play to improve school climate?

1.3 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study will contribute to knowledge, which might justify stakeholders' expectations of the headteachers. The researcher believes that the starting point to improve the performance of both the teachers and the pupils is to improve the school climate. Thus, this study will help some headteachers who for one reason or the other have not been effective in carrying out their responsibilities and therefore work with more effectiveness and efficiency using appropriate leadership styles to improve school climate.

The findings will reveal ways the Botswana headteachers could adjust their leadership styles to create or enhance a positive school climate. It is assumed that a positive school climate enhances effective teaching, therefore better academic performance by the pupils, which should it might invariably lead to the fulfilment of Botswana's Vision 2016 (the time when the Batswana are expected to be able to compete at global level, fifty years after independence), the time to witness availability of manpower, competent intellectuals from different areas: scientists, engineers, doctors, lawyers, and other professionals (Tabuse 2003:17).

The results of this research will contribute to those studies, which have been carried out, in the quest for broadening and understanding the roles of headteachers with regard to school climate. Finally, the study will assist the Botswana policy makers to assess the

contents of the courses necessary for prospective and incumbent headteachers, to ensure that they are equipped with relevant skills required to run schools in a way that would enhance the achievement of Vision 2016 goals.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The research investigated the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and school climate in Botswana secondary schools.

1.4.1 Objectives of the research

- To review literature on leadership styles and school climate with the intention of identifying the relationship between leadership styles and school climate.
- To conduct an empirical study of the leadership styles headteachers use in secondary schools, as well as the climate of their schools, in order to identify the relationship between the two variables in a typical school setting.
- To make recommendations for the improvement of school climate based on the findings of the study.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

This research falls under the sub-discipline of Educational Management, with particular emphasis on the school headteacher. Participants in the research will be headteachers and teachers selected from thirty community junior secondary schools in Botswana.

1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS AND ACRONYMS

The following concepts are defined to convey the sense in which they are used in this study:

1.6.1 Leadership Style

Mazzarella and Smith (1989:58) describe leadership style as the manner a leader leads, which is reflected in some of the things headteachers do which include: how they communicate leadership, exercise power and authority and the effect these have on teachers and other school staff members. Based on the above definition, leadership style may be described as the way a leader influences his/her followers either by commanding or motivating them to achieve the set goals. Mazzarella and Smith (1989:58) assert that the manner a leader leads determines whether he/she will accomplish school goals or maintain positive relationships with staff members.

Owens (1991:143) opines that leadership style is determined by what the headteacher does to motivate his/her subordinates to put in their best to accomplish the set school goals. He observes that some leaders set a higher value on task accomplishment while some, on maintaining good interpersonal relationship. Litwin and Stringer's (1968:104-105) research indicates that a leader is spurred to embrace certain styles based on his/her underlying attributes and workplace goals. These styles, according to them, affect workplace environment and employees performance on the job. That is, the headteachers' motives and the school's aims influence the manner the headteachers run the school.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:163) observe that a leader develops his/her style over a period of time from experience, education and training. These authors claim that leadership style is more of how the subordinates perceive their leader's behaviour than how the leader thinks he behaves because his/her subordinates will treat him/her based on how they perceive his/her behaviour in various situations. This implies that the teachers' assessment of the headteachers' leadership styles is most likely to be the headteachers' styles of leading the school.

1.6.2 School Climate

Freiberg and Stein (1999:11) refer to school climate as the core of the school; the value of a school that brings about a wholesome learning place, where pupils' and parents' dreams and ambitions are tended, and teachers motivated to function at their best, where everybody is respected and feel attached to the school.

School climate is defined by Hoy and Miskel (2001:189-190) as a blend of beliefs, values and attitudes of pupils and staff members, headteachers and parents, level of independence, styles of leadership and job satisfaction. From the above definitions, school climate may be perceived as a term used to portray the atmosphere of the school which is mainly influenced by the headteacher and dictates how pupils and teachers perceive their school and affects their values and attitudes toward school and job respectively.

Researchers of school climate, for example Hoy and Sabo (1998:92) observe that a positive school climate is related to the effectiveness of whole school. This is to say that there is a connection between positive school climate and school effectiveness. In addition to that, Litwin's (1968:28) study reveals that it is possible to create noticeable climates within a short period of time by varying leadership styles. The implication of this is that leadership styles dictate organisational climate. However, most authors on school climate are of the opinion that the perceptions of students and the school community are important components of creating a good climate where teachers can teach and pupils can learn and parents can be involved in the education of their children.

1.6.3 Headteacher

Unit University of Leicester (1994:63) describes a headteacher as an individual who supervises the school activities and occupies the position of the school leader and he/she is perceived as the significant figure in initiating and realizing of the innovations that take place in the schools.

Chapman and Snyder (1997:92) describe a headteacher as a ‘powerful gatekeeper’ for he/she plays significant roles in shaping the school and developing shared goals, promoting collaborative work structures and conducive learning climate.

Hall, Mackay and Morgan (1986:15) assert that, the headteacher is a symbol of the school both to people within the school and to the community because of his/her position in the school structure. They point out that the headteacher functions as the individual who determines the values held by the school. This seems to be the basis for the general belief that the headteacher is significant a great deal in determining the quality of a school and the pupils’ academic performance (Ribbins 2001:16). Fullan and Watson (in Witziers, Bosker & Kruger 2003:400) affirm this claim by saying that the headteachers are usually regarded as individuals answerable for the educational standard based on the general belief that how a school is led determines the accomplishment or otherwise of the school goals. Based on the above, a headteacher in this study is defined as an individual who occupies a leading position in the school and directs the affairs of the school therefore, he/she is accountable for the success or failure of the whole institution.

1.6.4 Community Junior Secondary School (CJSS)

A community junior secondary school in Botswana is a school which enrolls students for a three year programme of secondary education and issues a junior secondary school education certificate after completion. The idea is to foster the links between the school and the community. It is a school initiated by the community, but jointly run by the Ministry of Education and the community. It is funded and staffed mainly by the Ministry of Education. The partnership is such that the school personnel are answerable to the school board of governors comprises mostly members of the community. Therefore, the community shares in the control of the school. However, sometimes in 2004, the Ministry of Education decided to take full control of all the community junior secondary schools in the country on the ground that the community was not forth coming with regard to its support for the schools.

1.7 THE RESEARCH METHOD

A survey was used because a group of community junior secondary schools (CJSS) considered to be representative of the entire CJSS in Botswana was studied. Data were collected on leadership styles and school climate. A quantitative questionnaire, using Likert-type scales was administered on the teachers. The questionnaire was deemed appropriate because of its usefulness in obtaining data on the feelings and perceptions of a group of people (Nworgu 1991:83). Thus, questionnaires were used to gather information that will reveal the teachers' perceptions of the climate in their schools as well as their headteachers' leadership styles. In addition, interviews were conducted to solicit information from headteachers on what they think of their leadership styles and the climate in their schools.

The target population was the headteachers and the teachers in the 206 CJSS in Botswana. A sample was taken from two congruous regions in Botswana namely: South and South Central. Based on Krejcie and Morgan's suggested sample size (in Hill 1998:6), three hundred and sixty-seven (367) teachers were considered to be representative of the teachers' population (8348 teachers) in all the CJSS in the country. For the purpose of this study, two main instruments are used: a questionnaire for teachers to find out their perceptions of their headteachers' leadership styles and the climate in their schools and an interview guide for the headteachers to gain an insight into the leadership styles they think they use in running the schools. The data collection tool especially the questionnaires, were pilot tested in four (4) CJSS in Gaborone.

Information is collected as follows:

- Theoretical information on leadership styles and school climate.
- Empirical data on leadership styles and school climate.

1.7.1 Instrument for collecting data

Basically two categories of instruments were used namely: the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) questionnaire and the Organisational Climate

Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ). Hersey and Blanchard (1977:84) developed LEAD in order to measure three aspects of leader behaviour: style, style range and style adaptability. The LEAD instrument is of two types: LEAD-Self and LEAD-Others. The LEAD-Self was meant to measure the leader's self-perception of his/her leadership style while LEAD-Others was meant to reflect staff members' perceptions of their leader. And since leadership style is based on the followers' perception which is how it is used in this study, the LEAD-Others instrument was used to measure the leadership styles of the headteachers (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:288-293). In addition, interviews were carried out to solicit information from headteachers on how they perceive their leadership styles. The interview guide questions were coined from the LEAD-Self questionnaire.

The second category of the instrument is the Organisational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ). The OCDQ was initiated and developed by Halpin Croft in 1963 to measure school climate with emphasis on teacher and principal behaviours as perceived by the teachers. This instrument consists of sixty-four (64) Likert -type items used both by teachers and principals to describe interpersonal relationships in their schools. The OCDQ comprises eight dimensions of organisational life. Four of the eight dimensions identify characteristics of teacher behaviours and the other four describe characteristics of principal behaviours. Halpin (1966: 170) together with Croft identifies a continuum on which climate run from open-to-closed. This instrument was used to measure school climate. The two instruments: the LEAD and the OCDQ were adapted and used in this study. School records, especially, attendance records of teachers and students were examined. Discipline referrals to the office, number of students on suspension, expulsion rate and the level of noise making along hallways were also observed.

1.8 PLAN OF STUDY

Chapter 1 begins with background information on the research project. It also states the statement of research problem, and aim and objectives of the study. The scope of the

study, definition of concepts, research methods and research structure, are also included in this chapter.

Chapter 2 presents the review of literature relating to the first research objective, literature study on leadership style. It also highlights review of literature on factors affecting leadership style, and models from different perspectives are discussed, analysed and interpreted.

Chapter 3 covers the other aspect of the first research objective, review of literature on school climate so as to identify its connection with leadership style. Therefore, this Chapter presents relevant literature on school climate. School culture is also included in this chapter.

Chapter 4 deals with the second research objective: to carry out an empirical study of headteachers' leadership style and the existing climate in their schools. Again, this is to pinpoint any relationship between leadership style and school climate. Thus, this Chapter presents the findings from the empirical study.

Chapter 5 and 6 makes recommendations based on the research findings. Thus, Chapter 5 contains the data analysis and interpretation. And chapter 6 presents the research findings from the literature study as well as the empirical study as well as conclusions based on the findings, and recommendations for improvement. It also delineates areas for further research.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The present situation of education, especially in some secondary schools, calls for attention. Management and administration of education at the school level needs improvement to ensure higher learning and achievement (RNPE 1994:43). Lack of discipline on the part of some teachers and a good number of pupils, is a cause for concern. One of the ways to address this situation is to create a more positive climate

that could enhance the performance of many teachers in schools, so that they can be more committed to their job; and the pupils improve on their behaviour and academic achievement. It is assumed that if a relationship exists between the leadership style of the school headteacher and school climate, then, leadership styles of the headteachers could be employed to create a more positive school climate. The next chapter deals with leadership styles: the various leadership perspectives, different leadership styles and their effectiveness in different situations.

CHAPTER TWO

A REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP STYLES LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Three research objectives were stated in Chapter One of this study: first, to review literature on leadership styles and school climate; second, to conduct an empirical study on the leadership styles the headteachers use and the climates that prevail in their schools and third, to make recommendations for the improvement of school climate according to the findings of the study. This chapter covers only a part of the first of these objectives: a review of literature on leadership styles. The purpose of reviewing literature on leadership styles is to have a better understanding of leadership style as a concept, to examine different leadership styles to see their effectiveness and how each style affects the relationship among the people in the school.

The interpretation of various leadership models suggests that no single leadership style is adequate to run a school effectively. Rather, the combination of styles is effective if used appropriately as the situation demands. More importantly, high performance should be the aim of any organisation, especially the school as the brain of any country. The school administrator is looked upon to create a suitable atmosphere where pupils can be effectively prepared to meet future challenges. Even though there are other factors, which influence school climate, the headteacher's behaviour is to some extent instrumental in enhancing a goal oriented school climate, as they are responsible for how the school is run. In order to assess the relationship between leadership styles and school climate, which is the focus of this study, it is logical to examine various leadership styles. Therefore, this chapter deals with the concept of leadership, the significance of leadership and several leadership notions and paradigms in order to unravel and pinpoint the link between leadership styles and school climate.

2.2 WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

For more than half a century the term *leadership* has been a topic of discussion and research work especially in the field of management and organisational development. More often than not, such discussions and or research work focuses on the issue of quality of leadership, ability of leader or leadership effectiveness or leadership styles (Adlam 2003: 205-206). According to Adlam (2003:204), leadership is a rather complex concept. This is especially true because several approaches have been employed to provide meaning to the term leadership and effectiveness. Therefore, leadership has been defined from different and some of the definitions are discussed below.

The traditional perspectives perceive the concept of leadership as inducing compliance, respect and cooperation. In other words, the leader exercises power over the followers to obtain their cooperation (Anderson, Ford & Hamilton 1998:269). In addition to that, the old leadership perspectives are based on leader's role as formulating goals, and ensuring their efficient accomplishment.

Also, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000: 287) define leadership as a case of interpersonal influence that get individuals, or groups of people to do what the leader wants to be done. By implication, the leader's focus is on what he/she wants from people therefore, followers' input is not encouraged with regard to what it is to be done. However, Maxwell (1999:108) is of different opinion, he argues that the leader's attention is on what he/she can put into people rather than what he/she can get out of them, so as to build the kind of relationship that promote and increase productivity in the organisation.

As the focus shifts from bureaucracy (in which the leader tends to directs others and make decision for others to implement) to non-bureaucracy, the perception of leadership appears to emphasise motivation, inclusion and empowerment of followers. For example, Jaques and Clement (1991:4-5) define leadership as a process in which an individual sets direction for other people and carries them along in that direction with competence and

full commitment. Therefore, leadership is a responsibility characterized by commitment and competence; and it takes place in a role relationship within a social structure. In essence, a leader functions by interacting with other people within a social structure.

There are other views which differ from the more traditional perspectives, Sergiovanni (1999:22), for example perceives leadership as a personal thing comprising one's heart, head and hand. He says that the heart of leadership deals with one's beliefs, values and vision. The head of leadership is the experiences one has accumulated over time and the ability to perceive present situations in the light of these experiences. The hand of leadership, according to him, is the actions and decisions that one takes. In essence, leadership is the act of leading, which reflects the leader's values, vision, experiences, personality and ability to use past experiences to tackle the situation at hand. It may be argued that leadership is a display of a whole person with regard to intelligence, perceptions, ideas, values and knowledge coming into play, causing necessary changes in the organisation.

In the contemporary context, Dubrin (1998:2) defines leadership as the ability to inspire confidence and support among followers who are expected to achieve organisational goals. This has to do with change, inspiration and motivation. It can be inferred that the leader's task is to build followers' confidence in their job so as to be effective on their job. In addition, it is the leader's responsibility to communicate the picture of what the organisation should be, convince followers and channel all activities toward accomplishing it.

Sashkin and Sashkin's (2003:39) and Hoy and Miskel's (2001:393) definitions of leadership appear to be a more recent perspective. They define leadership as the art of transforming people and organisation with the aim of improving the organisation. Leaders in this perspective define the task and explain why the job is being done; they oversee followers' activities and ensure that followers have what they need in terms of skills and resources to do the job. These kinds of leaders develop a relationship between themselves and their followers; they align, motivate and inspire the followers to foster

productivity. This approach's emphasis is on transformation that brings positive change in the organisation, groups, interpersonal relationships and the environment.

Both the old and new concepts of leadership appear to agree on some characteristics of leadership. For example, both agree that leadership does not take place in isolation. Rather, it takes place in the process of two or more people interacting and the leader seeks to influence the behaviour of other people. However, to a large extent, the old concept of leadership is based on exercising power over followers to maintain the status quo, while the new perspective is based on continuous improvement and power sharing with the followers. The old concept of leadership is based on downward exercise of power and authority while the new seeks to develop respect and concern for the followers and see them as a powerful source of knowledge, creativity and energy for improving the organisation.

In conclusion, the issue of change and empowerment is the main focus of the new perspective on leadership. The leader is expected to continually generate new ideas for increasing effectiveness and productivity within the organisation. He/She is required to provide needed strategies for executing the ideas/vision and motivate the employees to accomplish the vision by using their own initiatives to improve their inter-group relations in and the outside school.

2.2.1 The difference between leadership and management

Ubben, Hughes and Norris (2001:13) assert that management is characterized by maintaining standards and an extremely steady environment. That is, ensuring that things are going on precisely according to the existing pattern. Thus the manager is preoccupied with activities that will help to maintain the existing situation in the organisation. Consequently, the organisation almost always has a predictable atmosphere. According to Ubben et al. (2001:13) the manager's belief is that the existing standard is good enough and there are sees no reason for changes and when things are not running as expected; the manager puts things back on track. Management focuses on problem solving and

maintenance. Thus, it can be assumed that the primary job of a manager is the maintenance of the current model.

Leadership on the other hand, according to Ubben et al. (2001:14) is characterized by change and constant improvement. The leader persistently analyses the standard to ensure that the organisation is accomplishing its goals, otherwise the leader initiates change to improve standard. In this regard, Bennis and Nanus (1985:21) argue that 'managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing'. Ubben et al. (2001:14) posit that leadership is problem-finding as well as problem-solving oriented. In effect, headteachers as leaders do manage but use their management skill from a leadership viewpoint.

Davidoff and Lazarus (in Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana 2004:152) assert that leadership is 'providing vision and direction in a school whereas management is 'ensuring that the organisational goals are achieved'. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2004:152) allude to Fullan's opinion on the difference between leadership and management and state that leadership deals with guidance of purpose and motivation while management deals with drawing, effecting and accomplishing things within the setting of effective working relations. Similarly, Dunklee (2000:90) holds that leaders influence while managers implement and administer; leaders motivate while managers facilitate.

Leadership and management according to Lussier and Achua (2001:18) and Bell (1999:57) are interwoven. Lussier and Achua (2001:18) believe that successful managers employ democratic form of leadership as they work with people in the organisation. In addition to that, Bell (1999:57) states that management entails formulating a vision for the school according to its values and the aims of education, while leadership incorporates stating clearly this vision and communicating it to others. In essence, an individual uses both management and leadership skills in a complementary way.

Anderson, Ford and Hamilton (1998:42) propose that the combination of management and leadership is required to successfully transform an organisation and the people in it.

Anderson et al. (1998:45) believe that management cannot function effectively if it does not have leadership as its cornerstone because management is ‘undermined by a lack of humanity, clarity, focus, adaptability and creativity’. Anderson et al. (1998:45) emphasise that both management and leadership must be developed and integrated because of the constant change the world is experiencing in all aspects of human endeavours and assert that an individual manager must lead and each leader must manage in order to respond appropriately to the needed change.

Complementary to Anderson et al.’s (1998:45) opinion about the need to amalgamate both management and leadership, Shermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000:305) contend that the new leadership is inadequate as the emphasis on vision could be so much that the necessary day-to-day activities might be neglected. Therefore, both transformational and transactional leadership functions are needed for the success of an organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi 2000:114). Nevertheless, Gronn (2003:16) reports that school reformers and standards proponents consider the headteachers as leaders instead of managers, because school reformers subscribe to the opinion that leadership is the vehicle for structural change and that the headteachers as the leaders of the school drive it. In effect, the headteachers are expected to initiate and work toward the realization of the necessary change in their schools.

In view of the above, it could be inferred that a manager’s activities are geared toward getting the job done in a particular manner in order to enhance consistency and organisational stability. Whereas, a leader’s activities are directed toward establishing good interpersonal relationships with the followers, motivating and encouraging the followers to be independent as they endeavour to accomplish the shared vision in order to sustain continuous improvement of the organisational performance. However, both management and leadership skills are important for organisation’s effectiveness.

2.2.2 Importance of leadership

There is consensus among scholars that the importance of effective leadership cannot be overemphasised. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:8) maintain that leadership matters because leaders help reduce ambiguity and uncertainty in organisations or society. Leaders take constructive acts to achieve long-term goals and provide clear positive reasons for their actions, goals, and accomplishments. In essence, leaders add clarity and direction to life and make life more meaningful. These scholars say that leadership matters because effective leaders make a difference in peoples' lives, these empower followers and teach them how to make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change.

Schermerhorn et al. (2000:287) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organisation because it determines the success or failure of the organisation. Thus the study of leadership in organisations is closely tied to the analysis of organisations' efficiency and effectiveness. In an organisation such as a school, the importance of leadership is reflected in every aspect of the school: instructional practices, academic achievement, students' discipline, school climate, etc. For instance, the Social Policy Research Association's findings (as reported by Soukamneuth 2004:15-17) on how leaders create circumstances for positive inter-group relations and a caring and safe environment indicate that strong leadership is of great importance. The headteachers in the schools studied were able to prevent disruptive behaviour by promoting positive inter group relations using different approaches to create a safe and caring environment. In essence, the headteacher as a leader needs leadership skills to reduce racial tensions among students that lead to negative social behaviour and attitude.

The findings of Quinn's (2002:460-461) study on the relationship between headteachers' leadership behaviour and instructional practices supports the notion that leadership impacts instruction. His findings indicate that headteachers' leadership is crucial in creating a school that value and continually strives to achieve exceptional education for pupils. Similarly, Waters, Marzona and McNulty's (2004:50) research findings indicate that headteachers' effective leadership can significantly boost pupil's achievement.

Apart from the fact that the headteacher knows what to do, he/she knows when, how, and the reason for doing it, the kind of changes that are likely to bring about improvement on pupils' achievement and the implication for staff and pupils. In effect, the headteacher is expected to communicate expectations for the continual improvement of the instructional programme, engage in staff development activities and model commitment to school goals. It may therefore be argued that a headteacher, who does not engage in actions consistent with instructional leadership, has a wrong perspective of the school's goals.

It takes leadership for a school to be transformed and to be successful. This is evident in research findings as reported by Barker (2001:70-72), which portrays the headteacher as an individual capable of creating the climate needed to arouse the potential motivation of staff and pupils. The study indicates that an effective headteacher can turn around a school that lacks direction and purpose to a happy, goal-oriented and productive school. Thus, it may be argued that an effective leadership is critical in increasing productivity and in transforming an unpromising circumstance in a school.

Likewise, Finn (2002:1) maintains that the most important thing to an organisation is the quality of its leadership, particularly the quality of the headteacher in a school setting. In this context, Hurley (2001:2) upholds that the headteacher is the answer to a school's general development and improvement of academic performance, in that an effective headteacher creates an environment that stimulates an enthusiasm for learning. Accordingly, it implies that the main job of the headteacher is to create an atmosphere that fosters productivity, effective teaching and learning. Therefore, the type of climate that exists in a school could be used as a yardstick to measure the headteacher's effectiveness.

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000:137) and Tirozzi (2001: 438) assert that the headteacher is at the centre of all school improvement initiatives in teaching and learning and therefore, he/she is a change agent for school success, and expected to explore and judiciously utilize the resources for continuous improvement in organisational performance. By implication, if the headteacher is not vision-oriented and productive in

regard to his/her responsibilities, improvement of school achievement will remain a dream for a long time. The question is whether the headteachers in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools carry out their duties such that a positive climate is promoted to improve productivity.

In view of the afore-stated views, in the context of this project, leadership will be perceived as the ability of the headteacher to relate with the teachers such that the flairs that are embedded in individual teachers are liberated, causing them to constantly see and seize opportunities to improve organisational performance and enhance individual development leadership is an integral part of this study therefore various perspectives on leadership will be discussed.

2.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

While the search for the meaning of leadership and the best leadership style continues, (the study is based on the present stand of leadership) various leadership paradigms have been used to describe leadership and leadership effectiveness. Leadership paradigm has changed over the last decades; it has transited from the traditional leadership to the new perspectives. Schermerhorn et al. (2000:287) and Hoy and Miskel (2001:409) categorize trait, behavioural and situational or contingency theories under traditional leadership perspectives, and charismatic and transformational leadership theories under the new leadership perspectives. The focus of all theories on leadership is to determine organisational effectiveness. Below is a background discussion on each theory.

2.3.1 Great man and trait theories

The great man theory is based on the idea that leaders are born with innate, unexplainable leadership skills, which cause other people to see them as heroes. It is based on the opinion that leaders are right and leadership is rooted in the authority of their righteousness. Leaders are elevated by their followers on the ground of their unique

qualities that others do not have. As a result, followers do not doubt their leaders' judgement.

Trait theories are based on great man theories. Trait approach to the understanding of leadership perceives leadership as the core of organisation effectiveness and performance. Like the great man theories, trait perspective assumes that great leaders are born with distinguished traits/characteristics that make them different from other people. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:19) state that researchers like Ralph Stogdill, in his quest for the secret of great leaders, review many research reports on leadership, based on the assumption that great leaders are born. Ralph Stogdill, according to Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:19), found that leaders were a bit more intelligent, outgoing, creative, assertive, responsible, taller and heavier than average people. However, these differences in traits could not provide a solution to the search, as the list was found to be statistically insignificant. Thus, Ralph Stogdill (in Sashkin and Sashkin 2003:19) concluded that a person does not become a leader because of a combination of traits since the impact of traits differs according to situation. Therefore, the characteristics of the situation should be considered before ascribing greatness to an individual as a leader.

Hoy and Miskel (2001:396) report that emphasis on trait research was later focused on comparison between leader traits and leader effectiveness rather than comparison between leaders and non-leaders. According to Hoy and Miskel (2001:396), Ralph Stogdill and other researchers concluded that possession of some traits might contribute to leadership effectiveness. This is different from the original trait assumption that leaders are born not made. Even though there is no list of traits that guarantees leadership effectiveness, a number of traits have been recently identified to contribute to leadership success as it recognizes the influence of both traits and situation. Hoy and Miskel (2001:397-398) identify some traits that are currently associated with effective leadership: self-confidence, stress tolerance, emotional maturity and integrity'. Cooper's (2003:52) experience as a human resource practitioner underpins the fact that a leader's traits influence his/her leadership. He further asserts that the styles managers employ affect their employee to the extent that trait theory should not be neglected. It may be argued that a headteacher who is not confident, tolerant, competent and trustworthy may

not be able to lead successfully. In order to move the school forward, a headteacher should be able to set high goals for himself/herself and the staff.

2.3.2 Behavioural theories.

Behavioural leadership perspective assumes, like trait leadership perspectives, that leadership is central to organisational performance. However, the focus is on leader's behaviour rather than leader's personal traits/characteristics. Hersey and Blanchard (1988:91) report that this approach was initiated at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University in 1945. Various studies were carried out with the intention of identifying leader behaviours that account for effectiveness. Their findings reveal two major forms of leader behaviours namely: employee-centred/consideration and production-centred/initiating structure (Hersey & Blanchard 1988:91-92).

Employee-centred or highly-considerate leader is sensitive to subordinates' feelings and strives to make things pleasant for them. In contrast, production centred leader or a leader high in initiating structure emphasises completion of the task (Schermerhorn *et al.* (2000:288-289). The results indicate that it is important that a leader should be high on being considerate and initiating structure. However, Hoy and Miskel (2001:401) maintain that it may be difficult to match a leader's behaviour with effectiveness if appropriate behaviours cannot be linked to different situations, as situational factors affect the effectiveness of leader's behaviour, even when a leader is high on people as well as tasks dimensions. An attempt to make room for situational factors gave birth to situational/contingency theories. The two behavioural types of leadership that will be examined are: Likert's model and Black and Mouton's leadership grid.

2.3.3 Situational/Contingency theories/ models

According to Hoy and Miskel (2001:403), this approach proposes two basic hypotheses: leadership traits and characteristics of the situation combine to produce leader behaviour and effectiveness; situational factors have direct effect on effectiveness. Referring to the

school situation, these scholars explain further that the level of motivation and ability of both teachers and students are related to the goal attainment of schools. Also, the socio-economic status of pupils in a school relates to the pupils' achievement on standardized tests. Hoy and Miskel (2001:403) uphold the fact that it is likely that the situational characteristics of a school have greater influence than a leader's behaviour on leadership effectiveness. Thus, it is concluded that it is possible for one type of leader to be effective in one set of circumstances and under another set of circumstances, a different type of leader is effective. Situational/contingency perspectives will be fully discussed later in the Chapter.

2.3.4 The New Leadership Perspectives

The previously mentioned approaches, to some extent, provide insights to the understanding of leadership and leadership effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel 2001:409). Nevertheless, these approaches do not provide a convincing meaning to leadership and its effectiveness; leadership effectiveness is not about possessing personal traits, not about what leaders do (behaviour) nor the leaders' ability to do the right thing at the right time depending on the situation (situational/contingency). In response to the need for the best style of leadership to improve organisational performance, new leadership perspectives have emerged: charismatic and transformational theories. The new leadership approaches are central to transforming people and organisation to achieve desired organisational outcomes (Sashkin & Sashkin 2003:18-28). Transformational approaches will be discussed intensively later in the Chapter.

2.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Every leader in every organisation performs certain roles/tasks for the smooth running of the organisation and improvement of organisational performance. The manner the leader performs these roles and directs the affairs of the organisation is referred to as his/her leadership style. 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. Whether a leader emphasises the task or human relations is usually considered central to leadership style.

Leaders express leadership in many roles. These, among others, are: formulating aims and objectives, establishing structures, managing and motivating personnel and providing leadership (Daresh 2002:11). However, Nathan (1996:7-8) asserts providing leadership is a very essential component of a leader's role. The leadership style leaders choose to perform the above mentioned roles will determine whether they will accomplish the task at hand and long-term organisational goals or not, and whether they will be able to achieve and maintain positive relationships with staff (Mazzarella & Smith 1989:28).

2.4.1 Likert's Management Systems

Likert embarked on an extensive research over a period of 30 years on the basis that a good leader would improve efficiency (Unit of University of Leicester 1994:59). Likert's research covered various firms and organisations, including schools and universities, involving many managers and employees, headteacher and teachers. His findings, revealed four basic styles of management. This model is depicted on a continuum from system one to four: System I: Authoritative-coercive; System II: Authoritative-benevolent; System III: Consultative; and System IV: Participative (Paisey 1992:144).

2.4.1.1 *System I: Authoritative – coercive*

This kind of leadership style portrays the manager as an authoritative leader. He/she demands compliance with orders without explaining the reason behind them. He/she uses threats and punishment to instil fear in the employees, sets goals for the school and his/her decisions are accepted without questioning. The manager does not have confidence in his subordinates. As a result, they are monitored at all times, and he/she focuses on followers' mistakes rather than what they did well. Employee-management interaction is limited and it is characterized with fear and mistrust (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:105) and he/she rarely praises; rather he/she criticizes a lot, leading to followers

loss of confidence in him/her and become less committed to their work (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee 2002:77). Likewise, DuFour and Eaker (1998: 26) confirm that ‘top-down coercive method of running a school leads to lack of commitment on the part of the teachers.

The employees perceive the manager as an inconsiderate leader who is only concerned about completion of tasks. Employees see him/her as a leader who does not consider employee cooperation as a crucial issue in the organisation. Even though there is little upward communication within the organisation, suggestions from employees are disregarded by the manager because of lack of trust. Downward communication is characterized with suspicion. Thus, employees distort the messages, instructions and circulars. This is because employees believe that the communication is serving only the interest of the managers (Hersey, Zigarmy & Zigarmy 1987:12-16).

Teamwork does not exist; teachers are used to achieve goals. They have no say in how they should perform their work and they are expected to work hard to achieve the goals set by the managers. Even though teachers overtly accept their responsibilities because of fear, they resist covertly. As a result, employees disregard the process in a subtle way by giving excuses when they have to carry out their duties. Teachers are dissatisfied with their work and this leads to informal grouping for the purpose of opposing the goals of the school (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:105). Paisey (1992:146) warns against this type of leadership behaviour as managers of successful organisations emphasise consultation, teamwork and participation.

2.4.1.2 *System II- Authoritative-benevolent*

Even though the manager is authoritative, he/she allows a bit of participation by the staff. He/she makes the bulk of decisions, but subordinates are allowed to make decisions within a prescribed framework. Rewards or punishment are used to motivate the workers. Employee-management interaction is characterized with fear, caution and

pretence. Thus, employees' motivation is very low and they are dissatisfied with their job (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:105).

Workers attribute success to the manager. Although workers do not oppose the goals set by the manager, they do not see themselves as part of the organisation. As a result, they are not committed to their work. Communication flows downward mostly from the manager. Workers view orders from the manager as a way of giving them too much work; the manager also suspects upward communication because of lack of trust in employees.

2.4.1.3 *System III: Consultative*

The manager has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in the employees. Although general decisions are made by the manager, 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).

2.4.1.4 *System IV: Participative*

The manager has complete confidence and trusts in the employees. Thus, the workers are involved in the management of the organisation. The workers are highly motivated by

their involvement in the setting of goals, improving methods and appraising progress toward goals. There is good employee-management relationship and the workers see themselves as part of the organisation by exhibiting a high degree of responsibility and commitment (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson 1996:110).

The employees work together as a team. This is because the manager creates a situation where everybody participates fully in the activities of the organisation. Everybody strives to make the organisation a better place to work in. Communication flows to and from the hierarchy, and also among colleagues. This is because the subordinates are well involved in decision-making. The manager's behaviours include coaching team members, negotiating their demands and collaborating with others. The manager still assumes the responsibility of whatever decision that is taken. Informal grouping exists, which works to the achievement of the organisation goals (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson 1996:110).

Conclusively, Likert's management model is mainly based on management activities such as planning, decision-making, communicating, controlling etc. These activities form the framework for defining the four managerial systems from which four management styles are derived. In other words, Likert's proposition is that a manager is categorized as authoritative-coercive, authoritative-benevolent, consultative or participative based on how he/she makes decisions, communicates, organizes and carries out other management tasks, and the amount of involvement he/she allows from group members in the decision-making process.

Of all the above management styles, the participative style is probably the one that can affect an organisation's climate positively. Findings by Goleman et al. (2002:76-77) indicate that the authoritative-coercive management style is the least effective in most situations, because followers become emotionally cold from intimidation and therefore, the climate is affected negatively. However, these scholars suggest that the style is effective during emergency or when all else has failed especially when dealing with problem employees; otherwise, it should not be used in isolation, but should be used with other styles in the interest of building commitment and team spirit.

2.4.2 The Leadership Grid

The leadership grid, formerly known as the managerial grid, which was developed to clarify the dynamics of the dimensions of organisational leadership is based on three leadership dimensions: (in Blake and McCauley 1991:25-26) concern for production or result, concern for people (that is how the leader's feels about and treats the followers) and the motivation behind the leader's behaviour (Blake & McCauley 1991:25-26).

According to Blake and McCauley (1991:xiii) Blake and Mouton's aim was to assist leaders to identify and analyse the alternatives available to them and thereby improve their leadership effectiveness. Blake and Mouton's leadership grid has two axes: one indicates concern for people while the other concern for production. The horizontal axis includes such matters as results (including high quality), performance profits and mission. Concern for people, rated on the vertical axis, reflected in issues as having support for members, achieving results based on trust and respect showing concern for employees' job security. Blake and McCauley (1991:26) state that each of the concerns is rated on a one (1) to nine (9) scale. The leadership grid identifies five leadership styles namely: 1,1 referred to as impoverished; 9,1 called authority compliance; 1,9 is country club; 5,5 is middle of the road; and 9,9 is called team leader (Blake and McCauley 1991:29).

2.4.2.1 *The Impoverished leader (1,1)*

This type of leader has low concern for production and the people. The leader using this style is not really involved in the organisation's affairs and contributes little to it. He/she uses minimum effort to get work done and shows little concern for followers. The little concern he/she has for followers is to get the organisation going (Ukeje 1992:199). Followers are lazy, apathetic and disengaged. Thus, effective production is almost impossible (Paisey 1992:141).

Owens (1991:141) projects the leader as one who is 'going through the motions' because he/she has nothing to offer as a leader as well as an individual. Thus, the required tasks are not done effectively. Invariably, such a leader is frustrated by his/her inability to lead and manage effectively. It has been observed that the headteacher's inability to manage effectively leads to conflict especially among followers. This is because some followers are intrinsically motivated and want to work when there is no motivation coming from the leader.

2.4.2.2 *The Authority-compliance leader (9,1)*

The leader has a high concern for production and a low concern for people. He/she concentrates on getting the tasks done by exercising power and authority, by dictating to subordinates because he believes that the organisation's need does not usually agree with the followers' needs. As a result, the latter are ignored in order to attain the former or it may be the belief that production objectives can only be attained when followers are driven to accomplish the required task (Blake and McCause 1991:54). This type of leader knows what has to be done and directs followers toward the achievement of the goals. Blake and McCause (1991:54) state that for the purpose of efficiency, working conditions is arranged in such a manner that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Paisey (1992:145) maintains that channels of communication are structured in a way that personal issues do not affect work. Activities are carried out according to schedule and followers are not motivated to be creative. Their activities are guided by given policy and instructions. The organisation is perceived as a place of work, where followers' personal problems are not entertained. Ukeje (1992:199) observes that people are treated as machines; machines have no feelings and rarely encounter problems. Since the leader's concentration is on production and how to maximize production, there is close supervision of followers, and interaction is strictly official.

2.4.2.3 *The Country-club leader (1,9)*

Blake and McCanse (1991:78) portray this leader as an individual who has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. According to them, he/she does everything possible to maintain a relaxed friendly atmosphere with no regard for production. The leader using this style believes that if followers are happy, they will be productive. Thus, he/she is less concerned with result directly, but strives to maintain satisfying relationships with followers; so he/she avoids ways of getting into conflict with the followers. There is excessive familiarity between the leader and the followers. Consequently, he/she neither evaluates followers' performance nor treats issues like late coming and absenteeism as unprofessional. Conflicts are usually ignored as the focus is on the emotional needs of followers even at the expense of achieving results and therefore production suffers (Blake & McCanse 1991:78).

2.4.2.4 *The Middle-of-the-road leader (5,5)*

The leader believes that adequate organisation performance is possible if there is a balanced medium concern both for production and people. In this situation, the leader keeps to the middle of the road, so he/she moderately emphasises achieving results to maintain morale of staff members at a satisfactory level. This is because the leader believes that excessive emphasis promotes conflict and it should therefore be avoided. The leader is satisfied with whatever happens in the organisation whether success or failure. There is lack of clear vision for the long-term goals of the organisation (Blake & McCanse 1991:152-153).

2.4.2.5 *The Team leader / high-high (9,9)*

Blake and McCanse (1991:209) describe this leader as a person who has a high concern for both production and people. The two concerns of the leader influence the leader's thinking, feelings and actions while leading. Unlike other leadership perspectives 9,9 approach believes that there is no conflict between organisation's need and followers'

needs to be productive. Therefore, followers are involved as much as possible in determining the methods of work and accomplishment. This to a great extent ensures that the followers understand what is to be done and why it should be done. Thus, leadership style is a goal-oriented team approach that seeks to achieve maximum performance through participation, involvement and commitment.

According to Paisey (1992:145), the leader believes that workers can be highly involved and enjoy their work. Thus, he/she works with the workers as a team to create a good working environment where everybody is committed to the achievement of the organisational goals. The leader delegates tasks to followers and are given freedom to utilize their initiatives to accomplish set objectives. A tension-free atmosphere is created by, involving followers in all organisation's activities and team spirit is emphasised. Thus, followers are motivated to believe in the organisation's mission and work toward the achievement of the organisational goals. Personal problems are attended to and there is element of trust and respect within the organisation (Blake & McCanse 1991:210).

In conclusion, of all the five styles, 9,9 appears to be the ideal style of leadership, which is likely to affect climate positively and yield optimum results. Blake and McCanse (1991:234) confirm this by saying that 9,9 grid style is the best way to obtain results. Goleman *et al.* (2002:64) observe that even though the country-club leadership style 1,9 has limited direct impact on performance, it also has positive impact on climate because it recognizes workers as people and therefore offers emotional support when things go tough in their private lives. Thus, it builds tremendous loyalty between the leader and followers in the organisation. Paisey (1992:146) assert that schools that are normally held to be successful are those whose management involve and emphasise consultation, teamwork and participation. According to him, the focus is usually on unit, in a situation where some staff members do not agree with the policies and practices which have been accepted by a good percentage of their colleagues, they usually give their support. In other words, consultation, teamwork and participation are the key common characteristics of successful schools.

2.4.3 Situational/Contingency approaches to leadership

There are diverse, complex situations in schools. The headteacher is required to size up 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 (2004:4) 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 is that leaders are most effective when they make their behaviour contingent upon situational forces, including group member characteristics. In other words, the type of group and some other factors determine the behaviour of the leader. Thus, situational/contingency theory emphasises 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 1973:178).

Five situational/contingency models will be examined. These are: 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.

2.4.3.1 The Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Continuum

This model explains two major ways a leader influences his/her followers. It is believed that a leader either influences his/her followers by telling them what to do and how to do it or by involving them in planning and execution of the task (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:117-118).

Two related explanations of the leadership continuum are examined: the boss-centred versus employee-centred and the autocratic-participative-free-rein continuum. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Continuum is one of the most significant

situational approaches to leadership. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:162-163) suggest how managers should choose a leadership pattern among a range of leadership styles. The choice is made along a continuum of boss-centred versus employee-centred and autocratic-participative-free-rein leadership. For the leader to choose the most appropriate style, he/she needs to consider certain forces in the manager, the subordinates and the situation.

Forces in the Manager: According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:173), certain forces within the personality of the manager influence his/her behaviour. One of the forces is leader's value system, his belief in involving subordinates in decisions that affect them and how important he considers the organisational effectiveness and subordinate personal development. Another force in the manager is his confidence in the followers. How much trust he has in the workers is influenced by the subordinates' knowledge and competence with regard to the given task Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:173) believe that the leader usually considers himself/herself more capable than his/her subordinates.

The manager's inclination is another force observed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:175). According to them, some managers find it convenient to function as highly directive leaders, while others prefer to share their leadership function with their subordinates. The manager's feeling of insecurity in an uncertain situation is the last factor that influences the manager's behaviour. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:175) associate this factor to the manager's releasing control over the decision-making process and as a result the outcome may be difficult to predict. According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:175), the need of the manager in this respect varies. They, however state that the psychologists view the manager's level of tolerance for this kind of uncertainty as a major variable in individual's way of dealing with problems. The leader who involves the subordinates in decision-making is said to be moving toward the right side of the continuum. The leader has confidence in the capabilities of the followers so much so that he/she values and considers the followers' contribution while making a decision. However, some leaders are more directive with regard to decision-making as they make

decision and announce it. Others prefer sharing decision-making; they involve followers before making decisions. Others release decision making to the staff members; leaving it entirely in the hands of their followers (Dubrin 1998:108).

Forces in the Subordinates: Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:175) assert that a manager considers some factors affecting the subordinates before deciding on how to lead them. In other words, if a manager is aware of and understands the factors that may affect his/her subordinates, he/she is likely to demonstrate the kind of behaviour that will make his/her subordinates effective in the organisation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:175) highlight some conditions that can make the manager to give subordinates freedom to operate as they deem fit: if the subordinates have high needs for independence, that is, if they can function independently; if they have readily to take up responsibilities, if they tolerate ambiguity, if they show interest in the problem and believe it is important, if they have interest in the organisation, if they have the skill to tackle the problem and if they have learned to expect to share in decision-making. Each subordinate is influenced by various personalities; for instance, if there is a group of competent and independent teachers who are emotionally involved in the school affairs, the headteacher could delegate the right to make decisions to them.

Forces in the Situation: These include the type of organisation, the nature of the problem and the pressure of time; what the organisation values coupled with the organisation traditions concerning shared decision-making, influence how much authority can be given to subordinates. Competent and effective subordinates will be able to manage freedom rather than misusing the opportunity, but when the manager is faced with the need to take immediate decision, it becomes almost impossible to involve the subordinates in decision-making because of time constraint (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1978:179). The employee-centred style, though effective, is time consuming (Dubrin 1998:108).

The leader influences the followers in either of two ways: The continuum begins with telling style and ends with the joining style, i.e. the manager can tell his/her staff what to

do and how to do it or share his/her leadership responsibilities with subordinates by involving them in the planning and execution of tasks (Bjerke 2001:63). The leader's behaviours proposed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973:164-165) are:

(a) The Manager makes decision and announces it

The manager uses his/her discretion to make decisions. He/she makes sure that the decision will facilitate what he/she wants to see happening without giving any opportunity for subordinates' input. He/she announces it to the subordinates for implementation and the subordinates are supposed to abide by the decision (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:163-164).

(b) The Manager sells decision

Here the manager makes a decision and sells it to the subordinates. He/she motivates the subordinates by explaining to them the reasons for making that decision. He/she then persuades them to buy the decision explaining how the decision will benefit the subordinates (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973.164).

(c) The Manager presents ideas and invites questions

Here the manager presents his/her ideas. He/she invites questions from the subordinates so as to clarify the significance of the decision and to solicit for its approval. It is up to the headteacher to hold on to or modify his/her ideas (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:164).

(d) The Manager presents tentative decision subject to change

The manager makes a tentative decision and presents it to the subordinates. The decision is subject to change if the subordinates come up with a better idea. This is to say that the

subordinates' viewpoints may bring about a change in the manager's decision (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:164).

(e) The Manager presents problems, gets suggestions, makes decisions

Here the manager as usual, identifies the problems, but does not come up with any solution rather he/she allows the subordinates to recommend solutions. The manager chooses the best out of the solutions recommended by the subordinates and makes the final decision (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:164).

(f) The Manager defines limits; asks the group to make decision

Here the manager defines limits within which the decision must be made and gives his/her subordinates the right to make decisions. He/she joins the subordinates and together as a team they make a decision. All the same, the manager is accountable for the decisions taken (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:165).

(g) The Manager permits the group to make decisions within prescribed limits

The manager gives the subordinates freedom to identify any problem in the organisation and suggest solutions to the problem. From the alternatives given the group selects the solution to the problem. The manager may participate in the decision-making and he/she assures the group of his commitment to whatever decision the group arrives at (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:165).

2.4.3.2 The autocratic-participative-free-rein continuum leadership

(a) Autocratic leadership

The manager retains most authority for himself/herself and makes decision with the mind that the staff will implement it. He/she is not bothered about attitudes of the staff toward

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 himself/herself and serves as an example for the staff. This style is viewed as task-oriented (Dubrin 1998:109). This style is similar to Likert's II and I leadership styles.

(b) Participative leadership

The 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 1998:109-110).

This 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 will be affected by the organisation's decisions are fully involved in the decision-making process. It is believed that subordinates share a sense of responsibility for the organisation when they are allowed to participate actively in decision-making (Prerez, Milstein, Wood & Jacquez 1999:42-44). Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (1998:110-111) is that the participative 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. Seeking advice from an uninformed or incompetent group of subordinates may lead to disaster. However, Goleman *et al.* (2002:67) posit that a democratic leader keeps staff morale high and therefore positive climate prevails in the organisation. There are significant similarities between this style and Likert's systems III and IV leadership styles.

(c) Free – Rein Leadership Style

The manager gives almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organisation. The manager leads the organisation 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 digression from broad organisational policy. Thus, this style of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced employees (Dubrin 1998:111), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy. It is good to mention that this style is the extreme a manager can go. However, while one is not denying the possibility of having this type of leadership in schools, it is probably rare to come across it.

2.4.3.3 Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler (as reported by Lussier and Achua 2001:66) was the first to develop this leadership theory, which shows that situational variable interacts with a leader's personality and behaviour. Fiedler (1967:36) believes that leadership style is a reflection of the underlining need-structure that prompts behaviour. Fiedler (1967:36) is of the opinion that leadership styles are constant. Thus, leaders do not change styles, but they change the situation. The bone of contention here is that a leader's effectiveness depends on the situation (Fiedler 1967:147). This implies that a leader may be effective in one situation or organisation, but not in another. This theory is used to find out if a person's leadership style is task-oriented or relationship-oriented and if the situation (leader-follower relationship, task structure and level of authority) matches the leader's style to maximize performance. Leadership is largely determined by the favourableness of the situation at hand, which means the extent to which the situation allows the manager to exert influence on the subordinates (Fiedler 1967:147).

Fiedler (1967:145-147) conceptualizes situation in terms of its favourableness for the leader, ranging from highly favourable to highly unfavourable situation. He states that the

more control exercised by the leader, the more favourable the situation is for him/her. The favourableness of the situation is determined by three factors. In the order of importance, leader-follower relations come first. This measures how well the followers and the leader get along, how he/she is accepted by the followers. A high degree indicates good leader-follower relations and a low degree indicates poor leader-follower relations (Fiedler 1967:146).

The second factor is task structure, which measures the extent to which the tasks clearly specify goals, procedures and standard of performance. A structured task is routine, simple and easily understood. It is perceived to be more favourable because the leader needs not to be closely involved whereas, unstructured task is ambiguous and complex and this is not favourable for it demands the leader to guide and direct the activities of the staff members (Fiedler 1971:11). The last one is the level of formal authority to punish or discipline, promote, assign work, recommend for promotion and to fire. If the level of authority is high, the situation is favourable, but if the leader's ideas especially with regard to reward and punishment have to be approved by someone else, it means the situation is not favourable (Fiedler 1971:11).

Fiedler (1971:13) believes that a good relationship, a structured task and either high or low position of power leads to a very favourable situation for the leader, but a poor relation, an unstructured task and either high or low position of power create very unfavourable situations for the leader. According to Fiedler (1971:13), a task-motivated leader is suitable for very favourable as well as very unfavourable situations. The theory suggests that if a leader-follower relation is poor, the task is unstructured and the leader's position of power is low, a task-oriented leader will be effective. Also, a task-oriented leader is said to be appropriate for a situation where the leader-follower relation is good, the task is structured and the leadership position is high. Moreover, in case of intermediate favourableness, it is suggested that a person-oriented leader is suitable. It is assumed that this kind of leader would improve leader-follower relation and thereby increase productivity (Fiedler 1971:13). It is however possible to have situations where the leader's style does not match the situation. In this respect, Fiedler (1967:151)

suggests that to be effective, the leader should either adapt his/her leadership style or change the situation by modifying the group task situation.

Fiedler's contingency theory has alerted leaders on the importance of sizing up the situation to gain control. All the same, matching the situation to the leader may create problem because the amount of control he/she exercises varies from time to time. For example, if a relationship-motivated headteacher finds the situation becoming too favourable (good leader-follower relation) for exercising control, it is almost uncertain that he/she would attempt to make the situation less favourable. Thus, the set goals may not be accomplished by such a leader (Dubrin 1998:137).

Dubrin (1998:137) holds that good relationship between leader and follower is the most important factor that makes life easy for the leader in terms of influencing and exercising control over his/her situation. It appears that Fiedler's theory suggests that there are two main leadership behaviour styles: task-oriented and relationship-oriented, otherwise, there are indications that the leader who is high on task behaviour may or may not be high or low on relationship behaviour. However, any combination of those two is possible. It has been observed that leaders who are people-oriented create positive climate in their schools (Lussier & Achua 2001:66-67).

2.4.3.4 The Path-goal leadership model

Path-goal model is rooted in motivation theories of goal setting and expectancy. The authors, House and Mitchell (as reported by Okumbe 1999:93) use this leadership model to explain how a leader's behaviour influences the performance and satisfaction of the subordinates. According to Okumbe (1999:93), the fundamental principle of this model is that leadership behaviour should be motivating and satisfying to the extent that it increases goal attainment by subordinates and clarifies the behaviour that will lead to these goals/rewards.

Unlike some contingency leadership models, this model does not have a leader trait and behaviour variable. Therefore, it allows for the possibility of adapting leadership to the situation. House and Mitchell's proposition is that a leader should choose a leadership style that considers the characteristics of followers and the demand of the task (Dubrin 1998:138). The leader's major task is to increase subordinates' motivation for the achievement of personal and organisational goals. Motivation is said to increase by clarifying the subordinates' path to the rewards that are available or increasing the rewards that the subordinates value and desire, that is, the leader assists the subordinates to identify and learn behaviour that will lead to successful task accomplishment and organisational rewards (Lussier & Achua 2001:173).

Pertinent to this model is the ability of the leader to match his/her leadership style to the prevailing situation and the step the leader can take to influence performance and satisfaction (Dubrin 1998:138). House and Mitchell (as reported by Dubrin 1998:138) suggest that based on the situational factors, the leader should choose one of four leadership styles that will enhance goal achievement through performance and satisfaction.

Situational factors, according to this model, consist of the type of subordinates and the nature of work to be performed. The type of subordinates is determined by how much control they think they have over the environment in terms of their perception of and attitudes toward authority, goal achievement, ability to perform the assigned task and relationship among subordinates in the area of job satisfaction. For instance, subordinates who attribute outcome to their own behaviour are likely to be satisfied with participative leader's approach while subordinates who attribute outcome to external factors are likely to be efficient under a directive leader. Similar to this is how subordinates perceive their abilities, those who feel their ability is high will not need a directive leader and those who think their ability is low will prefer a directive leader. House and Mitchell (in Moorhead and Griffin 2001:347) suggest that a leader can behave in different ways in different situations. The following are the four kinds of leaders' behaviour:

(a) Directive leadership 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 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).

(b) Supportive leadership 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 work does not provide job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel 2001: 408).

(c) Participative leadership 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).

(d) Achievement-oriented style

In this style, the leader sets challenging but achievable goals for the subordinates. He/she pushes work improvement and 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) behaviour. This style works well with achievement-oriented subordinates (Lussier & Achua 2001:175).

Path-goal leadership model proposes that:

- subordinates see the leader's behaviour as acceptable and satisfying when it is instrumental to obtaining future satisfaction.
- the leader's behaviour will be motivating so much so that his/her behaviour influences expectations and performance to the extent that it complements subordinates' work environment by providing needed guidance, clarity of direction and rewards for performance (Ubben et al. 2001:24).

In conclusion, the success of this model is based on the ability of the leader to thoroughly motivate the subordinates because the subordinates are satisfied and work hard if there is an indication that their efforts will lead to things that they highly valued, such as awards, promotion, etc. All the same, this model is said to be complex as the leader may find it difficult to know which style to use and when, considering those situational factors (Lussier & Achua 2001:175-176).

2.4.3.5 The Vroom-Yetton-Jago normative contingency model

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model was the original work of Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton and was later modified by Vroom and Arthur Jago. Vroom and Jago (1988:1) 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 leader behaviour and that is subordinates' involvement in decision-making. The authors assume that a leader may exhibit different leadership styles; this is particularly important when it comes to the decision-making process. The leader should be able to know when to take charge and when he/she should allow the group to take decisions (Vroom & Jago 1988:1).

Vroom and Jago (1988:54) propose 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 consultative and applies the leadership style that is appropriate to the decision situation. The assumption is that the leader has to adapt his/her style to the situation. These authors 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 is focused on developing subordinates' capabilities in the area of decision-making (Dubrin 1998:148). Two of the following five decision-making styles are autocratic (AI and AII); two are consultative (CI and CII) and the last one is group-directed (GII).

(a) An Autocratic process

i) Autocratic I (AI)

In this leadership style, the leader makes decisions alone using available information. Information is not verified and he/she does not seek any input from the subordinates. It is regarded as a highly autocratic style (Owens 1987:144).

ii) Autocratic II (AII)

This is seen as a less autocratic leadership style. The leader seeks information from the teachers but he/she takes decisions alone. The leader may or may not be told of the issue at hand; he/she is only interested in gathering information from the subordinates and not in their input to the decision (Lussier & Achua 2001:177)

(b) A Consultative process

i) Consultative I (CI)

Here, the leader meets with relevant teachers individually, explains the situation and gathers information and ideas on the decision to be made. Then, he/she makes the final decision alone. He/she is not bound to use the subordinates' input while taking the decision (Owens 1987:144-145).

ii) Consultative II (CII)

With this style, the leader shares the problem with the subordinates collectively. The subordinates are involved and encouraged to make suggestions in order to solve the problem. However, the leader makes the final decision (Owens 1987:144-145).

(c) A Group directed process

i) Group II (GII)

This style is called highly consultative because the leader does not impose his/her will on subordinates. The leader using this style meets with subordinates to discuss the issues but his/her major task is to focus and direct the discussion, rather than to try to influence or manipulate the group to adopt his/her decisions. He/she assists the group to reach a consensus. If there is consensus, the leader readily accepts the decision. Otherwise, he/she makes the final decision based on the group input (Lussier & Achua 2001:177).

This model requires the leader to be able to make effective decisions and to apply the continuum of the five decision styles depending on the appropriateness of the decision situation. It is essential that the leader first of all select one of the four normative models based on the decision. Therefore, the first variable is based on type of decision to be made, individual or group. Then, he/she considers whether the decision is being driven by time or development of the group.

Vroom and Jago (1988:60) describe seven situational issues listed below to each of which the leader is expected to answer 'Yes' or 'No' they are to assist a leader to reach appropriate decisions:

- Does the problem possess a quality requirement? An aspect of quality may be time, e.g. Is it a decision that must be made instantly with no time to consult others? Other quality factors may be the desirability of stimulating team development or keeping people informed through participation.

- Does the leader have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision? The leader can have personal information and or information from subordinates' contributions.
- Is the problem structured?
- Is acceptance of the decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
- If the leader makes a unilateral decision, how certain is it that the subordinates will accept it? Is the decision a routine one or a new complex decision that may need the leader only or inputs from subordinates?
- Do the subordinates share the organisational goals to be obtained in solving the problem?
- Are the preferred solutions to the problem likely to create conflict among others in the group?

(d) Decision process flowchart

The flowchart in the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model is used to diagnose the situation contingencies by answering 'Yes' or 'No' to the questions stated above. The first three questions are related to the quality of the decision and the last four are related to the acceptance of the decision by followers. The questions are written above the decision process flowchart. Responses yes or no to the above questions indicate the use of a particular style. The flowchart suggests that there are valid reasons why various leadership styles are used in specific, describable situations to bring about effective solutions to problems. The main idea of this model is that leaders have the ability to vary their styles to suit the situation at hand (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:128).

Moorhead and Griffin (2001:350) assert that this approach to decision making is generally supported by research. It is believed that a leader who consistently uses this model's predictions in decision-making is more effective than those who are inconsistent with its application. It therefore seems to be a valuable yardstick to measure the level of subordinates' participation in decision-making process. When subordinates are involved in decision-making, they willingly work toward the execution of the decision. This, in a

way, affects climate positively because it indicates that the leader recognizes that followers can contribute to the improvement of the organisation and this increases followers' confidence. By implication, in an educational setting, the headteacher needs to assess the situation properly to know when and how to involve the staff in decision-making. Nevertheless, the staff full participation in decision-making is important especially when such decision will demand the staff to alter their programme and make some changes. For example, if the students general academic performance is not pleasing to the headteacher and he/she thinks that extra lesson and an increase in study hall period will make a difference, the headteacher cannot afford to leave the staff out of such decision-making because successful implementation depends on the staff's willingness to sacrifice some of their personal time.

2.4.3.6 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977:160) work was based on Ohio studies on leadership. It is a two-dimensional model with four leadership styles. The emphasis in Situational Leadership Model is that there is no one effective style in all situations. These scholars suggest that effective leadership is only possible if the leader determines the maturity/readiness level of subordinates before selecting appropriate leadership style. Thus, the model is used to determine which of the four leadership styles (telling, selling, participating and delegating) fits the situation (subordinates' maturity level to perform and complete a specific task) to enhance performance Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson (2001:173-174). Hersey and Blanchard (1993:194-195) state that situational leadership attempts to provide the leader with a possible match between an effective leadership style and the maturity/readiness level of his/her subordinates. According to them many variables affect leadership styles. However they single out maturity/readiness level of subordinates as a major situational factor, which moderates between leadership styles and effectiveness.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:189) define maturity/readiness as the extent to which an individual or group exhibits willingness and ability to accomplish a task. In essence, an

individual is not perceived as ready or not ready in a general sense, but an individual is seen as ready or not ready with regard to performing and completing a specific task. Therefore, Hersey and Blanchard (1993:190) highlight ability and willingness as the major components of readiness. According to them, ability refers to the knowledge, experience and skill which a person or a group brings to a specific task or activity and willingness as the amount of confidence and motivation that a person or group has to complete a particular task.

Interrelated factors determine the maturity level of individual or groups in the organisation. These are job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity is basically the ability of an individual to do his/her work competently. Psychological maturity refers to individual's self-motivation and willingness to accept responsibilities and the possession of necessary skill to carry out the responsibilities (Owens 1991:155-156).

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:187) discuss four leadership styles that are built on two-dimensional concepts, that is, task and relationship behaviour, with emphasis on the maturity level of followers. These leadership styles are: telling, selling, participating and delegating. This theory employs readiness as a factor to analyse the nature of the situation, which can invariably be indicated on a readiness continuum indicating followers' readiness to perform a specific task. There are four types of situations in terms of readiness level. These situations range from R4-R1, indicating high level of readiness and low readiness level respectively (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:194).

(a) Telling style

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1993:192-193), leadership style is characterized by high task and low relationship behaviour. This style is effective when leading low maturity (unable and unwilling or insecure) subordinates, who lack both job skill and motivation. The manager who uses this style has well-defined strategies to accomplish set goals. He/she gives detailed instructions as to what the task is and when, where and how to perform it. The manager directs supports and closely supervises subordinates'

performance. Decisions are made without subordinates' input thus communication is one sided that is, top down. This style is not effective when the manager is seen by his/her subordinates as an individual who imposes methods on others, and who is only concern with the output, and therefore unpleasant. Hersey and Blanchard (1993:193) refer to this style as ruling, directing or structuring.

(b) Selling style

This style comprises both high task and high relationship. It is said to be appropriate when leading low to moderate (unable, but willing or confident) job maturity but psychologically mature subordinates. The manager who employs this style gives the subordinates specific instructions and supervises their work. In addition to that, he/she supports the teachers by explaining what and why the task should be performed as instructed. The subordinates' doubts are cleared, by answering their questions. The manager makes decisions and sometimes consults the subordinates. Thus two-way communication is encouraged. However, the manager has the final say. The style is ineffective if the subordinates do not believe that the manager is genuine in his/her interpersonal relationship and perceive him/her to be initiating more structures/jobs than is needed. Hersey and Blanchard (1993:193) refer to this style as persuading, explaining or clarifying.

(c) Participating style

Like Likert's III and IV leadership styles and Tannenbaum's participative leadership style, this style is characterized by low task and high relationship behaviour. It is effective when leading followers with high moderate (able but unwilling or insecure) maturity. Here, subordinates have high job maturity but low psychological maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1993:193) however, explain that followers' unwillingness to do the job may be as a result of lack of confidence if it is their first time of handling such task, if they lack of motivation as a result of performing routine tasks for a long time or as a result of a clash between the management and the followers. This style is best with highly creative subordinates who have necessary skills and self-confidence. The manager

has implicit trust in the subordinates and is basically focused on facilitating their goal accomplishment. The manager spends a short time to give general instructions and most of the time is used to encourage, support and build subordinates' self-confidence. Subordinates are given a free hand to do the task their own way while the headteacher acts as a facilitator in problem solving and decision-making processes. Communication is two-way because subordinates have ample opportunity to suggest ideas and their suggestions are highly valued (Lussier & Achua 2001:184-185). It is ineffective when the subordinates perceive the manager as a leader who is interested in peace and harmony so much so that he/she would not emphasise accomplishment of a task at the expense of his good relationships with subordinates (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:132). This style is described by Hersey and Blanchard (1993:194) as collaborating and facilitating.

(d) Delegating style

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:194) state that this style is characterized by low task and low relationship behaviour. It is used effectively when leading subordinates with both high job and psychological maturity (able and willing or confident). Followers in this category are well competent and highly motivated. The manager tells the followers what to do, answers their questions and provides little or no direction. The followers are allowed to make their own decisions subject to the manager's limitations. Innovations are encouraged by the manager who equally demonstrates trust and confidence by supporting this set of followers. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1993:132) opine that this style is not effective when followers feel that the manager is providing little structure and support when necessary.

This model proposes that the maturity level of subordinates can be increased and as it increases, the effective leadership style is employed. Effective leadership style is characterized by a drive for task and concern for people. Matching the manager's leadership style with the appropriate situation enhances effectiveness (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:196). This indicates that the increase in level of maturity/readiness with regards to accomplishing specific task will afford the manager the opportunity to change

his/her leadership style to a more relationship-oriented style for increase productivity. The following propositions can be deduced from this model:

- When readiness level of followers is very low (M1), the manager can effectively use a task-oriented, directive, autocratic and telling type.
- When readiness level of subordinates is moderately low (R2), that is when there is an increase in subordinates' readiness level; the manager can use a more relationship-oriented selling type.
- When readiness level of subordinates is moderately high (R3), the manager can use a participating style.
- When readiness level of subordinate is very high (R4), the manager can use a delegating leadership style (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:193-196).

Conclusively, Hersey and Blanchard (1993:196) claim that the success of this model is determined by the ability of the manager to diagnose the readiness level of his/her followers. If the manager is highly skilled as to know when to be task-oriented or relationship-oriented and uses them appropriately, performance will be enhanced. Essentially, he/she should be able to change his/her leadership style with different followers and with the same followers on different occasions. This is because followers perform various tasks and followers may vary in readiness level depending on the type of task to be performed. Since increase in readiness level is possible, it is imperative for the managers to focus on increasing followers' readiness level to maintain steady improved performance, because as they acquire greater experience, ability and commitment to do their task, productivity will be enhanced through shared decision making (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:193-196).

Situational leadership, according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:217) can be employed in different organisational setting. They claim that the headteacher for example who works with experienced staff members would be effective if he/she delegates responsibilities to the staff (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson 1996:221). Given the staff's wealth or experiences, they may not welcome instructions/directions on what to be done. On the other hand, if the headteacher works with unwilling staff that lack necessary

experience, it would be appropriate for the headteacher to be directive in dealing with such category of staff. For instance, a new teacher with little or no experience or a newly transferred teacher needs to be informed on what, how and when things are to be done in accordance with what is acceptable in that school. Besides, a headteacher in a new school, with or without prior knowledge of the school may decide to provide a new direction for the school and so the first few weeks in his/her office may be used to introduce and implement changes after which he/she can vary styles to suit situations. In essence, four basic styles enumerated by Hersey and Blanchard (see section 2.4.3.6) are at a leader's disposal, but they are to be used appropriately depending on the situation.

2.4.4 Charismatic approach

Hoy and Miskel (2001:410) and Lussier and Achua (2001:375) state that Max Weber initiated the charismatic leadership approach in 1947. According to these scholars, Max Weber used the term 'charisma' to explain a form of influence based on followers' perceptions that is endowed with exceptional characteristics. It is referred to as a fire that ignites followers' energy and commitment to bring about results over and above the normal duty. Thus, charisma is defined as the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organisational members and building commitment for the organisation's objectives. Lussier and Achua (2001:375) describe charismatic leaders as leaders who have distinguished qualities to inspire and motivate subordinates more than they would in a normal situation. These leaders, according to these researchers, are likely to surface as leaders during social crisis and are instrumental in making the society aware of its problems and what to do to overcome the crisis.

There are different views on Max Weber's concept of leadership. Some scholars who support the view that charismatic leadership takes place only when the society is in crisis argue that before an individual with extraordinary qualities would be seen as a charismatic leader, the social situation must be such that the followers see the need for the leader's qualities. For example, Martin Luther King, Jr. and Gandhi would not have emerged as charismatic leaders if the social situation in their respective countries did not

call for it. Others argue that charismatic leadership is mainly the result of leaders' attributes and not the situation alone. It implies that if leaders like Martin Luther King, Jr. and Gandhi did not possess these qualities; they would not have been leaders of such followers, regardless of the situation. Yet, others believe that charismatic leadership emerges as a result of followers' perceptions and reactions, influenced by leaders' characteristics, behaviours and the nature of the situation. Lussier and Achua (2001:375-376) state that this view seems to be popular among theorists. Meanwhile, Max Weber's work provides the basis for understanding charismatic and transformational leadership.

2.4.4.1 House's charismatic leadership

According to Hoy and Miskel (2001:411), House and his colleagues maintain that personality characteristics do not make a leader charismatic. Rather, they contribute to the development of charismatic relationships. This theory perceives charisma as the ability of a leader to exercise profound influence on the beliefs, values, behaviour and performance of others, through the behaviour and personal example of the leader, which make the followers attribute outstanding performance to the leader. In essence, a leader is not charismatic unless described by followers as charismatic. Therefore, both the leader and the follower are central to developing a charismatic relationship. This approach suggests that charisma exists in the relationship between a leader who has charismatic traits and followers who are receptive to charisma. This is to say that the manner the followers esteem, admire and give their loyalty to the leader reflects the attributions made about the leader's behaviour and performance.

Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:69) 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. Thus, they get along with followers who are dependent and obedient. These researchers hold that charismatic leaders make empty promises and try to create charismatic feelings among followers by imitating transformation leader's behaviours. They have no vision to communicate; they are inconsistent with regard to their actions, but they pretend to be trustworthy. These scholars add that charismatic

leaders do not empower followers with either authority or responsibility; they capitalize on the need of followers to ask for obedience. These scholars believe that independent achievers cannot follow charismatic leaders because independent achievers are not interested in identifying themselves with a so-called powerful individual. Rather, they prefer a transactional leader with whom they can enter into a realistic contract. Charismatic leaders are not concerned about the followers or the organisation but about self, and so many of them make life unbearable for those who deal with them. In other words, charismatic leader's intent is to maximize personal control through a process of exploitation based on false promises. His/her ultimate goal is to disempower followers and create dependency.

2.4.5 Transformational and Transactional leadership

Our society is characterized by change, which also affects the school as the expectations of the stakeholders change from time to time. In the past decade, schools experienced mental changes in areas such as curriculum development, students and teachers' roles and learning strategies. As a result, educational leadership as a concept has been perceived in another dimension. Leithwood (1992:8) states that the form of instructional leadership matched the era of 1980s and the 1990s as it met the public and decision makers' expectations from the headteacher. However, the changes experienced by schools during the 1990s could not be managed when the headteacher was functioning as an instructional leader. The concept of transformational leadership gradually became an issue as headteachers were expected to bring visionary leadership to the organisation: an area, which was not catered for by instructional leaders (Bogler 2001:663). According to Leithwood and Jantzi (1990:254), headteachers who succeeded in their job used a different method to motivate and bring about changes in their schools. It implies that those who are not successful have not used the kind of strategies that successful headteachers used.

2.4.5.1 Transactional leadership

Bass (1998:121) assert that transactional leadership is largely based on exchanges between a leader and group members, such as using rewards and punishment to control behaviour. Bass (1998:121) states that each enters the transaction because of the expectation to fulfil self-interests and their leader is supposed to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the subordinates. This leadership emphasises process in which the leader defines needs, assigns task, gives rewards to followers for good performance, or punishment for mistakes (Ubben et al. 2001:14-15). For instance, the headteacher observes what the teachers want from work and tries to provide them with what they want depending on their performance. He/she exchanges rewards and promises of rewards for their efforts and responds to their immediate self-interest. Otherwise, he/she uses threats or punishment for their mistakes. Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000:185) opine that a transactional leader has a command and control mentality.

Ubben et al. (2001:14) are of the opinion that this kind of exchange inhibits subordinates' commitment because it is a matter of performing duties as directed; the 'how' and 'what' of the job are given, meaning that teachers are labourers and they do the job because of what they will benefit from it, not because of their loyalty to the headteacher or the school. Lussier and Achua (2001:383) assert that transactional leadership seeks to maintain stability and that is the main reason that Leithwood and Jantzi (2000:114) perceives this concept as management rather than leadership. Thus a transactional leader sets goals for followers depending on the effort he/she expects from them; he/she does not expect the followers to perform beyond normal standard, and makes no effort to change the situation, attitudes and values of followers. Therefore, the transactional leader does not transform followers or organisation.

Bass (1985:135-136) identifies some sub-factors of both transactional and transformational leadership. Sub-factors of transactional leadership include: contingency reward, management by exception and laissez-faire. Bass (1998:6) states that contingent reward refers to the situation where the leader rewards the subordinates on completing an

agreed-upon task. In other words, when the leader is satisfied with the performance of a follower, the leader responds positively by using rewards in form of praise, recognition and recommendation of such follower for promotion. Bass (1998:6) asserts that contingent reward is good, but not as good as any of the transformational components in terms of achieving results.

Bass (1998:7) holds that management by exception could be either active or passive. Active management by exception is related to a situation where the leader watches and searches for instances where subordinates deviate from rules and standards for the purpose of correction. In other words, the leader is all out looking for subordinates' mistakes while performing their duties. Passive management by exception refers to a situation where the leader intervenes only if the standards are not met. Bass (1998:7) believes that contingent reward or transformational elements tend to be more effective than corrective transaction. However, Bass (1998:7) maintains that active management by exception should only be used in necessary situations. Laissez faire, the last aspect of transactional leadership refers a situation where the leader abdicates responsibility and avoids making decisions; a situation where no one is in control creates a lawless environment (Bass 1998:7).

Geijsel, Slegers, and Berg's (1999:317) study reveals that state management by exception is a negative attribute of leadership as it demoralizes subordinates. This is especially true with regard to active management which is seen in terms of looking for mistakes or enforcing rules to avoid mistakes, rather than devising or adopting strategies to correct subordinates' mistakes when they occur. Transactional leadership discourages collaborations between the headteacher and teachers and disregards teacher's potential to contribute to school improvement. However, Sashkin and Sashkin (2003:69) assert that transactional leaders, through their effective management, get things done right, even though it may not always be that the right things are done. This assertion is affirmed by Chirichello (2004:120) whose findings indicate that many headteachers are managers rather than leaders. This is because they spend most of their time on administrative work.

In effect, it is assumed that headteachers waste lots of valuable time on paper work preventing them from focusing on more important aspects of school.

2.4.5.2 Transformational leadership

Norris, Barnett, Basom and Yerkes (2002:85) state that transformational leadership focuses on a different kind of leaders' influence that encourages followers to emerge as leaders. They create organisational conditions in which followers can develop their own leadership capabilities.

Sergiovanni (1999:86) and Wilmore and Thomas (2001:116) hold that transformational leaders share power with followers rather than exercise power over followers. Thus, transformational leadership is meant to empower followers. The leaders are concerned with how to use their power to help followers to accomplish what they think are important, become successful and experience a greater sense of efficiency. Therefore, transformational leaders are aware that teachers need to be empowered to be able to function effectively. As a result, followers are exposed to responsibilities that release their potential. These leaders are more concerned with what followers are accomplishing rather than what they are doing. However, Owens (1998:214) observes that conventionally, schools have ever been places where adults have difficulty in sharing collegiality link which is important to leadership and teachers empowerment. According to Owens (1998:214) empowering teachers to establish a system for shaping the vision/mission of the school and indicating the importance of its accomplishment is the core of aspects of the headteachers' leadership. As a result, the headteachers should exhibit unequivocal interest in fostering collegiality and collective leadership.

According to Cheng and Chan (2000:224) transformational leadership is a pivotal force for activating self-management in schools. Wilmore and Thomas (2001:115-116) state that the quality of school leadership can be assessed by the ability of the headteacher to create a climate that fosters staff and pupil productivity and creativity. They add that transformational leaders are value driven and committed to the creation of learning communities. Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000:185) describe transformational leaders as

visionary, change agent and skilful in dealing with complex issues, such as developing staff, mapping new directions, mobilizing resources, supporting employees, and responding to work-related challenges. If transformational leadership is appropriately practiced, then there is the potential to transform the prevailing negative climate to a positive one in some junior secondary schools and to improve the existing positive climate in other community junior secondary schools in Botswana. This assumption is supported by Sagor's (1992:13) research findings, which indicate that transformational leadership skills are sufficient to bring about constant improvement needed in schools. He observes that the provision of a right mixture of pressure to improve and a worthwhile 'support for improvement initiatives themselves' are effective to maintain a constant improvement in the organisation.

In view of the above, Owens (1998:212) states that an individual can apply leadership by 'working with and through teachers' to improve the manner in which the leader and the teachers socialise with one another. He believes that a vision of a better tomorrow, which is attractive, irresistible and is personally satisfying than the current situation will improve performance and productivity.

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000:185) believe that transformational leaders create incentives for followers to continuously improve their work practices. In view of this, a climate that is conducive to effective teaching and learning is created. Wilmore and Thomas (2001:117) argue that transformational leadership provides direction for the school because transformational leaders are perceived to be educational reformers or agents of positive change in schools. Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000:185) hold that the key goal of transformational leadership is to help teachers build and sustain a collaborative and work-oriented culture, to foster staff development and to help teachers to tackle problems together more effectively. Thus, it appears that transformational leaders give direction to staff and coordinate the work performed by different units in the school, develop a work-oriented school climate, and are given to the desire to continuously improve their work processes.

Wilmore and Thomas (2001:116) state that there are three elements of transformational leadership, which are:

- A collaborative shared decision-making. This underscores the importance of involving other members of staff in decision-making.
- An emphasis on teacher professionalism and empowerment. As a result, transformational leaders emphasise a high professional standard and code of practice to teachers. In order to achieve this, leaders could empower teachers through skills development and delegation of authority.
- Clear understanding of change and how to inspire others to work towards it.

The main task of the headteachers is to be clear about the nature of change their school should embark on. Once this is achieved, mobilizing the support and commitment of staff becomes easier. With reference to this study, the question is whether headteachers in Botswana junior secondary schools assume the roles of transformational leaders in managing schools.

Bass (1985:17) describes transformational leadership as an ‘expansion of transactional leadership’, which goes beyond ‘exchange’ by using one or more attributes of transformational leadership which are: idealized influence/charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Bass (1998:5) perceives idealized influence/charisma as the ability of the leader to build trust and respect in followers such that followers admire, respect, trust and fall for the leader’s vision for the organisation. Bass (1998:5) opines that the leader is ready to take risks; he/she is responsible and reliable and exhibits high ethical and moral standards.

Bass (1998:5) describes inspirational motivation as the leader’s ability to communicate high expectation to followers. This is rooted in the leader’s beliefs and values that are communicated via leader’s behaviour, which motivates and makes the followers see sense as well as the challenge in their work. Team spirit is awakened and followers are enthusiastic about accomplishing the share vision for the organisation. Intellectual stimulation as described by Bass (1998:5-6) is the leader’s ability to create an atmosphere

that encourages followers' creativity and intuition by stimulating followers to be creative and innovative by 'questioning and assumptions, reframing problems' and seeking new ways of approaching issues. When followers make mistakes or express ideas, which are different from the leaders', followers are not criticized. The leaders seek new ideas and approaches of solving problems from the followers.

Bass (1998:6) perceives individual consideration as the leader's ability to give personal attention to subordinates' needs for improvement and growth. This is necessary as it affords the leader the opportunity to help subordinates to realize their full potential. The leader assumes the position of a mentor and creates relevant learning opportunities in a supportive atmosphere, recognizing and accepting individual differences in needs and values, listening effectively, using two-way communication and relating with followers in a friendly manner.

However, Bass and Avolio (1998:137) maintain that the four styles of leadership under transformational leadership are more effective than transactional leadership in obtaining followers' level of growth and performance. In this respect, Hipp and Bredeson's (1995:148) research findings confirm that two of the transformational leadership characteristics (modelling, inspiring and purpose) and one of the transactional attributes (contingent reward) are strongly related to teacher efficacy and therefore pupils performance. Hoy and Miskel (2001:416) assert that transformational leadership resembles people's mental picture of an ideal leader because people prefer a leader who communicates an expectation of high performance instead of over emphasizing transactional activities; someone who develops others and raises teams.

2.5 CONCLUSION

In this Chapter the researcher traced the evolution and trend of leadership and leadership effectiveness from the great man approach to the present day where the focus is on a

transformational approach. The general belief is that empowering, enabling, informing, inspiring and sharing of vision enhance organisational performance.

The literature reveals that leadership takes many forms. For example, the traditional approach makes clear the importance of practicing command or symbolic leadership, which projects image of direct leadership whereby the headteacher is in control: setting goals, defining duties, outlining performance standards, assigning people to work, directing and monitoring the work and evaluating. The headteacher believes that the teachers are driven by self-interest, as a result, he/she does not allow emotion to come into play in dealing with teachers. Thus, his/her focus is on how to motivate teachers to accomplish the defined goals.

The new leadership approach, the transformational approach in particular, emphasises the issue of change, empowerment and purposeful leadership, which gives the image of building human capital in the organisation, transforming the relationship between the headteacher and teachers so that the latter are motivated by unity of purpose and mutually shared values. The headteacher is in partnership with teachers: expressing and articulating values and dreams reflecting the needs, interest, values and beliefs of the staff as a whole. The headteacher focuses on improving the current situation and making leaders out of teachers, thus, he/she shares information and knowledge; teaching them things to do to become less dependent on him/her.

Every form of leadership is accompanied by human relations, style meant to motivate and keep morale up. In other words, the leader's choice of motivational strategies, which again reflects his/her views of human nature, determines the kind of relationship that will develop between him/her and the entire staff and consequently the climate in the school. All things being equal, subordinates normally accept power and authority from the leader. Otherwise, subordinates may withdraw their support and become uncooperative at any given time, which may lead to low performance. Thus, if teachers do not support the school leadership they may quit, seek transfer and may withdraw support by being lethargic, working below their competence level. On the contrary, if teachers are happy

with the leadership, they may show their support by being enthusiastic, hardworking and striving to work beyond their competence level in response to the headteacher's style of running the school.

Of all leadership styles, transformational leadership is found to have the strongest positive impact on school climate. This is because the headteacher's motive is to empower the teachers as partners and both the headteacher and teachers are guided by a shared vision. Staff members depend on one another and work together as a team. A number of scholars, for example, Goleman et al. (2002:85) hold that there is a link between leadership style and climate. In other words, the manner the leader leads determines the climate of the school. For instance, when the headteacher is flexible, able to articulate inspiring goals in the whole staff and give them audience, the climate in school becomes positive, but when he/she is rigid, using command and control style, the staff become demoralized, therefore an unpleasant climate prevails.

Headteachers are aware of the fact that creating a positive and supportive climate is one of the important aspects of their responsibilities. Moreover, they believe that the climate among and between teachers is one of the factors with which to measure school success (National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) 2001:51-52). Therefore, it can be suggested that headteachers should embrace a transformational style of leadership. It is assumed that this style of leadership would be effective in creating a goal-oriented atmosphere in the school. This is because the situation in some schools requires a headteacher who will lift the school from a state of complacency and failure to a state of dignity and high performance. It is assumed that if a headteacher is able to communicate his/her vision for the school, the causes of failure and the need for better performance by setting high standards through his or her example and behaviour, the staff will rise up to new challenges. In other words, when headteachers are able to establish the kind of relationship that causes the staff to see them as partners, with whom they pursue shared goals, it will enhance a positive climate in the school and as a result productivity. This is because the type of relationship that exists between the headteacher and teachers

affects the relationship between teachers and pupils and between the school and parents and ultimately the school climate.

This Chapter indicated that the headteacher is the key individual who can initiate the improvement of school climate in terms of teachers' and pupils' behaviour and attitudes toward school and work. It is clear that teachers' involvement and empowerment enhances their commitment to their job which indirectly builds pupils' character and instils in them the virtue of hard work. As a result, a positive climate prevails in the school. The next Chapter will focus on school climate as a concept: the meaning of school climate, similarities and differences between school climate and school culture, types of school climate and dimensions of school climate.

CHAPTER THREE

A REVIEW OF SCHOOL CLIMATE LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two of this study dealt with leadership styles, which is an aspect of the first objective of this study as stated in Chapter one. This Chapter will consider the other part of the first objective as it presents literature review on school climate. The primary objective of this chapter is to examine the effects of different types of climates on the teachers, pupils and the school as an organisation. In discussing the relationship between leadership style and school climate, which is the aim of this study, it will be necessary to examine the concept of school climate, types of climate and how climate can influence or be influenced by other variables especially leadership style.

For many years, the establishment and maintenance of a positive climate in schools have been the focus of educational reformers and researchers. Therefore, there is a growing interest in investigating factors, which account for the differences in climate that prevails in schools. Halpin (1966:131) observes that schools differ in many ways, in both tangible and intangible ways. Schools have distinctive identities, which distinguish them from one another; standard of pupil's behaviour and academic attainment differ between schools regardless of comparable intakes and areas in which the schools are situated. The previous chapter revealed that to some extent, the headteacher's leadership style determines the climate of a school, but teachers, pupils and parents' behaviour are also contributing factors to the existing climate in a school. Therefore, in discussing school climate, the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents are considered the units of analysis.

The focus of this chapter will be on the types and dimensions of school climate. The impact of all types of climate on pupils, teachers and parents will be examined, using some perspectives on climate with more attention on open-closed climate perspectives. The analysis of different perspectives indicates that headteacher, teachers, pupils and

parents' behaviours affect school climate, but the headteacher's behaviour is the generating factor that determines the school climate. In this respect, a case could be made that to some extent, there is a link between the headteacher's behaviour and school climate.

3.2 WHAT IS SCHOOL CLIMATE?

The organisational climate as a concept originated in the late 1950s as social scientists studied variations in work environments. Andrew Halpin and Don Croft were the pioneering researchers of school climate. They published the results of their research on school climate in 1963. Thus, the concept came to limelight and their work forms the basis upon which other scholars and researchers on school climate build (Freiberg 1999:3).

Various researchers and educational reformers have defined school climate in different ways, but there seems to be consensus on what constitutes school climate. Freiberg and Stein (1999:11) assert that school climate is the 'heart and soul' of a school; the feature of a school that motivates pupils, teachers and the headteacher to love the school and desire to be there each school day. The heart and soul are used metaphorically to underscore the importance of school climate; it motivates and gratifies school members that they feel comfortable while in school making them to be attracted to the school. In view of this, climate is the aspect of the school that gives it life and reveals values that the school cherishes.

Hoy and Miskel 1996 (as reported by Sweetland and Hoy (2000:705) define school climate is as a relatively enduring quality of the whole school which is experienced by the group, depicts their shared perceptions of behaviour, and influences their attitudes and behaviour in school. Moreover, Gilmer (1971:28-29) perceives organisational climate as those characteristics that distinguish an organisation from its kind and influence the behaviour of people in the organisation. In other words, just as certain behaviours are peculiar to an individual and are used to distinguish the individual from other people,

each school has its own peculiar characteristics in terms of the way people interact, treat and respect one another, which in turn bears on their perception of their school and accounts for their attitude and behaviour toward school and the quality of school work. Thus, the general perception of the climate as the personality of the organisation; and the notion: climate is to organisation as personality is to individual (Halpin 1966:131). Therefore, the climate in school A will be different from the climate in school B.

Litwin and Stringer (1968:1) maintain that organisational climate is a set of ‘measurable properties of the work environment’, based on the collective perceptions of the people who live and work in the environment, and whose behaviour is influenced by their perceptions. Similarly, Cooper (2003:35-36) describes organisational climate as people’s perception of their working environment with regard to caring and friendliness. In other words, organisational climate is more or less the people’s understanding of the amount of kindness and hospitality they receive as they interact with the management. In effect, school climate is subject to the perceptions of staff and pupils, which again influence their behaviour, and it is measurable.

From the above definitions, it can be inferred that school climate has everything to do with the atmosphere, tone or feeling that prevail in a particular school. It is brought about by the interaction between the headteacher and teachers, among teachers and pupils and between the headteacher and pupils. The school as a system of social interaction compels the headteacher, teachers and pupils to interrelate at administrative level in area of planning, decision-making, problem solving and control. They also interact through personal matters, which are part of normal school routine. For the purpose of this study, school climate is used to refer to the way the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents experience and perceive the quality of the working situation emanating from their interaction.

School culture and school climate are sometimes used interchangeably. Even though the two concepts are similar in some aspects, yet there are some distinct differences. In the 1930s and 1940s, the idea of organisational culture surfaced in order to provide a better

understanding of the basic meaning and character of institutional life. Describing the nature and function of the informal organisation, Mayo's (2001:57-58) study suggests that standards, values belief and emergent interactions in the work place are very significant because they clarify the nature and function and effect of the informal organisational performance. That is, the ways of doing things and what the organisation holds important affect the behaviour of people working in the organisation, and consequently productivity. In this regard, Selznick (1957:17) suggests that organisations are not only to be seen as institutions, but also organisations where technical requirements are not placed over and above values that give them distinctive identities. This distinctive identity, according to him, attaches individuals to the organisation and causes its members to be loyal and committed to the organisation. It is Selznick's (1957:57) view of organisations as institutions that forms the basis for analyses of organisations as cultures.

Robbins (1991:595) describes culture as a 'system of beliefs about the organisation, shared by its members, that distinguishes it from other organisations'. Castetter and Young (2000:95) perceive culture as a set of interrelated behaviours, values norms, expectations and ideas shared by organisation members. Barth (2002:7) believes that culture is a pattern of norms, attitudes, beliefs, behaviours, values and ceremonies. In essence, culture basically deals with people's shared beliefs, which unite members together, reflects the patterns of doing things in an organisation and gives it a distinct identity. For instance, a newly established school is run in a way that reflects the governing policy of education authorities. However, the headteacher, teachers and parents decide on which norms, values and beliefs should be emphasised and how they should be passed onto the pupils. Basically, the stakeholders develop and emphasise these norms and values until they become part and parcel of the school. These norms, values and beliefs will be a product of concerted efforts in directing the organisation in the manner it should function. This is a school culture. It is noteworthy that culture can become very strong to the extent that adaptation to new invention or ideas may be difficult.

Moorhead and Griffin (2001:448) distinguish between school climate and school culture. In their view, much of the study on climate is based on psychology while the study of culture is in anthropology and sociology. Usually, school climate points to the current situations in a school and the connection between staff and pupils behaviour and performances. Thus, climate is usually more easily manipulated by the headteacher to have direct impact on the behaviour on the staff and consequently the pupils. On the other hand, school culture usually refers to historical context within which a school operates and the effect of the context on the behaviours of staff and pupils. Therefore, it is more difficult to change within a short period because it has been defined from the inception of and it has become its tradition.

Moreover, school culture is often described as the means through which staff and pupils learn and communicate what is acceptable and unacceptable in a school. It emphasises values and norms about staff and pupils' behaviour, whereas most descriptions of school climate do not deal with values and norms. Rather, climate descriptions are concerned with the current atmosphere in a school. However, both concepts are similar in the sense that they are concerned with the overall work atmosphere in the school. Both have negative and positive effects on stakeholders. The influence of the school on the lives of teachers, pupils, parents and the headteacher has to do with favourableness or otherwise of the school climate. It has been observed that the more favourable the climate of a school the more both teachers and pupils love to work and learn in the school: the more satisfaction among the stakeholders. On the other hand, the more unfavourable the climate, the more teachers and pupils are unhappy to remain in school and the more pupils lack confidence in school and the higher the dropout rates (Hoy & Forsyth 1986:155).

Similarly, culture's positive influence reflects in the solid foundation and power it gives the school as well as stable and established practices and work pattern whereby security is enhanced. A steady and stable environment affords both teachers and pupils the opportunity to realize their potentials and achieve their optimum best. Much as this is good, culture can also have a negative influence on both the teachers and pupils. It can

become routine, and obsolete. Teachers' and pupils' initiative capabilities may be discouraged with the mind that things should always be done in the ways they have been and that there is no need for innovation and change.

Even though there are some similarities between climate and culture one cannot be used in the place of the other. Though the culture of a school does influence the type of climate that exists in a school, this research examines climate and not culture.

3.2.1 Importance of school climate

The climate of the school is one of the vital factors that determine pupils' perception of life and therefore how they respond to daily challenges. Fopiano and Norris (2001:49) and Pasi (2001:18) argue that a supportive and responsive school climate fosters a sense of belonging, promotes resiliency and reduces possible negative circumstances of the home environment. These scholars add that social and emotional needs are congruent with learning needs. Therefore, these needs should be addressed so as to facilitate learning. Negative circumstances at home, for example, violence, overcrowding, poverty, informed and uninvolved parents influence pupils' perception; as well as their responses to learning objectives in school environment. Pupils who experience negative circumstances at home can be helped to actualize their potential by providing school climate that nurtures, supports and challenges them. In essence, enhancing school climate can assist pupils who are challenged socially and emotionally.

According to Brooks (1999:65-66), pupils are more likely to thrive when they are in school environment to which they feel they belong and are comfortable, a school environment in which they feel appreciated by teachers. Many adolescents join gangs to satisfy this need for connectedness and a sense of identity. Related to this feeling of belonging is the importance of helping each student to feel welcome, thereby reducing the feelings of alienation and disconnectedness.

Pasi (2001:18) observes that schools have become important in the lives of pupils especially those who face negative circumstances at home. Thus, more than ever before, the school should be a safe and positive place, which is conducive to learning, fosters positive relationships and helps pupils to prepare for future challenges. He adds that the school climate significantly influences the way pupils feel about education. A school's climate can have a positive effect on pupils or it can be a barrier to learning, that is, it can either hinder or facilitate the realization of pupils' potentials.

3.2.2 Perspectives on school climate

There are several perspectives on school climate but for the purpose of relevance, three perspectives will be examined: pupil-control perspective, climate as health and climate as personality.

3.2.2.1 Climate as personality

Freiberg and Stein (1999:11) state that although the school is not an organic being in the biological sense, it has the qualities of a living organism in the organisational sense. They explain that beyond the physical structure of the school, there exist other elements that mirror the way people interact, which account for the social fabric that attends the working and learning condition in the school. Thus, the conclusion that: 'climate is real: it can be felt'. Halpin and Croft's (as reported by Halpin 1966:132) approach was meant to identify the critical importance of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions in schools. As a result, Halpin and Croft constructed the Organisational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (OCDQ), which portrays the climate of an elementary school. Halpin and Croft construe school climate as organisational 'personality' in conceptualizing the climates of the school along an open-to-closed continuum (Halpin 1966:133).

The behaviours of individuals in the school community contribute to school climate. The headteacher's behaviour, teachers' behaviour, pupils' behaviour and parents' behaviour constitute the type of climate that exists in the school. Moreover, the type of climate that

prevails in a school reflects the level and or type of interaction between the headteacher and teachers, among teachers, between teachers and pupils, among pupils and between parents and the school. Halpin (1966:174-180) highlights different types of climates that exist in schools: open climate, autonomous climate, controlled climate, familiar climate, paternalistic climate and closed climate. These climates can be described along an open-to-closed continuum.

(a) Open climate

An open climate is used to describe the openness and authenticity of interaction that exists among the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents. Hoy and Sabo (1998:125-128) state that an open climate reflects the headteacher and teachers' cooperative, supportive and receptive attitudes to each other's ideas and their commitment to work. The headteacher, according to these researchers, shows genuine concern for teachers; he/she motivates and encourages staff members (high supportiveness). He/she gives the staff freedom to carry out their duties in the best way they know (low directiveness). He/she does not allow routine duties to disrupt teachers' instructional responsibilities (low hindrance). Also, in a school characterized with open climate, teachers are portrayed as tolerant, helpful and respectful professionals (low disengagement). They are caring and willing to assist students when need be. Teachers work hard so that pupils succeed (high commitment). They care, respect and help one another as colleagues and even at personal level (high collegial relations). As a team they work for the success of pupils. Both the headteacher and teachers are accessible and approachable they maintain close relationships with pupils and parents (Halpin 1966:174-175). Hoy and Tarter's (1997:54) findings reveal that high supportive headteacher behaviour, low directive headteacher behaviour, high engaged teacher behaviour, and very low frustrated teacher behaviour are attributes of an open/healthy organisational climate.

(b) Autonomous climate

This type of climate portrays an atmosphere where teachers are given a good measure of freedom to operate in the school. The headteacher models enthusiasm and diligence. Both teachers and pupils are happy. There is no external threat or influence. Teachers have great desire to work and pupils are highly motivated to learn. There is close relationship among the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents (Halpin 1966:175).

(c) Controlled climate

Hard work is the major characteristic of controlled climate. Even though the headteacher does not model commitment, hard work is over-emphasised to the extent that little or no time is given to social life. Nonetheless, teachers are committed to their work and spend considerable time on paper work. Thus, in most cases, there is little time to interact with one another. Pupils are also hardworking, but are given little time for participation in extra curricular activities. The headteacher often employs a direct approach, keeps his/her distance from teachers, pupils and parents in order to avoid familiarity. Parents are not encouraged to visit school with their children's problems as the time on such matters could be used on something worthwhile (Silver 1983:184-18; Halpin 1966:177).

(d) Familiar climate

Familiar climate depicts a laissez-faire atmosphere. The headteacher is concerned about maintaining friendly atmosphere at the expense of task accomplishment. Thus, a considerable percentage of teachers are not committed to their primary assignment. Some who are committed resent the way the headteacher runs the school: they do not share same views with the headteacher and their colleagues. As a result, those who are not committed, form a clique because they are of the same attitude, they become friends. Most pupils do not take their studies seriously and some of them give flimsy excuses to be out of class or absent from school. Most parents are not involved in their children's education, they are not keen to find out what their children do or do not do in school.

They do not think it is important to attend Parent-Teacher meetings. The familiarity between the headteacher and teachers is so much that the schoolwork suffers (Silver 1983:186; Halpin 1966:178-179).

(e) Paternal climate

This type of climate depicts an atmosphere where the headteacher is very hardworking, but has no effect on the staff; to them hard work is not a popular term. There is a degree of closeness between the headteacher and teachers, but the headteacher's expectation from teachers is rather impractical. All the same, he/she is considerate and energetic, but his/her leadership approach is benevolently autocratic. As a result, most teachers, pupils and parents prefer to maintain distance from the headteacher. Often, pupils cannot express their difficulties or problems with boldness and parents visit the school only when it is absolutely necessary (Costley & Todd 1987:562), like, for example, on days when the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) is meeting.

(f) Closed climate

Hoy and Sabo (1998:129) assert that closed climate represents the 'antithesis of the open climate'. The main characteristic of this type of climate identified by Halpin (1966:180-181) is lack of commitment and or unproductive (high disengagement). There is no commitment, especially on the part of the headteacher and teachers. There is no emphasis on task accomplishment; rather the headteacher stresses routine, trivial and unnecessary paper work to which teachers minimally respond. The headteacher is rigid and controlling (high directiveness). He/she is inconsiderate, unsupportive and unresponsive (low supportiveness). Consequently, most teachers are frustrated and ineffective. Hoy and Sabo (1998:129) add that there is lack of respect for the headteacher. Not only that, the teachers lack respect for and are suspicious of each other, the school authority and even the pupils. Teachers are intolerant and divided, thus, there is social tension in the school. Hoy and Tarter's (1997:54) findings establish the above characteristics of a closed/unhealthy organisational climate as enumerated by Halpin. In this kind of

atmosphere, it would be illogical to either expect the pupils to achieve high academic standard or have positive attitude toward the school and each other simply because there is no example to be emulated.

As mentioned earlier, climate types range on a continuum from open to closed climate. In view of the characteristics of each of the above organisational climates of schools as described by Halpin (1966:174-181), the first and the last types (open and closed), are the two extremes. Thus, they are opposites. Each dimension in an open climate is positive: contributing to a goal-driven learning environment, while each dimension in a closed climate is negative, contributing to a confused, unproductive atmosphere. For instance, in an open climate, the headteacher is flexible and gives his/her teachers freedom to function without close scrutiny, which encourages them to put into use their creative talents and put in their best; whereas, in a closed climate, the headteacher is rigid, controlling and closely scrutinizes his/her teachers. In this situation, a considerable number of teachers are resentful and uncommitted: they show no interest in their job and simply put in minimum effort in performing task given, just for the purpose of earning a living. Similar contrast is seen in autonomous and paternal climate; the general impression in an autonomous climate is that it is a person oriented as opposed to the task-oriented that characterizes a paternal climate. Controlled and familiar climate are similar to paternal climate. Although controlled climate is more task-oriented, yet more open than closed. The familiar is less task oriented, yet more closed than open (Halpin (1966:177-178).

Conclusively, some scholars, for example, Hoy and Miskel (2001:214) assert that each school has its own unique climate. This is because schools operate in different ways. The type of climate that prevails in a school is the blend of the behaviour of the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents in that school. Therefore, climate differs from school to school. Freiberg (1999:208) opines that climate is an ever-changing factor in schools. This is because the headteacher may choose on specific occasions to adapt a different leadership style, which may have a huge impact on the climate that will lead to a change. Again, a new headteacher may bring some unfamiliar ideas that may change the existing

climate. New teachers in a school may equally have a noticeable effect on the prevailing climate of a school. Another possibility is that new pupils may bring to a school a different atmosphere. Finally, the involvement of parents of new pupils may influence the prevailing climate of a school.

3.2.2.2 Pupil-Control perspective

Another way of looking at school climate is in terms of control patterns, which teachers and headteachers use on the pupils. Donald Willower and his colleagues initiated this approach in 1967. Willower, Eidell and Hoy's (1973:3) findings indicate that pupil control problems play a significant role in 'teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator' relationships and pupil control is central to both the organisational and normative aspects of the school culture. They explain further that the teachers who are perceived to be weak on control are not held with high esteem by their colleagues. Also, Willower et al. (1973:3) observe that the school norm requires the teachers to maintain a fair distance between themselves and the pupils. They therefore assert that pupil control is symbolic within the school social life as it is an indicator of the pattern of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal relation. In other words, the nature of pupil control in a particular school reveals the kind of relationships that exists between the headteacher and the teachers and among the teachers.

Willower et al. (1973:4) maintain that some organisations, especially schools do not have any influence on the selection of pupils. In the same way, pupils have no choice with regard to school activities. It goes without saying that some pupils may not be interested in some school activities, a factor that underpins the problem of pupil control. Thus, control is important especially in organisations such as schools because schools do not select pupils, yet schools must accommodate them and encourage their participation. In essence, control is an important aspect of school life and because of its importance it can be used to distinguish school climates. According to Willower et al.(1973:5) pupil-control perspective is also arrayed on a continuum from custodial climate to humanistic climate. The two extremes are discussed below.

(a) The custodial school climate

Willower et al. (1973:5) compare a custodial school to the traditional school, which emphasises maintenance of order. Pupils are classified based on their appearance, behaviour and parent's social class. Often, some teachers, in this type of school perceive the school as an autocratic organisation where pupil-teacher status hierarchy is a rigid norm. As a result, some teachers are not approachable, causing a wide gap between pupils and teachers. Besides, communication is one way: from teachers to pupils and teachers' decisions are unquestionably accepted. Since teachers do not understudy pupils' behaviours, they sometimes take misbehaviour as a personal affront; they see most of the pupils as irresponsible and undisciplined children who must be corrected, using corporal punishment. Impersonality, suspicion, and mistrust characterize the atmosphere of the custodial school. From the foregoing, it is evident that a negative climate exists in this kind of school.

(b) The humanistic school climate

According to Willower et al. (1973:5) the humanistic school depicts a school where pupils experience democracy, cooperation and fairness. Pupils learn together as a community, they interact and share experiences. The school perceives learning and behaviour in psychological and sociological terms. As a result, pupils are seen as individuals whose potential can be developed to the full if given the opportunity. The focus is on creating positive and supportive atmosphere so as to foster pupils' strengths. Self-discipline is emphasised; therefore, pupils take responsibility for their actions. There is two-way communication between pupils and teachers; pupils can air their views, thus pupils' needs are taken care of. Both the headteacher and teachers in this school are regarded as open-minded individuals who respond to issues objectively. Therefore, if a school stays together as a community whose members relate with one another as respectable individuals, it is most likely that a positive climate will prevail in such school.

Willower et al.'s (1973:35) research findings reveal that humanism in the pupil-control orientation of schools and the openness of the organisational climate of schools are strongly correlated. Moreover, Organisational Description Climate Questionnaire (ODCQ) variable used by Hoy and Appleberry (in Hoy and Miskel 2001:206) to compare the climate of the most humanistic schools with that of the custodial school revealed that schools with a custodial pupil-control had greater disengagement, more aloofness and less thrust than those of humanistic pupil-control orientation. Thus, it can be assumed that humanistic schools are likely to be characterized by high morale, openness, acceptance, hard work and the like.

3.2.2.3 Climate as health

Miles (1969:377) was one of the people to use health metaphor to describe climate. According to him, a healthy organisation will not only survive in its environment but also grow and prosper for a long period of time. That is, a healthy organisation is able to successfully handle outside disruptive forces and at the same time direct all efforts toward the achievement of the goals of the organisation. An organisation may be effective or ineffective at any given time, but healthy organisation avoids persistent ineffectiveness.

On the other hand, Parsons (1967:41) argues that for all social organisations to grow and develop, they must satisfy basic problems of adaptation, which are: goal attainment and integration. In other words, organisations must solve the following types of problems: (a) the problem of acquiring sufficient resources and accommodating their environments (b) the problem of setting and attaining goals (c) the problem of maintaining solidarity with the system, and (d) the problem of creating and preserving a unique value of the system. Therefore, the organisation must attend to instrumental needs of adaptation and goal achievement and the expressive needs of social and normative integration (Parsons 1967:42-44). It is assumed that a healthy organisation satisfies both needs.

Furthermore, Parsons (1967:49-54) suggests that formal organisations like schools display three distinct levels of responsibility and controls over these needs: the technical, managerial and institutional levels. The technical level of the school has to do with the teaching-learning process. The primary business of the school is to produce educated students, and both the headteacher and teachers are expected to solve problems associated with effective teaching and learning (Parsons 1967:50-51). The managerial level controls the internal administrative function of the school. The headteachers are the administrative officers of the school; they allocate resources and coordinate schoolwork. They find ways to develop teacher loyalty, trust and commitment and motivate teachers' efforts. They also mediate between teachers and other stakeholders: parents, pupils and the community (Parsons 1967:50-51).

The institutional level links the school with its environment. Schools need acceptance and legitimacy in the community. Both headteachers and teachers need support if they are to perform their respective duties in a harmonious manner without necessary interference from people outside the school. This broad Parsonian perspective provides theoretical underpinning for the health of a school. A healthy school is one in which technical, managerial and instructional levels are in harmony, and the school meets both its instrumental and expressive needs as it successfully copes with disruptive outside forces and directs its energy toward its mission (Parsons 1967:55).

Hoy and Feldman (1987:32) state that the Organisational Health Inventory (OHI) (an instrument to measure the organisational health) consist of seven dimensions that capture both the instrumental and the expressive needs of the school and also represent the three levels of responsibility and control within the school (technical, managerial and institutional). The institutional level is seen in terms of the school's ability to cope with its environment in a way that it maintains the educational soundness of its programmes. Schools with integrity are protected from unreasonable community and parental demands. Four key aspects of managerial level initiating structure, resource allocation and principal influence describe the respective managerial instrumental functions of task and achievement-oriented leadership. Expressive managerial behaviour is reflected in the

relationships between the headteacher and teachers; the headteacher is open, friendly and supportive. The technical instrumental function of academic emphasis is the extent to which the school is driven by a quest for academic excellence. Morale, the collective sense of connectedness and pride, confidence and enthusiasm, is the technical expressive dimension of the school.

Hoy and Tarter (1997:9) state that the organisational health of schools just like the personality perspective can be arranged along a continuum from healthy to sick. A healthy school is protected from unreasonable parental and community pressures. The school resists any move to influence the education policy (high institutional integrity). The headteacher is a dynamic leader balancing both task and relations-oriented leader behaviour. He/She is supportive of teachers, and yet emphasises high performance standards (high initiating structure and consideration).

Moreover, the headteacher has influence with his/her superiors, which is demonstrated by his/her ability to get sufficient resources for effective teaching (high principal influence). Often, teachers in a healthy school are committed to teaching and learning. They hold high expectations for themselves and their pupils and promote a positive, supportive learning environment. Pupils work hard and respect the academic achievement of their classmate. In effect, there is positive interpersonal relationship at all levels in healthy schools. In contrast, a sick or unhealthy school is often attacked from within and without. Interest groups penetrate and influence the operation of the school; many parents make lots of unreasonable demands. Usually, the headteacher is not effective, his/her superiors and teachers do not take him/her seriously. Most times nobody bothers about pupils' performance, interpersonal relations are bankrupt at all levels and, everybody is unhappy. Hoy and Tarter (1997:10) call it a bleak school.

3.2.3 Dimensions of school climate

The climate of a school is the result of the blend of four major dimensions of interpersonal interaction. Some scholars of educational management, for example, Halpin

and Croft (in Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp 1991:123) suggest two dimensions of interpersonal interaction. These are headteacher's behaviour and teachers' behaviour. This researcher, however, believes that pupils and parents are also two dimensions that form the blend of interpersonal interaction. This means that a school climate is the result of the reciprocal interaction of the headteacher's, teachers', pupils' and parents' behaviour toward their school.

There are four characteristics of these dimensions which are conceived and presented in operational terms (Hoy & Sabo 1998:9). In addition, these dimensions are made up of categories, like headteacher's behaviour, teachers' behaviour, pupils' behaviour and parents' behaviour. Also, each of the behaviour has a set of positive aspects and negative aspects. One may assume that the interaction of these various aspects bring about variations in school climate.

3.2.3.1 Headteachers' behaviour

This dimension of a school climate deals with the manner the headteacher interacts with teachers, pupils and parents. This, to a large extent, seems to affect the way teachers interact with one another, with pupils and parents. This interaction has a considerable impact on the general atmosphere of the school. Halpin (1966:151) identified four characteristics of a headteacher's behaviour. They are aloofness, production emphasis, consideration and thrust.

(a) Aloofness

Halpin (1966:151) describes aloofness as the extent to which some headteachers keep social distance from the staff, give excessive rules and regulations. Some headteachers are seen as unfriendly; they do not show human feelings as they relate to the staff. Silver (1983:181) states that this distance is both psychological and physical, it is psychological because these headteachers avoid informal discussions, they do not joke with staff and the staff are aware of the manner the headteachers expectations. The distance is also physical in the sense that the headteachers may choose to be reserved or to be open and

interact freely with the staff, they may use their position to assist the staff to achieve the school goals, and they may either choose to use their voice, mannerism and behaviour to show their superiority. Both the psychological and physical distance have influence on the school climate.

(b) *Production emphasis*

Halpin (1966:151) states that production emphasis is the authoritarian and controlling behaviour of some headteachers, which make them to be rigid. Therefore they supervise the staff closely. According to Silver (1983:183), production emphasis ranges from 'very strong to no emphases. A headteacher who emphasises production very strongly believes that people work best under tension and pressure. He/she also believes that when all attention is directed to work, it minimizes personal clashes that sometimes occur among the staff. He/she believes that social and psychological needs of teachers are met when they are dedicated and committed to their work. This type of headteacher's behaviour influences how the staff will discharge their responsibilities and it will ultimately affect the school climate. However, Paisey (1992:145) argues that if there is no emphasis on production, the staff may not be concerned about the accomplishment of the school goals. Some teachers may not take their work seriously. They may be more concerned about their personal interest at the expense of their work. In view of this, this kind of behaviour undoubtedly affects the school climate. Everybody does what he/she likes. The pupils' results and the image of the school are at stake.

(c) *Thrust*

Halpin (1966:151) describes thrust as the way some headteachers act as a role model for the type of behaviour they expect of their staff. They set the standard and support the staff so as to maintain the standard. Thrust is characterized by the following: the headteacher is hardworking, the staff are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated, the staff work hard and enjoy their work. The headteacher' behaviour may range from showing high thrust to no thrust. The headteacher with high thrust influences the school

climate positively; all activities are focused and directed to achieving the school goals, both teachers and pupils enjoy teaching and learning. Ribbins (2001:16) maintains that the headteacher with no thrust also affects the school climate. He says further that, there is no example of expectations and standard by the headteacher, and that this may result in lack of motivation and performance on the part of teachers and pupils. This is because the quality of leadership of the headteacher is critical to the effectiveness of the school.

(d) Consideration

Halpin (1966:151) states that consideration has to do with how the headteacher relates and responds to staff and their needs; having personal interest in things that concern his staff, pupils and parents even if it means sacrificing some time to do this, he/she shows sympathy when the need arises and celebrates teachers, pupils and parents' achievements. Azzara (2001:62) asserts that showing concern for teachers, parents and pupils is the heart of school leadership. Therefore, for the headteacher to be effective, he/she must relate to stakeholders in the way that demonstrates his/her concern for them.

Rooney (2003:76) and Heller (2002:79), opine that students and teachers function effectively when their basic needs are met and this contributes to a caring environment in which everybody cares for one another and invariably foster excellent teaching and learning. Headteachers differ in this aspect, they range from being highly considerate to not being considerate at all. Azzara (2001:63) claims that the headteacher who is highly considerate is the most effective because the development of positive personal relationship with the entire school is the core of school leadership. Hoy and Sabo (1998:14) observe that lack of consideration may contribute to teacher frustration and apathy therefore, negative climate will prevail.

3.2.3.2 Teachers' behaviour

Teachers play a critical role in determining the school climate. The school as a system of social interaction allows interpersonal relationships among its stakeholders; teachers

interact with one another, with the headteacher, pupils and parents. The ways teachers interact among themselves and with others determine the school climate. Halpin (1966:150) identified four characteristics of teachers' behaviour and how they influence the school climate. These characteristics are: disengagement, hindrance, esprit and intimacy.

(a) Disengagement

Halpin (1966:150) states that disengagement is used to describe teachers' lack of commitment to the school. According to Hoy and Miskel (2001:195), in a disengaged school, some teachers complain a lot, they are unproductive and engage themselves in trivial matters. These teachers dislike and criticize the headteacher. Their negative attitude is reflected in the manner they relate to one another, they negatively criticize and disrespect each other. Hoy and Sabo (1998:126) classify this set of teachers as individual who are just 'putting in their time'. The situation may be so serious that they sabotage the headteacher's leadership attempts. In effect, a negative climate pervades the school.

In contrast, in a school characterized by low disengagement or engaged climate, most teachers work as a team and are committed to their work. They respect each other and conduct themselves as professionals. The headteacher's negative behaviour does not prevent the teachers from doing and enjoying their work. Thus, these teachers are productive regardless of the headteacher's weak autocratic leadership. In this situation, it may be difficult for a positive climate to thrive because the headteacher's autocratic behaviour does not promote a positive climate.

(b) Hindrance

Halpin (1966:150) states that hindrance is a concept used to describe some teachers' attitude toward paper work and non-instructional school activities: teachers see routine duties and committee requirements as hindrance to their teaching responsibilities. Owens (1981:196) asserts that these teachers are only concerned with teaching and consider

rules, paper work and other administrative work quite unnecessary. Such teachers do not enjoy writing their daily preparation note, keeping class attendance record, recording test marks and communicating and corresponding with parents. Other teachers, according to Silver (1983:183) consider administrative duties not only necessary but also useful in facilitating the achievement of the school goals. For example, if no teacher keeps attendance record, it implies that regular attendance/punctuality is not important. As a result, some pupils who have the tendency to run away from school may become truants and late coming may be taken as normal. This may eventually lead to poor performance and increase dropout rate. Also, if no record of test scores is kept to monitor pupils' progress, some pupils who are struggling academically may not receive needed assistance since the teacher has no mark record that could assist him/her to track such pupils, let alone giving remedial lessons. If a teacher is not interested in corresponding with parents, he/she is limited to phone calls whenever he/she wants to communicate with parents and where this facility is not easily available, the teacher would not be able to communicate regularly with parents. Thus, the needed cooperation may not be received from home when the situation arises.

Hoy and Sabo (1998:12) opine that it is possible to have situations where teachers are burdened with paper work and other administrative duties. This means that some headteachers over emphasise paper work so much so that it becomes an end in itself rather than a means to an end. In such a situation, teachers reluctantly carry out their task in order to avoid confrontation with the headteacher. Halpin (1966:150) observes that this kind of situation disturbs a climate characterized with a goal-oriented mission, for teachers spend too much time on activities from which pupils may not benefit. Since some headteachers over emphasise paper work, it could be assumed that some other headteachers may not bother teachers at all on keeping necessary records. For instance, if a headteacher does not demand for accountability with regard to writing lesson plan, keeping attendance record, monitoring pupils' progress and communicating with parents when need be, it may create a laissez-faire climate where teachers are given room to do what they like even with their teaching responsibility.

(c) Esprit

Halpin (1966:151) uses this term to describe teachers' satisfaction with their social and professional needs. In a school characterized by high *esprit* and accomplishments, teachers help, support and work with each other. As a team, they like and respect each other. They enjoy each other's company and they are committed to their work and school. They are enthusiastic, innovative and they willingly render mutual assistance where necessary. In case of low *esprit*, teachers do their work reluctantly. They do not derive satisfaction from their work. Thus, they work just to earn a living. There is no strong relationship among teachers, they care less about each other. This kind of situation produces a climate that is not conducive for work (Hoy & Sabo 1998:12).

(d) Intimacy

Intimacy is a term used to picture the kind of relationship that exists among teachers in a school. (Halpin 1966:151). The degree of relationships that exist among teachers varies from school to school. Silver (1983:183) asserts that high intimacy may exist among teachers in some schools while low intimacy may exist among teachers in some other schools and yet, there may be no intimacy at all among teachers in some other schools.

Hoy and Miskel (2001:192) observe that high intimacy reflects a close relationship among teachers. Teachers in a school characterized by high intimacy know each other well and share personal issues with each other. This kind of relationship does not end at school; they socialise on a regular basis in school and outside school. They provide strong support for each other, that is, they exchange visits, know each other's family members, they are always there for each other even in difficult situations. They find their closest friends among their colleagues. High intimacy among teachers may either have positive or negative impact on the school climate. If burdens are lifted, sorrow give way to joy and a smile is brought to somebody's face when teachers share their personal matters with one another. In this kind of situation, teachers' emotional and psychological needs are met. They get the encouragement needed to function effectively, everybody is

happy and positive climate prevails. Nonetheless, high intimacy if not applied cautiously may lead to negative climate. Situations where teachers do not limit sharing of personal matters to each other but indulge in gossiping about matters affecting other colleagues, may lead to confusion, mistrust, strife, suspicion and even quarrel.

Teachers in a school characterized by low intimacy have positive attitude toward each other. They are friendly, but not very intimate. Thus, the friendship does not go beyond the school compound. Sharing of private matters is not common; they have their closest friends in other groups of people outside the school. If and when private matters are shared with colleagues who are not disciplined enough to keep secrets, the friendship becomes sore and this may affect the school climate negatively. Some teachers who do not share their hurts or sorrow with their colleagues because the atmosphere does not encourage sharing may leave the school to resolve issues, which could have been resolved, by either their colleagues or the headteacher (Hoy et al. 1991:14-15).

3.2.3.3 Pupils' behaviour

Pupils are part and parcel of a school. To say that the school cannot be without pupils is not an overstatement. Thus, pupils are very important when discussing about school; they are the lifeblood of a school and therefore the centre of all activities that take place in a school. Pupils' participation whether active or inactive, directly affects the school climate. The aspects of pupils' behaviour that affect school climate include: learning, discipline, involvement in extracurricular activities, leadership and health.

(a) Pupils and learning

Teaching and learning are all about what the school stands for. Jacobs (2003:67) asserts that meaningful learning takes place when learners are able to make sense out of what the teacher is teaching. According to her, pivotal to learning is the learner's participation. In essence, if the teacher plans and presents the subject matter in interesting ways that cater for different abilities in class, pupils would be encouraged to participate in learning, pupils ask questions, share relevant experiences, complete assignment, read, research and

contribute to learning, as a group or individuals. In this way, learning will take place. But if pupils are passive or inactive in the teaching/learning process, learning will not take place (Fried 2001:106). In this respect, it could be assumed that, pupils' experiences of teaching are determinants of their interest and attitudes to learning.

McBer (2002:53) observes that when pupils understand the why and how of the expectations set by the teacher, they show interest and are ready to face challenges. Teaching is meaningful when pupils see its inherent worth to their own lives; they are motivated to learn when they see in teachers that they believe learning what they teach is worth the time and effort. Myers and Myers (1995:94) argue that, when a teacher creates an atmosphere that is supportive, comfortable, friendly and relaxed as opposed to a tense climate, it is likely that both teacher and pupils will be satisfied with their classroom situation causing pupils to thrive in their school work.

A classroom where learning does not take place is not exciting for the pupils and many pupils will perform below expectation; dull pupils are products of dull teachers. Meanwhile, Van Doren (2003:36) maintains that learning in any area should be joyous and fulfilling as good performance is one of the indicators of an effective school. When a school is not performing well, all the stakeholders are concerned. The parents especially are unhappy and some may decide to transfer their children to better schools. Some pupils may dropout of school because of poor performance. Therefore, in addition to effective teaching skills, teachers need to be enthusiastic, dedicated, accessible, caring, fair and friendly so as to achieve greater pupils' desire for participation in learning, and to make positive learning environment a reality in schools through their daily actions in their classrooms.

(b) Pupils and discipline

Ubben et al. (2001:98) observe that a school with a productive learning environment is almost always orderly: learning activities are carried out in an orderly manner, not only do pupils, staff and parents know the school's expectations, they also work toward meeting the expectations to maintain a positive learning climate. Miller (1996:4) reports

that studies on school effectiveness reveal that both the standard of pupils' behaviour and academic attainment can vary between schools regardless of where they are situated and partly are influenced by factors within the schools' control. Thus, the school is responsible for both character and academic performance of pupils.

Ubben *et al.* (2001: 98-101) state further that some school may be classified as 'tough', and others as 'good places to work'. These scholars explain further that this classification usually reflects pupils' behaviour patterns, which could either be good or disruptive. Disruptive pupils' behaviour, according to Freiberg (1999:93) does not only affect the disruptive individual, but also affects classmates and the school-learning environment. For example, a pupil who is sent to the office as a result of disruptive behaviour wastes some learning time, so also the teacher who ceases instruction in order to attend to disruptions destroys learning time for other pupils in the class.

The report of National Conference on Teacher Education (1997:19-24) states that pupils who are usually involved in disruptive behaviours are 'at risk' pupils. The report further states that 'at risk pupils' often appear dirty, they have irregular attendance at school, and they come to school late and go home late. They distract others and disrupt classroom activities, vandalize other pupils' and school's property. They are school lawbreakers and are disobedient to teachers. In this regard, Gatsha (1998) and Moswela's (2004) findings confirm the statement that was made in the report of the National Conference on Teacher Education as their findings show that pupils' indiscipline is on the increase in Botswana Secondary Schools (see section 1.2.2). However, Kohn (1998:242) maintains that pupils cooperation can be enjoyed when they are involved in decision making on classroom matters, for instance, class rules, sometimes, what to be learned, why and how birthday should be celebrated, etc., pupils are likely to cooperate with school authority. This is because discipline can be effective when teachers encourage pupils' input; it enhances pupils; sense of having some control and this, to some extent curtails discipline problems.

Besides, Page and Page (2000:68) hold that the essence of disciplining pupils is to inculcate self-control in them as this feeling helps them to develop positive self-esteem.

These scholars argue that, for pupils to be self-disciplined, it requires teachers to demonstrate self-control as they interact with pupils. In other words, teachers' character is the key to positive and effective discipline that fosters a positive climate in schools.

(c) Pupils and extracurricular activities

Whitehead (2000:9) defines extracurricular activities as those activities outside the normal timetable taking place on the school premises and sometimes outside the school premises. Some of these activities are seen as part of physical education. The activities include: clubs, swimming, sports, games, debate, cultural activities, music etc. All these are believed to contribute to physical and social development of pupils. Some scholars, for example McCracken (2001:4), claim that extracurricular activities promote pupils' health, foster pupils' physical and social confidence and more importantly, they enhance positive climate. This is especially true because extracurricular activities provide opportunities for pupils to calm down from regular pressures as these activities take place in an informal, relaxed and flexible atmosphere. Thus, pupils are at ease and teachers relate with pupils on different levels as coaches, referees, club directors, etc.

Capel (2000:211) asserts that extracurricular activities provide opportunities for pupils to be creative, thus revealing talents that are otherwise hidden and untapped. He explains further by saying that it is possible because some pupils who are not very good in class, can also get the chance to express what they are very good at, causing other pupils to recognize and respect them. Pupils' involvement in extracurricular activities promotes team spirit and cooperation. For instance, in a soccer game, players know they have to work together for the game to be exciting and won.

Climate and extracurricular activities are interrelated. For instance, if pupils know that Monday, Wednesday and Thursday are for study hall after school, there is the likelihood that they will look forward to Tuesday and Friday when there will be opportunities to partake in different exciting activities. In contrast, schools that consider extracurricular activities unnecessary promote unhealthy, tense and boring atmosphere. Piotrowski

(2000:170) states that physical activities enhance good health and behaviour. Pupils need varieties of learning experiences, when pupils are exposed to routine class activities only; they get bored and express boredom in negative ways, which affect school climate (Fried 2001:66-67).

Findings from Owolabi's (1997:23) study reveal that adolescents in Botswana junior secondary schools engage in health threatening behaviour activities such as substance abuse, alcohol abuse, and teenage pregnancy, mostly because of their lack of participation in sport activities. Thus, it is imperative for headteachers to include extracurricular activities in the school programme and motivate pupils to participate not only for health reasons but also to facilitate a positive learning environment.

(d) Pupil leadership

Pupils as part of the school community have certain roles to play for the smooth running of the school. In addition to learning, pupils take leadership responsibilities in different areas; they take leadership positions as: class captain, school prefects and members of the Student Representative Council (SRC). Also, in extracurricular activities, students are chosen as leaders in various sports, cultural and musical activities. Pupils' leaders are chosen by pupils themselves though sometimes with the help of teachers. For example, the student body elects the SRC members, school prefects are chosen by the administration in collaboration with teachers, the class members select class representative and the teachers choose class captains.

Pupils' leaders are given the freedom to make decisions in matters under their control. They are responsible to teachers and the school authority; they report and suggest ideas that can improve situations in classrooms and the entire school. For example, school prefects serve as intermediaries between the pupils and the school leadership. Prefects work directly with the pupils and make pupils' complaints known to the school authority. Pupils' involvement in the running of the school affairs is important; it makes them feel significant and recognized. Kohn (1998:242) maintains that better behaviour is promoted

to the extent to which pupils are given posts or responsibilities. It goes without saying that pupils' participation in school leadership gives them a greater sense of belonging thus, fostering their cooperation with the management team because inclusion, by nature, obligates pupils to cooperate (Snell & Janney 2000:14). Besides, this sense of belonging, influences pupils positively, they enthusiastically carry out their responsibilities in the classroom and school premises, looking after school properties and striving to improve the school. This, to some extent will contribute to a positive atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning. Wallin's (2003:59-61) findings confirm that pupil inclusion in school leadership improves pupils' grades and school climate. According to him, the opportunity made available to pupils to choose class content and class load and the learning opportunities motivate them to work hard to improve their performance. As result, pupil-teacher relationship is strengthened and school morale enhanced (Wallin 2003: 61).

(e) *Pupils and health*

Cornacchia, Olsen and Ozias (1996:32) assert that society places high value on human life and health. Accordingly, Appleton, McCrea and Patterson (2001:4) maintain that children's health and well-being are important to parents and even educators. These scholars opine that learning and good health are almost inseparable; good health is fundamental to learning. Without good health pupils will encounter difficulty in learning. Pupils' health covers many areas among others are: healthy food, healthy mind, healthy environment and physical activity. Pupils' health has an impact on school climate. Here are some examples to support the assertion that pupils' health influences school climate:

The common saying: 'you are what you eat' emphasises the importance of choice of food for effective or ineffective functioning of the body. Cheung, Gortmaker and Dart (2001:6) claim that what we eat does not only affect how our bodies perform and feel today, but also predicts our future health condition. Pupils' consumption of nutritious food is imperative not only for growth, but also for learning. There is increasing evidence that good nutrition enhances pupils' academic performance (Mosokwane 2001:61). By

implication, poor nutrition impairs pupils' ability to learn resulting in poor performance inside and outside the classroom. If the majority of pupils at school come from families that cannot provide a meal or two (especially in the 3rd world countries) let alone nutritious meals those pupils may not perform up to expectation, this may require teachers to work more and some of the low performers may be frustrated and lose interest when there is no improvement. This will affect the school climate.

In contrast, in a school where the majority of pupils are from homes that can conveniently afford nutritious meals, it is most likely that pupils will attain good academic performance, which automatically influences school climate. However, there are families/pupils that can afford good meals, but their choice of food does more harm than good to their bodies, causing pupils to fall sick often. Thus, this category of pupils may not attend school/class regularly and may therefore not perform well. Page and Page (2000:123) suggest that the school can assist in promoting healthy eating by influencing the menu for school cafeteria and or tuck shop (as some pupils' only chance of eating nutritious meal is from school lunch); by involving parents, asking them to send healthy snacks to school and by organizing workshops on food choices especially for parents.

The phrase: 'a sound mind in a sound body' suggests that there is a relationship between physical and mental health. Mental health seems to be a condition of the whole personality, but not separate from physical health. Pupils may be under pressure as a result of poverty, demand of moral and social values, the need for good grades, divorce parents, death of loved ones, etc., as a result, such pupils may be withdrawn to themselves, disruptive in class, daydream most times, and may be aggressive etc. Cornacchia et al. (1996:83) report that a quarter of American school pupils are in this kind of situation. These scholars suggest that teachers can help in promoting and maintaining good mental health by facilitating an atmosphere that fosters acceptance, appreciation and sharing. This will in turn shape a positive learning climate.

Cornacchia et al. (1996:64) posit that physical environment in which pupils are educated is critical to the quality of learning experiences that take place. Not all learning

experiences take place inside the classroom; some take place outside the classroom sometimes by observation and imitation. For instance, if the school environment (classrooms, toilets and surrounding) is dirty then pupils' health is at stake. Pupils may be infected with different diseases. Moreover, it may inculcate in pupils a carefree attitude with regard to cleanliness. This does not only affect pupils' health, but also school climate. The same is true when the environment is clean; clean and well-ventilated classrooms, availability of clean water, clean toilets, safe playground, smoke free environment, etc., all these create a positive atmosphere of cleanliness and safety. Therefore, it is important that the school provides a safe, orderly, pleasant and wholesome atmosphere conducive to learning.

3.2.3.4 Parents' behaviour

Most, parents irrespective of race or age, desire the best for their children. They want their children to live a better life, they want them to be successful in school and they want to see a whole child who is successful academically and is morally upright (Constantino 2003:15). Parents' involvement in their children's education is not a new issue; most researchers of parent involvement concur that parents contribute significantly to pupils' performance (Rosenblatt & Peled 2002:349). Small's (2003:194-203) experience as a teacher who loves to involve parents in children's school work indicate that parent-teacher partnership promotes learning and brings about growth in pupils. This is to say that when the school involves parents in the education of their children, it improves pupils' performance both in academic work and character, which otherwise may not be achieved by the school alone.

Epstein (2002:7) argues that developing a partnership with parents improves school climate; connects families in the school and the community and helps pupils to succeed in school and in later life. In other words, when parents, pupils and teachers see one another as partners in education, a positive climate begins to flourish in school. This is because frequent interaction among school, parents and community creates a situation where pupils receive similar motivating messages about the importance of school, hard work,

positive character, etc., from various people at different times. In view of the above, it can be assumed that if pupils feel that everybody is interested in their success, they are likely to build positive school behaviour, attitudes and work hard to obtain their full potential; and consequently, absenteeism and dropout rate will decrease. Home work habit will equally improve.

Griffith (2000:162) asserts that school climate affects parent empowerment and involvement in school. He says that if parents perceive school climate as positive, their involvement increases as long as the school allows them to do so. This implies that parents will be involved in their children's school activities if the school climate encourages them to do so. Rosenblatt and Peled's (2002:352) findings indicate that unless school and teachers intentionally develop and implement appropriate practices of partnership with parents, there may not be any improvement on parent involvement in school. Therefore, the headteacher seems to be the individual to initiate and facilitate parent involvement in a school. Constantino (2003:14) alludes to the assertion that school leaders do not encourage the parents in school and argues that even though the school leaders claim to delight in parent involvement in school, they limit the relationship by taking actions that do not encourage parent involvement in school, otherwise, parent would have been actively involved in school activities, and realize their dream for their children.

Hornby (2000:2) asserts that despite the fact that parent involvement contributes to the achievement of school goals, minimal parent involvement in school is a worldwide issue. In this regard, Benhamtye (2000:108) observes that in most cases, parents get involved when what they feel that the school has violated their expectations, for instance, when a school eliminates a programme that parents value for their children, parents' respond without delay. Otherwise, many of them believe that it is the school's responsibility to educate their children, thus, many parents are far away from the school. However, Small (2003:194-203) holds a different opinion with regard to the parents' lack of interest in their children's education. He believes that parents are willing to cooperate with teachers so much so that if teachers are willing to involve them, they come readily as resource

individuals and helpers in the teaching-learning process. He maintains that many teachers are reluctant to utilize parents in teaching-learning activities to avoid any kind of intimidation, an issue which Small (2003:198) feels should not arise if teachers are well prepared for their class activities. Otherwise, teachers benefit from parent involvement as their support fosters the accomplishment of the teachers' tasks, class objectives, and therefore, the school goals. The case in Botswana is not different from Hornby (2000:2) and Benhamtye's (2000:108) observations as Mosime's (2000:20) findings reveal that parents seldom visit the school to check on their children's performance. She explains further that some parents respond coldly when and if they are called concerning the behaviour of their children. If this is the case, the question is how can headteachers create climate, which will encourage parent involvement in school? It is assumed that headteachers would empower parents in order to improve their involvement and contribution in school.

3.3 CREATING A POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE

Freiberg and Stein (1999:23) posit that school climate can be seen in every aspect of the school: from teacher's and student's attendance records, in the classroom, on the bulletin board, during break and lunch times, in the teachers' lounge, from pupils' mobility rates in hallways, and the like. Interestingly, school climate does not exist by accident. For instance, Harris and Lowery (2002:64-65) assert that school climate is created and can be maintained unless an alteration occurs in the life of the school. While it is true that behaviours of the headteacher, teachers, pupils and parents affect a school climate, to some extent, the headteacher is central to creating the climate: what he/she does establishes the climate of the school whether positive or negative (Hall & George 1999:165). Therefore, at this point, it would be worthwhile to examine how a positive climate can be created and sustained in schools.

3.3.1 Creating a positive climate

Scholars like Moorhead and Griffin (2001:488) observe that school climate can be manipulated to directly affect the behaviour of people connected with the school. Fundamental to creating a positive school climate are: job satisfaction, recognition of human dignity and teamwork.

(a) *Job satisfaction*

Harris and Brannick (1999:156) describe job satisfaction as the extent to which workers like their jobs. These scholars assert that, the quality of education depends upon the availability of qualified and motivated teachers. Moreover, they believe that if quality schooling is the goal of the school then, the focus should be on creating and maintaining the school climate that will encourage teachers to be committed to their school responsibilities.

Based on the above, O'Malley (2000:157) asserts that the level of staff's happiness on the job affects the quality of their lives and level of their commitment to work. He goes on to say that teachers who enjoy their job work harder and stay longer on their job compared to those who do not enjoy their job. O'Malley (2000:157) however, believes that it is possible to enjoy emotionally rewarding experiences at work if there is a good job and a favourable context in which it can be enjoyed. Therefore, it is the headteacher's responsibility to lead in a way that the staff and pupils will be motivated; by not stressing job demands over emotional needs. He/she needs to be aware if teachers' as well as pupils' personal problems are left unattended. Otherwise, all efforts to create a happy environment characterized by staff, pupils and parents' involvement may not yield good fruits. He/she needs to use various motivating techniques, for example, praises, recognition, flexibility, and the like, in directing the affairs of the school so that the staff will enjoy their work, pupils will be interested in school and parents will be happy with the school and they will be willing to participate more in the school activities.

In Botswana, as revealed by the study undertaken by Mhozya (1998:21), teachers' morale is very low due to poor conditions of service. In addition to that, they are not happy with excessive workload, for such as marking several of pupils' work after school.

(b) Human dignity

People are the heart of the teaching profession. The headteacher relates and works with people every school day, that is, teachers, pupils and parents. Therefore, as suggested by Azzara (2001:62), the headteacher needs to be people-oriented. He/she needs to remember that teachers, pupils and parents are human and as such they have strengths and weaknesses. It is therefore, the headteacher's responsibility to create situations where the strengths of people will be tapped for facilitating the achievement of school goals. Benton (1995:19) believes that the headteacher needs to recognize human dignity. This implies that teachers especially should not be perceived as slaves, but as colleagues; it is only then that great work harmony would be created. He explains further that the headteacher as well as teachers need to balance individual concerns in their private lives with demands of their jobs as the nature of their work require both personal and professional management. The headteacher in particular needs to model and facilitate good relations among the school community by recognizing the inherent worth of human beings who depend on him/her irrespective of status or position in the school hierarchy.

The findings of Harris and Lowery (2002:65) indicate that the headteacher who respects and treats every member of the school community fairly and equally encourages and emphasises behaviour that create a positive school climate. In addition to that, relating his experiences as a former headteacher, Heller (2002:78-79) affirms that showing compassion to staff makes them more willing to put in extra hours when need be. He believes in Maslow's hierarchy of needs: people function at high levels when their basic needs are met. He goes on to emphasise that personal relationships enhance loyalty and mutual support. Thus, when people are treated as human beings as opposed to machines, then potentials are discovered and utilized to the advantage of the school.

3.4 SUSTAINING A POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE

Freiberg and Stein (1999:25-26) compare sustaining school climate to tending a garden that requires continuous effort to retain its beauty. Continuous effort by implication involves motivation, evaluation and feedback and staff development.

3.4.1 Motivation

Benton (1995:131) states that the need for security, sense of belonging and recognition goes a long way in determining a worker's attitudes and level of performance. This scholar points out that leaders also recognize that individual needs are most of the time satisfied better with recognition and support than with money. This underscores the need for the headteacher to make use of praise to motivate the staff.

Fulton and Maddock (1998:12) and Asworth (1995:97) opine that headteachers have great opportunity to use the emotion (which already exists in the school) in a constructive way to energize teachers, pupils and parents and maximize motivation, getting them to be personally engaged in school activities in pursuit of school goals. Therefore, as a motivator, the headteacher needs to consistently acknowledge and praise the performance of teachers, pupils and parents. This, to some extent, would motivate them and therefore enhance their participation and performance in school. A school community with high level of motivation is fun to work in; it can accomplish unthinkable tasks and undoubtedly maintains a positive climate (Steffy 1989:1).

3.4.2 Evaluation and feedback

Steffy (1989:74-90) points out that the purpose of evaluating teachers should be to provide them with feedback on their performance. Thus, evaluation should not be seen as an end but rather as a means to an end. In order to maintain a positive climate, the headteacher needs to evaluate teachers' performance from time to time to enhance effective teaching. Evaluation is as important as giving feedback. Steffy argues that no feedback means no recognition and no recognition means no reward and this according to

her could lead to discouragement and frustration. On the same note, feedback according to Hill (1997:29-31) emphasises not only the act of, but also how it is given. He explains further that it builds confidence and competence in teachers when it is given in an appropriate way, workers will value it, and thus, their strength and contributions are enhanced. Otherwise it disappoints and de-motivates them. Therefore, the headteacher needs to provide teachers with feedback in an appropriate manner to either encourage them to keep up the good work they are doing or to advise them to improve in one area or the other, this helps the headteacher to effectively manage teachers' performance. As Hill (1997:122-123) points out, people like being recognized for outstanding performance and teachers are no different from other professionals, they appreciate being guided or praised as the situation demands. Regular evaluation of teachers' work as a means of improving teaching fosters positive climate in schools.

3.4.3 Staff development

Schools are service organisations that are committed to teaching and learning, and because the goal of the school is student learning, it is imperative that schools should be learning organisations, places where both pupils and staff capacities to create and achieve are encouraged. Therefore, just as pupils increase in knowledge continuously, staff also need to increase and renew their professional knowledge: learning and developing more effective and efficient ways to achieve school goals.

Harris (2002:99) contends that staff development is critical to student progress and therefore school improvement. According to her, research findings show that successful schools encourage and facilitate the learning of both teachers and pupils. Thus, the quality of staff development and learning is pivotal to maintaining and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning. However, Cohen and Scheer (2003:91) point out that most professional development, from a teacher's view does not cater for the diverse needs of teacher. Cohen and Scheer (2003:92-93) concur that a teacher-centred development plan, which caters for the needs, interest and talents of teachers is central to improving performance in schools. This is why Speck and Knipe (2004:12) maintain that

professional development plan should not be prescribed for teachers rather, teachers should have input in their professional development plans because they work directly with the pupils so, they are in the best position to understand pupils' needs. Besides, teachers are the recipients of professional development contents.

DuFour and Eaker (1998:261) maintain that the purpose of staff development is to help teachers as individuals and as a team to become more effective in helping pupils achieve the intended results of their education. In essence, staff development benefits both teachers and the school for the fact that teachers are learning for themselves and this makes them more effective teachers in class; that is, the passion to learn will spill over to their pupils, therefore pupils' enthusiasm will increase. More importantly, when teachers become learners, they are able to see and experience the frustrations and triumphs their pupils experience; this will probably help them to better understand pupils and to know how to handle them effectively. Ubben et al. (2001:28) believe that it is the responsibilities of the headteacher to set conditions that will enable teachers reach their full potentials. Thus, it is the headteachers's responsibility to initiate and support staff development in schools.

3.4.4 Teamwork

George (2003: 184) defines a team as a group of people with complementary skills, who work actively together to achieve a common purpose for which they hold themselves collectively accountable. In other words, teamwork occurs when teachers work together for the same purpose as their skills are well utilized to achieve common goals. This concept underscores the common saying: 'two good heads are better than one'. According to Cohen (2003: 82), when teachers work as a team, they serve their customers better. In effect, when teachers share ideas and experiences with regard to teaching, learning and discipline, they are likely to be more effective and efficient in the classroom.

Moreover, the findings of DuFour (2004:7) suggest that when teachers work collaboratively, it increases internal motivation, general job satisfaction, work efficacy

and professional commitment. In this respect, when teachers work together it benefits both the teachers and the pupils. For example, working as a team enables teachers to develop coordinated pupils' management strategies to address learning and behaviour problems. As a result, pupils with learning problems receive necessary assistance and those who are exhibiting discipline problems receive proper guidance with regard to acceptable behaviour. Besides, it increases teachers' competence in their job and it boosts the relationship among teachers. Thus, to a reasonable extent, working as a team enhances positive school climate. It is assumed that teachers are better able to work together as a group if they share common goals and if the school setting encourages it.

3.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the review of the literature reveals that climate differs from school to school. Some schools bubble with life and all activities are directed toward the achievement of school goals and objectives. Some other schools, though lively, may lack direction with regard to the fulfilment of their mission. In some schools, everybody, including pupils, is free to do what he/she likes, teachers work at will, they use school hours to attend to personal matters and they are not committed to their primary assignment. Pupils come to school when they feel like and they choose to either attend classes or not. They walk around aimlessly in the school premises when they are supposed to be in class. Nobody challenges them when they leave school premises during school hours, and lawlessness is the norm. In some other schools, all activities take place in an orderly manner. Both teachers and pupils know what to do and at what time and each group carries out its responsibilities as expected working toward excellence. Some schools are welcoming, happy places to work and learn. Everybody is treated as a human being, both staff and pupils are encouraged to air their views and opinions. In some other schools, tension is apparent: in the headteacher's office, in the classrooms, along hallways, on the playground during break and lunch times.

Although, teachers, pupils and parents' behaviour contribute to the kind of climate in a school, the headteacher's behaviour is found to be the main determinant of the climate

that exists in a school. His/her behaviour can hinder or foster positive climate. This is because teachers rely on the headteacher for leadership, motivation and development. Pupils also depend on the headteacher for quality education (variety of school activities and good physical environment). Also, parents look upon the headteacher to maintain high standards of academics and character so that their children get the best of education.

It is revealed that the open/healthy climate enhances teachers' commitment, competence initiative and empowerment. The relationship between the headteacher and teachers is genuine, such that it promotes cooperation, encourages teachers and increases their motivation. The headteacher is concerned about teachers' emotional and professional needs. Thus, most teachers are loyal to the headteacher and therefore committed to school and pupils. The kind of relationship between teachers and pupils encourages pupils to be open with their teachers and schoolmates; teachers are friendly, caring, enthusiastic, fair and democratic. Matters concerning pupils' schoolwork and or discipline are resolved together, using appropriate measures. Thus, there is a reduction in discipline problems, truancy and drop out rate. The headteacher, teachers and parents team up to ensure that pupils receive quality education.

However, it is revealed that the school needs to intentionally involve parents through empowerment, giving them some responsibilities that will improve their commitment to their children's education. Creating and maintaining an open climate in schools is imperative to moulding and developing a whole child. The school is the place where much of pupils' character is developed, their study and learning habits are formed and their perceptions of life and goal for future are shaped. This underpins the importance of creating and maintaining an open climate, suitable for moulding and developing a whole child. Positive school climate is often the product of the relationship between the headteacher and teachers, among teachers, between teachers and pupils, between parents and the school and most importantly the leadership of the headteacher. Positive school climate thrives when the headteacher knows how the worlds of schooling and of the school leadership works; when they realize that direct leadership is not the answer, but the use of the alternatives that are effective in linking people together and to their

responsibilities, to bring about improvement in all aspects of school. In the next chapter the methodology for the empirical is presented. It discusses the population, sample size, data collection techniques, data collection instruments, and the methods of analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one highlighted the problem statement, aims and objectives, methodology and structure of the thesis and presented the theoretical and conceptual framework that guided the study. Chapter two and three reviewed literature on leadership styles and school climate respectively. This chapter describes the empirical research conducted. Given the nature of the problem, a considerable number of schools participated in the study, hence the approach is basically quantitative.

The administration of data collection instruments, sampling procedure, data analysis, validity and reliability of the instruments are also discussed in this chapter. The major instruments consist of two close-ended questionnaires. In addition, semi-structured interviews were used to gather more information. In view of this, data are presented in both quantitative and qualitative formats

The use of both quantitative and qualitative techniques is considered necessary so as to procure a valid result and to establish, the relationship if any, between the headteacher's leadership style and the school climate (Boland 2001:5). In effect, the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods for complementary purposes was aimed at facilitating the collection of adequate data. Quantitative technique is considered scientific and objective as it uses scientific ways of finding reasons and explanations for certain situations in the society. The use of close-ended questionnaires, the selection of the study sample and the presentation of the research results usually in numbers characterize the quantitative research method (Rasool 2000:130).

In the same way, qualitative technique is regarded as effective in obtaining insightful information as respondents participate in a semi-structured interview. The results of close-ended questionnaires are presented in quantitative format employing frequency distributions to ascertain the number of respondents who named a particular variable. The researcher also discusses the trend of participants' responses as displayed on the distribution tables. The semi-structured interview responses are reported by giving a detailed description of the informants' responses. For better understanding of quantitative and qualitative method, the next section examines the differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods

4.2 SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE TECHNIQUES

Quantitative and qualitative research methods are similar and different in some ways. Taylor and Trumbull (2000:171) opine that both methods are similar on the ground that both approaches require definition of problems, statement of research questions, collection and analysis of data. In addition, McLaughlin, McLaughlin and Muffo (2001:16) state that theory is used in both quantitative and qualitative methods, but in different ways: qualitative research develops theories while quantitative research tests theories. From the foregoing, it appears that both research paradigms are equally significant. This is because developing ideas is good, but it is better when ideas are tested and utilized to the benefit of the society.

Several unique characteristics provide differences between quantitative and qualitative methods. For example, according to Taylor and Trumbull (2000:171) quantitative research is meant to give vivid report of an event and to reveal how an event can be manipulated through certain treatments. Thus, a quantitative researcher makes assumptions in advance using existing principles; these assumptions are however expected to lead to accurate predictions. Conversely, a qualitative researcher seeks to develop understanding of individuals in real life settings that cannot be objectively established. However, the qualitative researcher also makes assumptions based on the

peculiarities of individuals and cultures. Therefore, value judgement is possible after data analysis. Thus, qualitative research uses a deductive method while quantitative research uses inductive methods.

Taylor and Trumbull (2000:172) assert that a quantitative researcher attempts to study phenomena by breaking variables into parts, investigating and analyzing selected variables, in most cases to see the relationships among the variables. Punch (2003:11-12) alludes to the issue of seeking relationships between variables in quantitative research and argues that the crux of quantitative research is the investigation of correlation between variables. In other words, quantitative research seeks to discover how and why diverse variables are associated to each other. On the contrary, the qualitative researcher perceives phenomena as a whole and attempts to study in great detail all possible aspects of a given situation so as to explain, gain insight and understanding of phenomena. Thus, a qualitative researcher engages and concerns himself/herself with building theory based on collected data while a quantitative researcher is preoccupied with testing theory.

Taylor and Trumbull (2000:172) argue that quantitative research is valid and objective in the sense that, to a large extent, the researcher's values do not interfere with its process as they have minimum contacts with the subjects. That is, a quantitative researcher is not concerned about influencing the opinions of participants under study. Another characteristic of quantitative research is generalization of its findings. This underscores the fact that generalizations made from quantitative research findings are not limited to the sample of the study, but are applicable to the entire population from which the sample was taken as long as the sample shares similar characteristics with the population and the sample is big enough to represent the entire population. In order to ensure authenticity of responses for this study, the researcher endeavoured not to interfere with the normal activities of the school and encouraged the participants to give honest responses to both questionnaires and semi-structured interview.

Lancy (2001:2) contends that a quantitative study can be carried out within a short period ranging from a few hours and some days while qualitative study lasts between several

months or years. Hatch (2002:7) states that quantitative research uses instruments like questionnaires, checklists, scales, tests and the like while qualitative research uses the researcher as instrument, for data collection and data interpretation through observation, interviews, artefacts, et cetera.

McLaughlin et al. (2001:18) believe that for information that cannot be obtained through quantitative method (which relies mainly on close-ended questionnaire to collect data), the qualitative method can be effective in obtaining such information. For example, open-ended questionnaires, semi-structured and unstructured interviews allow the respondents to elaborate on their point with respect to the variable being studied.

Borland (2001:5) maintains that the differences between quantitative and qualitative research are not exclusive. He argues that both are ‘continuum of complementary’ approaches in that their combination in a study yields invaluable information. This implies that researchers can combine the two methods for better results. In other words, a researcher using quantitative approach to investigate a problem is not constrained to ignore any qualitative data collected in the process. For this research, close-ended questionnaires were administered to teachers and semi-structured interviews were conducted with some headteachers. Thus, the results are presented in an expository way, using fundamental descriptive statistics.

4.3 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Quantitative method is considered appropriate because it uses the survey in collecting data from a wide area by selecting a representative sample of a large population as compared to qualitative method that uses case study, selecting a few individuals or phenomena, which in most cases will not represent the entire population. This researcher believes that the quantitative method is effective to collect the necessary data for this research as it reflects various leadership styles the headteachers use, and the types of school climate that exist in most junior secondary schools in Botswana. Coupled with this is the argument that quantitative research method is in line with scientific principles,

which is believed to be the most appropriate way to obtain accurate information through the use of instruments. In other words, quantitative research method to a large extent reduces the chances of personal biases affecting the phenomena under study as it allows minimal interaction between the researcher and the subjects.

4.4 SURVEY

Basically, quantitative research uses the survey method, thus the researcher used a survey to collect data from selected junior secondary school teachers. In addition, an interview guide was used to gather information from some of the headteachers. In line with this, Rasool (2000:130) opines that the survey method is effective if the intention is to obtain information, using questionnaires and interviews. Nesbary (2000:10) states that survey is a process of collecting representative data from a larger population with the intention of generalizing the results to the population of interest. In view of this, it can be argued that the use of a survey is economical in terms of time and resources involved, because it covers a larger population within a short time compared to using a few individuals used in case studies.

Gorard (2003:57) contends that even though it may be preferable to use the entire population under study, using a carefully selected sample in a study is as good as using the entire population and even better than using ‘inaccurate set of figures’ for a population. Besides, Nesbary (2000:13) argues that the use of the entire target population may be infeasible in some situations; for instance, collection of data from a large population covering a wide area may be somewhat difficult. Nation (1997:57) emphasises that samples are manageable; therefore it is easy to accomplish a task with a sample whereas it is usually difficult to accomplish a task with an entire population. In the light of this, a sample will be used for this study.

Moreover, according to Nesbary (2000:13), most methods of ‘formal data’ analysis are basically guided by sampling theory. In effect, it can be deduced that the use of a representative sample of the target population in a study can be as effective as using the

whole population under study as it yields research findings that reflect the attributes of the whole population. Closely attached to survey is the issue of the sample. The size of the sample selected from the target population should be reasonably large to make generalization of the research findings meaningful. Accordingly, Gorard (2003:60) claims that it is better to use a large sample size regardless of the sampling selection technique used. He elaborates on this by saying that many times the number in the sample is not the best criterion to use to determine the cost and resources expended on the study, but more importantly, it increases the chances of generating research results that are attributable to the whole population. Moreover, Gibson and Hawkins' (2004:80) findings reveal that both questionnaires and structured interviews have similar effectiveness as research instruments. According to these researchers, the two instruments can produce almost equal results. It then follows that research cost can be reduced by using questionnaires especially when studying a somewhat homogeneous group not only to enhance objectivity and anonymity but because the difference between structured interview and questionnaire with regard to effectiveness is rather insignificant.

4.5 RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF METHODOLOGY

Botswana secondary schools face some challenges; many pupils suffer from bullies, some experience assaults from teachers, a considerable number of parents believe that their children do not enjoy the time they spend in school. Some pupils are involved in anti social activities like stealing, smoking, vandalizing school properties and committing suicide. In effect, the situations in some Botswana secondary schools demand attention.

Moreover, the attitudes of many secondary school teachers are not encouraging; some of the teachers are not committed to their jobs; they absent themselves from school and fail to carry out their primary responsibility. Some have illicit relationships with pupils, which indicate lack of professional ethics. Some schools experience a high rate of teacher turnover, which obstructs teaching and learning activities in these schools. It could be inferred that all the above-mentioned and some other factors are responsible for the decline in pupils' performance and the increase in drop out rates in some schools.

The implication of the afore-mentioned situation is that some secondary schools in Botswana are not exciting places to learn and work; they do not have the kind of climate that portrays a place where pupils and teachers are happy to be and where virtues can be imparted to both pupils and staff. In the light of this, the researcher deemed appropriate a quantitative research technique using survey to gather information from a big sample over a wide geographical area so as to solicit the opinions of many teachers on issues related to their working environment, perceptions of their headteachers' ways of dealing with issues concerning pupils and staff and their own relationship with their colleagues and pupils in their schools. Thus, a survey was considered suitable for the purpose of this study, based on the point that a big sample should be drawn from a large population spread over a wide geographical area, as in this case, community junior secondary schools are in rural and urban areas.

Gunter (2002:227) maintains that the quantitative research method is advantageous in the sense that it generates results that can be readily generalized to the target population from which the sample was drawn. Therefore, a survey was considered appropriate so as to gain insight into the leadership styles of headteachers in Botswana junior secondary schools and the type of climate that exists in these schools.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:146) assert that central to the quantitative research method is the investigation and understanding of the relationship between variables and since this study is looking at the relationship between leadership style and school climate, this method was considered the most suitable for the realization of the aim of the study. Punch (2003:23) states that unlike qualitative research, quantitative survey does not accommodate the manipulation of variables or alteration of treatment for research purposes. Since the researcher's intention was to avoid interfering with school activities during the study, quantitative survey method was found to be the most appropriate.

4.6 DETERMINING THE RESEARCH SAMPLE SIZE

It appears there is no conventional way of determining a sample size that is representative of the target population as there are diverse views on this issue. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:86) a representative sample must have the same properties as the population from which it is drawn. Moreover, these authors suggest that ‘correct’ and ‘complete’ sampling frame should be used to ensure representativeness of the sample. That is to say that a representative sample will reflect characteristics of the target population if the sample is carefully chosen.

Sowell (2001:43) defines a target population as a group of people that share common characteristics from which the researcher aims to generalize his/her results. She stresses the need for the researcher to describe an accessible population within the target population from which a sample is taken. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006:93) also concur that a sample should be taken from the accessible population rather than using the target population. They assert that while the target population is ‘ideal’ in research, the accessible population is ‘realistic’. Based on the afore-mentioned point, the researcher drew the sample for this study from the accessible population.

Gay and Airasian (2003:104) state that the first thing to do in the sample selection process is to ‘identify’ and ‘define’ the target population. According to these scholars, the target population is the interest group the researcher intends to study and to which the research result will be generalized. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:85) emphasise the need to clearly define and describe the target population to make the compilation of the list of people in the population possible and more importantly, to ensure that the sample is selected among those who belong to the target population only.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:207) stress the importance of obtaining a sample that is representative of the target population from which inferences are to be drawn. They argue that it would not be a worthwhile exercise if by the end of the day survey results cannot be accurately generalized to the target population due to under representativeness of the

sample. In other words, a sample that is too small can make the *generalizability* of the study almost impossible and meaningless, this may be used to explain why some scholars, for example, Cohen et al. (2001: 94) believe that the ‘larger the sample, the better’.

However, Gay and Airasian (2003:111) assert that it is most likely to obtain a representative sample if random sampling technique is used. In addition, Gay and Airasian (2003:111) state that the sample of 10% to 20% of the target population is often used in descriptive research. However, these authors claim that the sample size of 400 is sufficient when the population size is about 5000 units or more. Krejcie and Morgan (in Hill 1998:6) used the United States Office of Education formula to produce a table, which indicates a sample size of a given population. According to Hill (1998:6) the table can be used as long as the definite population size is known. Krejcie and Morgan (in Hill 1998:6) suggest that the following sample sizes for the corresponding specific population sizes can be used.

Table 4.1 Theoretical sample sizes (S) for definite population sizes (N)

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	100000	384

Source: Airasian (2003:113)

Cohen et al. (2001:94) suggest that using random sampling technique to determine sample size associated with ‘confidence level and sample error’ is another way of obtaining sample *representativeness*. These scholars specify certain population sizes with their corresponding sample sizes at 95 percent confidence level. In essence, there is the likelihood that the sample will be representative if the researcher ensures that sampling error of 5 percent with a confidence level of 95 percent is obtained as indicated in the table below.

Table 4.2 Sample size, confidence levels and sampling error

Sampling error of 5% with a Confidence of 95%	
Population (N)	Size of size population (S)
50	44
100	79
200	132
500	217
1,000	278
2,000	322
5,000	357
10,000	370
20,000	377
50,000	381
100,000	383
1,000,000	384

Source: Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2001:95)

In order to obtain a sample size that will be representative of the target population, the researcher obtained two lists from the Teaching Service Management Office. One of these lists shows the names, addresses, location and regions of all community junior secondary schools in Botswana with corresponding names of headteachers in these schools. The other list shows the number of teachers in each of these community junior secondary schools.

According to the Teaching Service Management statistics, the total number of community junior secondary schools is 206 with a corresponding number of 206 headteachers and a total number of 8348 teachers. Going by the sample size recommended by Krejcie and Morgan (in Hill 1998:6) for a corresponding population as

indicated in table 4.1 and to have a higher confidence level and minimum sample error as shown in table 4.2, the sample of 600 teachers selected from the target population of 8348 teachers was representative.

4.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

According to Lankshear and Knobel (2004:161) researchers in quantitative studies should endeavour to use instruments that are not only reliable but also valid. These scholars perceive reliability as the stability of response to a data collection tool irrespective of the number of times the data are administered to the same respondents. In other words, an instrument is considered reliable if it produces the same or similar result each time it is administered to the same respondents. However, Punch (2003:42) contends that reliability of an instrument depends on whether the question can be steadily and sincerely responded to, using scales and options given and the respondents' attitudes while responding to the instrument. It could be argued that an instrument may not be absolutely reliable even when participant's responses can be predicted each time the instrument is administered, as it may be influenced by respondent's disposition.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:161) refer to validity as the 'meaningfulness of the result'. It deals with how well an instrument measures what it is meant to measure. Punch (2003:43) however claims that validity deals with how a respondent can candidly and meticulously respond to questions, which he believes partly depends on the respondents' attitude and mind condition. He says further that validity is also related to the respondents' ability to answer the question asked in the instrument. This, according to him, is usually taken care of at pilot testing stage. It then follows that reliability and validity of the instrument can be obtained by being careful about the choice of words to ensure clarity and relevance with regard to sentence construction. Also, pilot testing the data collection instrument before its actual administration enhances validity. Therefore, the instrument collection tools for this study were pilot tested for modification.

4.8 PRINCIPLES AND ETHICS GUIDING RESEARCH

Siebe (in Sikes 2004:25) perceives ethics as the application of moral principles while interacting with others in order to be respectful and fair and promote healthy relationships. This implies that, it is not enough for the researchers to be aware of fundamental principles guiding ethical decisions, they should also be concerned about ethics so as to be cautious of hurting people who have something to do with the research. In the light of this, when the researcher embarked on empirical study, the researcher ensured that basic ethical principles guiding research were adhered to. Honesty and openness were used as guiding words. This means being open to and honest with the research participants; explaining to them the purpose of the study and other information that might increase their willingness to participate. In addition, the researcher readily clarified issues in the questionnaire as the need arise.

Leary (2001:330) maintains that every researcher has the obligation to protect participants' rights and welfare. He asserts that one of the ways to ensure that participants' rights are protected is to obtain *informed consent*. Sikes (2004:25) adds that research is an activity that affects people's lives, therefore research should be ethical. Thus, the researcher obtained *informed consent* of the research subjects before they participated in the study. Leary (2001:335) argues that obtaining *informed consent* indicates that the researcher respects participants' privacy and provides them with required information, which could help them decide whether to agree or decline to participate in the study. In agreement with this principle, the researcher assured the respondents that their views would be absolutely anonymous and confidential. Therefore, they were not asked to write their names on the questionnaires. Jensen (2002:245) maintains that respondents' anonymity should be preserved to avoid possible embarrassment for providing certain information. He argues that respondents have the right not to associate themselves with the information they give. Therefore, the application of *principles of reverse copyright* in most studies whereby the respondents speak as anybody rather than somebody is essential. In other words, it is pertinent to keep respondents identity confidential.

4.9 SAMPLING OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

For the purpose of this study 30 community junior secondary schools from the total of 206 community junior secondary schools were selected to participate in the study. For accessibility purpose, the schools were from two congruous regions out of the five regions in Botswana. Botswana community junior secondary schools usually have similar characteristics; they are run by the government in partnership with the community and each of the schools has a board dominated by the community members. Therefore, the schools were selected from two regions, namely: South and South Central. The schools were selected by stratified random sampling technique. Gorard (2003:68) opines that stratified sample allows the researcher to select cases in proportion to one or two characteristics in the population to enhance high quality sample. In the light of this, the researcher considered two variables: rural and urban in stratifying the sample of the schools.

Cohen et al. (2001:101) state that the whole population should be shared into homogenous groups, each group having comparable features. In this respect, it is assumed that teachers have similar characteristics with the exception that teachers in rural areas may not perceive all situations, as would their counterparts in urban areas. In essence, teachers in rural and urban areas participated in the study. According to Wallen and Fraenkel (2001:135) a sample from each subgroup should be in corresponding proportion, as they exist in the population. Based on that, the same proportion of schools and teachers was taken from rural and urban areas.

Schumacher and McMillan (1993:163) suggest that when stratified sampling is used to select schools, the subjects from such schools should be selected randomly. Therefore, teachers were selected randomly. According to Sowell (2001:43), random sampling is a good technique as it provides a sample representative of the target population and prevents researcher's biases to come into play in the selection process. The main reason for this is that each member of the population has equal chance of being selected to be in the sample.

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:65), research participants are the units of analysis as they are the sources from which research data are being collected. Therefore, data analysis should reflect an accurate picture of the research participants. In the light of this, the analysis and the general discussion of this study revolve around headteachers and teachers under study.

The research participants of this study were the headteachers and teachers in selected community junior secondary schools. A total of 20 headteachers in both rural and urban areas participated in the semi-structured interviews. The teachers participated by completing leadership style and school climate research questionnaires. Given the teachers' educational and professional training, it is assumed that they understand the complex dynamics of the school situation; their constant interaction with headteachers, pupils and parents has equipped them with the needed experience to read and decipher the school situation day in day out.

The pupils and their parents influence school climate to a certain extent. However, their influence is subject to the role the headteacher plays as the overall head of the school and the role the teachers play as they go about their duties in the school compound. As a result, both pupils and parents were not selected to respond to any research data collection tool. Nevertheless, the researcher carried out informal observations of interactions between pupils and teachers and among pupils during school hours especially during break and lunch times.

As mentioned earlier, 30 schools were selected in both rural and urban areas using stratified sampling techniques. Based on Teaching Service Management, 168 schools are in rural areas while 38 schools are in urban areas, which correspond to 82 percent and 18 percent respectively of the total number of schools (206 schools). To select 30 schools using a table of random numbers 25 schools (82 percent of 30) in rural and 5 schools (18 percent of 30) in urban areas were used. Likewise, statistics indicate that there are 6621 teachers in rural areas and 1727 teachers in urban areas indicates 79 percent and 21

percent of the whole population of 8348 teachers in all community junior secondary schools in Botswana. Four hundred and seventy four 474 teachers (79 percent of 600) and 126 teachers (21 percent of 600) in rural and urban areas respectively were randomly selected, making a total of 600 teachers. Thus, the same quota of school and teachers as they exist in the population were selected. A total of 20 headteachers was interviewed.

In the selection of teachers, the researcher adopted a simple random sampling technique suggested by Vuuren and Maree (2002:277) by using the computer to generate a table of random numbers between the values of 1 and 6621; and values of 1 and 1727. A total of 600 subjects randomly identified by the computer in these two groups was selected from the sampling frames.

4.9.1 Data-collection procedures

The researcher obtained a covering letter from the Chairman of Teaching Service Management to intimate the headteachers of the essence of the study and solicit their cooperation by participating in the interview and by encouraging selected teachers in their schools to respond to the questionnaires. The researcher contacted the school headteachers by phone to arrange for the administration as well as the collection of the questionnaires. Follow-up visits were made to participating schools to enhance the response rate.

4.10. INSTRUMENTS

The main instruments be used for data collection are the teachers' questionnaires that were adapted for the purpose of this study. Two different questionnaires were used. The Leadership Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD-Other) questionnaire and the Organisational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire-Rutgers Secondary (OCDQ-RS) were administered to the teachers to appraise the headteachers' leadership styles and to assess the school climate respectively. In the next section, the two instruments are discussed in details.

4.10.1 The OCDQ instrument

In order to understand and evaluate the school climate, especially to pinpoint the key aspects of the teacher-teacher and principal-teacher interactions in schools, the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was developed by Halpin and Croft (in Halpin 1966:144-145) to map and assess the various kinds of climates along a continuum from 'open to closed'. Halpin (1966:147) states that the OCDQ contains sixty-four items which assess eight dimensions of the school climate. Halpin (1966:150) explains further that four of the dimensions refer to the behaviour of the teachers while the remaining four deal with the headteachers' behaviour. The traits referring to the teachers' behaviour are the following: disengagement, hindrance, spirit and intimacy. The distinguishing features of the headteachers' behaviour are: aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration.

Hoy and Clover (1986:96) discuss some of the limitations of the OCDQ which include the fact that some of its items are no more valid, the meaning of some of the dimensions is unclear, the climate continuum is confusing and possibly not a single continuum, the notion of school climate does not include students and lastly the unit of analysis in the construction of the OCDQ dimensions was the individual rather than the school. All these inadequacies of the OCDQ led to the simplified version of the OCDQ for elementary schools referred to as the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire-Rutgers Elementary (OCDQ-RE). Hoy and Clover (1986:96) explain that the OCDQ was revised first by reviewing the original OCDQ, second generating new items, third pilot testing the new instruments and reducing the number of items and last creating factor structure for the new OCDQ. According to Hoy and Clover (1986:100), the OCDQ-RE, unlike the original OCDQ, contains forty-two items, which assesses six dimensions of elementary school climate. Three of the dimensions (collegial, intimate and disengaged) portray the behaviour of elementary teachers and the other three (supportive, directive and restrictive) depict the behaviour of headteachers in primary schools.

Kottkamp, Mulhern and Hoy (1987:35) assert that secondary schools are different from elementary schools in that the former are more complicated than the latter; secondary school teachers are experts in their subject areas and the schools have distinct principles regulating both the behaviour of staff and students. Hoy and Tarter (1997:44) affirm the assertion that elementary schools are different from secondary schools because the former are staffed with teachers who have child-centred orientation and are concerned with complete development of the child. Apart from the defects of the original OCDQ, Kottkamp et al. (1987:33) believe that the OCDQ instrument is not suitable for measuring climate in secondary schools. As a result, Kottkamp et al. (1987:37) revised the OCDQ and produced the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire-Rutgers Secondary (OCDQ-RS). Kottkamp et al. (1987:37-40) outline the stages of the OCDQ-RS development: firstly, old items were revised by eliminating the redundant and unsuitable items and by generating new items, secondly, a pilot study was carried out for further refinement, thirdly, another study was undertaken to assess the stability of the factor framework and lastly, the instrument was tested for validity and reliability.

Kottkamp et al. (1987:42) state that the OCDQ-RS contains thirty-four items which are classified into five dimensions out of which two (supportive and directive) illustrate the headteachers' behaviour and the other three (engaged, frustrated and intimate) portray the behaviour of secondary school teachers. Other organisational climate measuring instruments include: the Organisational Description Questionnaire Revised for Middle School (OCDQ-RM), the Organisational Health Inventory (OHI) and the Pupil-Control Ideology (PCI) form, but the OCDQ-RS was used in this study because it focuses on secondary schools.

4.10.2 The LEAD instrument

Hersey and Blanchard (1977: 84) assert that Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) was developed at the Centre of Leadership Studies, Ohio University. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977: 255) the LEAD instrument was devised to mark-out three aspects of leader behaviour: style, style range and style adaptability. The

LEAD instrument is of two types: LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. Hersey and Blanchard (1977: 84) emphasise that the LEAD-Self does not measure the Leadership style of the leader as it only reflects how a leader perceives his/her behaviour in the process of influencing others while LEAD-Other measures the leader's leadership style because leadership style is basically the behaviour pattern the leader displays while influencing the activities of others as perceived by those others (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:164). In effect an individual's leadership style is not necessarily what he/she perceives as his/her style except if his/her perception is close to others' perceptions. This was the basis for developing the two LEAD instruments: LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. LEAD-Self measures self-perception of an individual's behaviour as a leader. The LEAD-Other reveals the perception of a leader's followers. However, it would be useful to compare the leader and followers' perceptions of the leader's style so as to see the dissimilarity between self-perception and others' perception (Hersey & Blanchard 1988:275).

Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson's (2001:265) studies indicate that all leaders have a 'primary' leadership style while most of them have a secondary leadership style. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001:265) define a leader's primary style as the behaviour pattern the leader uses most times while he/she endeavours to affect the activities of others whereas his/her secondary style is the style he/she uses once in a while. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001:265) stress the point that all leaders use one of the 'basic' styles: telling, selling, participating or delegating most times in leadership contexts when functioning as leaders. However, they point out that some leaders may not have secondary style and if at all they do, they may not have up to three secondary styles.

The style range according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:299) is the degree to which a leader can vary his/her leadership style. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:299) believe that there is variation in the ability of leaders to change their style in various situations. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:299) explain further that some leaders appear to be restricted to one main style and as a result, they are effective in situation in which their style is in consonance with the situation. Whereas, other leaders have the ability to adjust their behaviour to suit many of the four basic styles, yet some

leaders are able to use two or three styles. The issue is that leaders that are adaptable are likely to be more successful in different circumstances.

Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:300) describe style adaptability as the ‘degree to which leaders are able to modify their style appropriately’ to the needs of a particular situation in conformity to situational leadership. In effect a leader who is able to alter his/her style to match the situation is seen as an adaptable leader. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:300) differentiate style range from style adaptability by saying that leaders with style adaptability modify whatever style (or styles) they use to suit a given situation. Leaders with a limited style range can be effective for a long time provided they stay in situations in which their style is most likely to be successful, but they cannot be considered as having style adaptability. Conversely, leaders with a broad scope of styles may be ineffective if they use a style that is unsuitable to the demands of the prevailing situation. Again, these leaders cannot be considered to have style adaptability. Therefore, a wide style range does not assure effectiveness, style variety is not as related to effectiveness as style adaptability. Based on the aforementioned, a leader will be effective if he/she possesses the ability to adjust his/her leadership style to match correctly the situation at hand. Needless to say that the leader’s ability to assess correctly various instances is critical to using styles appropriately. According to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:302), the LEAD instrument consists of twelve situations which are divided into four groups; each group describes a different readiness level of followers: low readiness, low-to-moderate readiness, moderate-to-high readiness and high readiness level. Hersey and Blanchard (1977:257-271) provide four alternative actions for each situation. However, the alternatives are arranged in order of their effectiveness for each situation rather than in alphabetical order. In essence, the alternative actions represent the four basic leadership styles namely: telling, selling, participating and delegating.

4.11 RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF THE OCDQ AND LEAD INSTRUMENTS

Both the OCDQ and LEAD instruments are specifically designed to measure organisational climate and leadership behaviour respectively. The OCDQ instruments

have been tested, revised and used in related research studies and researchers like Hoy, Hoffman, Sabo and Bliss (1996:46) assert that the validity and reliability of the revised versions of the OCDQ instruments have proven to be strong. Besides, since the school climate is one of the variables under study, the OCDQ-RS instrument which was specifically designed to measure organisational climate in secondary schools was considered apt for the assessment of the climate of secondary schools in this study. The OCDQ-RS was adapted to suit the context in which the study was undertaken so that it would be effective for data collection on school climate at secondary school level.

The LEAD instruments have been used many times for research purposes and have proven effective for measuring the leadership style of managers (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:293-294). Hersey and Blanchard (1977:244) assert that leadership style can be measured using the LEAD-Other instrument as leadership style is based on the followers' perceptions of the leader's behaviour and not on the leader's perception of his/her behaviour. Since the LEAD-Other instrument is designed to assess the leadership style of an individual, the researcher adapted it to collect data on leadership style, which is the second variable being examined in the study.

Moreover, from the literature reviewed, validity and reliability of instruments affect relationship study in the sense that if the measurement instruments have poor validity and reliability the extent of the relationship (if any) between the two variables being studied may not be indicated (Leedy & Ormrod 2005:267). Since the focus of this study is to measure the relationship between leadership style and school climate, the researcher believes that adapting already developed instruments with reasonable degree of validity and reliability would enhance the quality of this study.

Also, a semi-structured interview guide was used to interview 20 headteachers on the issue of their leadership style so as to compare their perceptions and their followers' perceptions of the headteachers' leadership style. Lankshear and Knobel (2004:202) state that semi-structured interviews afford researchers to dig deep into the phenomena under study. This implies that the semi-structured interview guide will consist of both

structured and unstructured questions to enhance the opportunity for the interviewee to elaborate on his/her understanding of the situation under study. The researcher checked the attendance records of both pupils and teachers, took note of teacher's turnover rate, student expulsion rate, student mobility rate and student achievement and analyse the physical structures in the school compound. The questionnaires appended to this study as appendices A were the main data-collection tools in this study. An interview guide also appended to this study as appendix B was used to interview the headteachers.

According to Opie (2004:111), interviews, when used as data-collection tool, was often meant to complement questionnaires. He posits that open-ended questions cannot effectively achieve the details, which can be achieved through interview. He observes that some respondents, for one reason or the other are not enthusiastic about expressing their views and feelings and providing reasons in writing. Lankshear and Knobel (2004:198) affirm this statement by saying that interviews are useful tools to generate comprehensive information about the phenomena being studied. It can be inferred that more than any other data-collection tool, an interview gives the interviewer a unique opportunity to probe for clarification and in-depth information on the topic of interest.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:198) describe an interview as a planned communication between two or more individuals of which one person assumes the position of an interviewer, asking questions on 'topic of formal interest' and the other(s) as interviewee(s) responding to those questions. In essence, the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee is usually initiated by the former for the purpose of soliciting information from the latter and seems to be the fundamental attribute of an interview.

Carspecken (in Lankshear & Knobel 2004:198) observes that respondents utter information in interview that they would not normally bring into an ordinary conversation. Accordingly, Lankshear and Knobel (2004:199) posit that the level of interest shown by the interviewer can either spur the interviewee to open up or to make a mockery of the exercise. By implication, it is important for the interviewer to be cautious of his/her disposition by being careful not to loose the trend of the interview so as to

achieve the intended goal. As suggested by Leedy and Ormord (2005:184) the interview in quantitative study should be formal. Leedy and Ormord (2005:184) and Vuuren and Maree (2002:282) believe that high response rates can be achieved through face to face interview because the interviewer has the opportunity to establish rapport with participants. Consequently, the participants are actively involved in the interview. In this regard, it is essential for the interviewer to be aware that establishing rapport with participants is not optional if participants' cooperation is needed for the success of the interview.

Nesbary (2000:26) maintains that the interview is about the best instrument that allows the interviewer to 'read' participant's reaction; therefore, the interviewer is able to adjust and reframe subsequent question(s) appropriately. It then follows that the interviewer needs to be observant so as to catch every detail during the interview. However, Leary (2001:94) contends that because participants' anonymity is virtually impossible in a face-to-face interview, participants may not be as honest as they would if responding to a questionnaire. Based on this, it could be argued that interviewee's openness during interview as observed by Phi Carspecken (in Lankshear and Knobel 2004:198) does not necessarily mean sincerity. Thus, it is important for the interviewer to assure the interviewee that his/her identity will not be made known. Moreover, Vuuren and Maree (2002:282) contend that, the interview is vulnerable to subjectivity especially when dealing with a sensitive topic; the interviewer's perception may be reflected in how questions are presented to the interviewee. Thus, there is the possibility that the interviewee's response is affected by interviewer's biases. By implication, it is important that the interviewer takes a neutral stand throughout the interview exercise.

Available literature identifies four types of interviews. They are: the structured, semi-structured, unstructured/informal and retrospective interviews (Opie 2004:117-118; Fraenkel & Wallen 2006:455-456). Opie (2004:117) posits that a structured interview has characteristics that are similar to the questionnaire in 'form' and in purpose; both bring a kind of formality into the situation and findings are often attributed to a large population. Thus, in many cases, structured interview uses a large sample size.

Essentially, structured interview is more or less objective because the interview strictly follows the list of prepared questions. Structured interview uses a sequence of short and direct questions that require simple answers. Unlike structured interview, semi-structured interview is used to collect detailed information by means of probing. Therefore, by nature, semi-structured interview is flexible and allows the interviewer to exercise his/her initiative by modifying the initial list of questions in the course of the interview, which increases the probability of interviewer's biases affecting the conclusions drawn from the interview (Opie 2004:118). In other words, the interviewer is at liberty to pose relevant follow-up questions at any point he/she thinks appropriate. All the same, his/her biases are likely to creep in due to his/her freedom to manage the interview as he/she deems fit.

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:202) point out that the unstructured/informal interview is similar to the semi-structured interview in that both allow the interviewer to probe for details. Nevertheless, the unstructured interview, according to Opie (2004:118) does not use interview guide, therefore no planned direction in place; it is generally based on the topic pre-determined by the interviewer, but basically follows the interviewee's flow of thought. Thus, the pace and ground covered are determined by the interviewee. In effect, even though the interviewer does not use any list of prepared interview questions, he/she is conscious of the purpose of the interview.

A retrospective interview, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006:456) can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured/informal, but the researcher makes the respondent remember and rebuild from memory a past event. These scholars opine that a retrospective interview may not be effective in seeking reliable information. In other words, it is not likely to obtain reliable data, as some vital information may have been lost to bad memory.

4.12 GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWING

Conducting a successful interview demands the interviewer to observe certain things. The following are some of the guidelines suggested by Leary (2001:93-94), and Leedy and Ormord (2005:187-188):

- *Create a friendly atmosphere.* Leary (2001:93) stresses the need for the interviewer to establish and maintain rapport with the participants as this creates an atmosphere of trust and encourages the interviewees to respond with open mind.
- *Adhere to interview schedule.* Leary (2001:94) suggests that an interviewer should allow himself/herself to be guided by the interview guide and should ask all participants each question the same way. This means that the interviewer should not try to modify the questions in the course of the interview; there should be no addition or subtraction from the initial guide.
- *Do not put words in interviewee's mouth.* Leedy and Ormord (2005:188) warn interviewer against interrupting interviewee's flow of thought with the intention of helping him/her to complete a sentence or as a sign of agreeing with the interviewee's ideas. It is advisable for the interviewer to take a neutral position on the issues being explored so as to get the true picture of the interviewee's mind.
- *Order interview sections.* Leary (2001:94) indicates that it is essential for the interviewer to arrange and pose interview questions in a logical manner, being careful not to begin with sensitive questions. It implies that starting with basic or less sensitive questions makes the interviewee less sensitive and emotional.

4.13 QUANTITATIVE DATA-ANALYSIS STRATEGIES: RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Lankshear and Knobel (2004:145) state that one of the major factors distinguishing quantitative from qualitative research technique is that the former uses numbers to summarise the prevailing situation in the society. Peers (1996:2) indicates that the use of statistics is advantageous at various stages in research, for example, in determining sample size, validity and reliability of research instruments, in sampling procedure and data analysis. He explains further that the use of statistics helps to ensure that the sample selected for the study is representative of the target population so as to enhance accuracy in the and analysis deduction of data. The essence of this is to avoid possible human error that could affect research findings in order to obtain as much as possible a true reflection of the situation under study. It can be deduced that statistics is central to quantitative research technique.

Thorndike and Dinnel (2001:3) describe statistics as techniques ‘used to summarise quantities of information’ and assists researchers to ‘draw sound conclusions’. Therefore, the use of statistics can help the researcher to give meaning to the raw data collected to measure especially in this situation, the relationship that may exist between headteacher’s leadership style and school climate. Francisco (2000:104) states that there are two major categories of statistical techniques, namely descriptive and inferential statistics. According to this scholar, descriptive statistics are employed to convert massive numbers into indices that describe observed traits in the sample. He explains further that descriptive statistics are useful in summarizing and interpreting the research findings. Taylor (2000:6) adds that statistics are useful to describe, generalize and measure relationship. In this regard, it can be inferred that descriptive statistics are condensed data, which can be used to represent variables and indicate relationships between variables.

Thorndike and Dinnel (2001:5) assert that the main purpose of collecting information is to describe the situation being studied. According to these scholars, this kind of description requires the application of descriptive statistics that will help the researcher to

concisely describe the situation in question in a way that other people can understand it. It therefore follows that the use of descriptive statistics methods is to make sense of a large set of unorganized data usually collected from a selected sample.

Russo (2003:10) states that inferential statistics are used to generalize observed traits from sample data to the population from which the sample is a sub-group. Russo (2003:10) and Kiess (2002:6) maintain that descriptive statistics provide the basis for inferential statistics. Thus, the application of inferential statistics in research depends on descriptive statistics. This is to say that inferential statistics will not be possible without the full understanding of descriptive statistics. It then follows that the purpose of using and describing a sample is to make inferences about the sample to the population from which the sample was drawn with respect to the variables being studied. In other words, the use of inferential statistics is to indicate the amount of similarities between the sample and the population from which the sample was taken. Kiess (2002:6) indicates further that the issue of sampling and *representativeness* of the sample is crucial in descriptive study; it enables the researcher to relate the attributes to the target population as observed from the sample. It can be deduced that generalization of the results obtained from the sample to the entire population depends on the choice of sampling and most especially the sample size. It is justifiable to generalize results from the sample to the population if the sample is representative of the population. Based on the above, it is essential for the researcher to use appropriate sampling technique and adequate sample size for easy interpretation of data, indicating clearly the relationship between variables, if any, and the amount of the relationship and for inferences to be made.

However, for the purpose of this study, descriptive statistics will be used because it is a descriptive quantitative research, which intends to look at possible relatedness between leadership styles and school climate, and more importantly the aim of the researcher is to sensitise the headteachers, teachers, education administrators and other stakeholders about the relationship between leadership style and school climate. It then follows that they are the potential consumers of the ultimate findings of this study. In this respect, descriptive statistics are found suitable to enhance easy consumption of the research

findings as they can be effectively used to summarise the findings explicitly. In other words, descriptive statistics are suitable because they can be used to present frequency distribution tables, diagrams and other simple graphic devices to summarise the relationship (if it exists) between leadership style and school climate.

4.14 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Hatch (2002:148) perceives data analysis in qualitative research as a logical search for meaning whereby data are sorted out in ways that enable the researcher to recognize patterns, pinpoint themes, and notice relationships. In essence, qualitative data analysis needs to be handled methodically in order to make sense of it. Unlike quantitative data, qualitative data are to some extent hard to grasp and analyse because of its data-collection instruments, for example semi-structured and unstructured/informal interviews attract various possible responses from respondents. Thus, Dey (1993:11) confirms that qualitative data are rich in meaning as they present information in various ways other than numbers.

Comparing quantitative to qualitative data analysis, Opie (2004:151) asserts that quantitative data analysis is more or less direct as the choice of analysis is usually dictated by the type of data collected, while qualitative data analysis does not seem to have such specification. However, Dey (1993:3-7) opines that since qualitative data deal with meanings and because their analysis is done through conceptualization, which require reasoning and distinguishing between ideas and data. Dey (1993:7) maintains that even though qualitative analysis requires the use of ideas, ideas should be guided by the data that is being analysed. This is to say that the analysis should reflect the content of that data collected. Dey (1993:30) asserts that qualitative analysis relies on description of phenomena, which lays the basis for interpretation, which again lays the basis for further description. Analysis is all about a good understanding of the data and based on the knowledge of the data, predictions can be made (Dey 1993:30).

One way of handling a study data that involves the use of interview guide is to use the interview guide questions to organize the data into categories (Tesch 1990:142). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the qualitative aspect were analysed in an interpretive way. The respondents' responses were interpreted according to the interview guide questions, giving an in-depth description and where necessary quoting the informants, words. Nestor (2001:59) maintain that qualitative interview data portrays the true representation of 'what was said and how and in what context'. Therefore, before embarking on the qualitative data analysis the researcher read the interview transcripts (Dey1993:30) after which the researcher reported the responses according to the interview guide questions for the purposes of accuracy.

4.15 DATA PROCESSING

Prior to analysis of the data, the researcher undertook an exercise, which Punch (2003:45) refers to as '*data cleaning*'. According to him, data-cleaning procedure enables the researcher to spot and eliminate all errors emanating from unclear responses, omission of data and other related mistakes. In this respect, the researcher proofread all responses to ascertain that the data were free of any error. Following this exercise was the coding of data, which involved translating closed as well as open-ended responses into numerical symbols (Durrheim 2004:98). After this, the data were entered into computer for analysis, using the software developed for the OCDQ-RS and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyse the data and the result obtained assisted to identify the leadership style and school climate and to correlate the two variables.

4.16 CONCLUSION

In this Chapter, the researcher provided the justification for the choice of quantitative research technique and explained the strategies employed to implement and complete the empirical study. The principles and ethics that guiding a survey were reviewed, and sampling procedures and sample size were outlined. The questionnaires and interview guide used as the major instruments to collect data were described. Lastly, the data-

collection, data reduction and data analysis were described. The next Chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of data elicited from both the questionnaires and interviews.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Four discussed the research methodology. The rationale for the choice of quantitative methodology, instruments and descriptive statistical analysis was given. This Chapter presents the data collected from the empirical study; data analysis and interpretation. The aim was to investigate the relationship between headteachers' leadership styles and school climate in Botswana secondary schools using the following research questions:

1. What different leadership styles are employed by school headteachers?
2. What are the different types of climates in schools?
3. Are the leadership styles of school headteachers responsible for the climate that exists in their schools?
4. What are the implications of the headteachers' leadership styles for school climate?
5. How can school climate be improved? What roles can the headteachers, teachers and other stakeholders play to improve school climate?

Findings are presented in accordance with data on two or more related questions.

5.2 RESPONSE RATE AND STRUCTURE OF DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The response rate was not very good. Some teachers were reluctant to participate due to the sensitivity of the topic under investigation. As a result, thirty-five (35) schools instead of thirty (30) schools as indicated in chapter four, participated in the study in order to obtain sufficient data. Even though the number of participating schools was increased the total number of community junior secondary school teachers who returned usable questionnaires was 511. However, the community junior secondary school headteachers

were willing, but they were most of the time away from school attending conferences, seminars and workshops. Nevertheless, after several attempts the researcher was able to interview a total of twenty community junior secondary school headteachers. Each of the community junior secondary school teachers who participated in the study responded to a questionnaire that contained the OCDQ-RS and LEAD-Other which were adapted for data collection in this study. There were thirty-six (36) items in the teachers' questionnaires on school climate while the remaining twelve (12) items were on leadership style. The interview guide for the headteachers had five (5) items.

There were two sections in the teachers' questionnaires. Section A covered issues on school climate and section B dealt with issues on leadership styles. The names of the community junior secondary schools which participated and the personal data of all the participants were not to be published in the research report.

5.3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE OCDQ-RS AND LEAD-Other DATA

As indicated earlier, thirty-five community junior secondary schools eventually participated in this study. These schools were grouped into five, according to their geographical location within the South and South Central regions in Botswana so as to make the analysis of the data less complicated. The groups were represented by letters A – E and each group comprised seven community junior secondary schools. The LEAD-Other as well as the OCDQ-RS data were analysed according to the number of schools in a group.

5.3.1 The OCDQ-RS data

The OCDQ-RS has thirty-four items which are divided into five (5) dimensions that describe the behaviour of secondary school teachers and headteachers. Two dimensions measured headteacher's behaviour and the other three (3) dimensions measured teachers' behaviour. Teachers described the extent to which specific behaviour patterns occurred in

their schools by responding to the statements on the questionnaire. The responses vary along a four-point scale defined by the categories: ‘rarely occurs (RO) sometimes occurs (SO), often occurs (O) and very frequently occurs (VFO)’. The teachers responded by putting a tick in the appropriate category (see section A of Appendix A).

After the OCDQ-RS was administered to 511 teachers in thirty-five (35) schools, the OCDQ-RS software was used to generate standardized scores for each dimension and the overall openness for each school.

Below are the items that constitute the five dimensions of the OCDQ-RS.

Principal’s Behaviour

Supportive behaviour items

Questionnaire #

- | | |
|---|------|
| 1. The principal sets an example by working hard himself/herself. | (5) |
| 2. The principal compliments teachers. | (6) |
| 3. The principal goes out of his/her way to help teachers. | (23) |
| 4. The principal explains his/her reasons for criticism to teachers. | (24) |
| 5. The principal is available after school when assistance is needed. | (25) |
| 6. The principal uses constructive criticism. | (29) |
| 7. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of staff. | (30) |

Directive behaviour items

- | | |
|--|------|
| 1. Teacher-principal conferences are dominated by the principal. | (7) |
| 2. The principal rules with iron fist. | (12) |
| 3. The principal monitors everything teachers do. | (13) |
| 4. The principal closely checks teacher activities. | (18) |
| 5. The principal is autocratic. | (19) |
| 6. The principal supervises teachers closely. | (31) |
| 7. The principal talks more than listens. | (32) |

Teachers' Behaviour

Engaged behaviour items

1. The teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems (3)
2. Teachers are proud of their school. (4)
3. Student government has an influence on school policy. (10)
4. Teachers are friendly with students. (11)
5. Teachers help and support each other. (16)
6. The pupils solve their problems through logical reasoning. (17)
7. The morale of teachers is high. (20)
8. Teachers really enjoy working here. (28)
9. Pupils are trusted to work together without supervision. (33)
10. Teachers respect the personal competence of their colleagues. (34)

Frustrated behaviour items

1. The mannerisms of teachers in this school are annoying. (1)
2. Teachers have too many committee requirements. (2)
3. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching. (8)
4. Teachers interrupt other staff members who are talking in staff meetings. (9)
5. Administrative paper work is burdensome in this school. (15)
6. Assigned non-teaching duties are excessive. (22)

Intimate behaviour items

1. Teachers' closest friends are other staff members at this school. (14)
2. Teachers know the family background of other staff members. (21)
3. Teachers invite other staff members to visit them at home. (26)
4. Teachers socialise with each other on a regular basis. (27)

The table below shows the standardized mean and standard deviation.

TABLE 5.1

Dimension	Mean	Standard Deviation
Supportive behaviour	18.19	2.66
Directive behaviour	13.96	2.49
Engaged behaviour	26.45	1.32
Frustrated behaviour	12.33	1.98
Intimate behaviour	8.80	0.92

Firstly, the school dimension scores were converted to standardized scores for each dimension per school. The following formulae were used:

$$\text{SdS for S} = 100 \times \frac{(S - \text{mean})}{Sd} + 500$$

$$\text{SdS for D} = 100 \times \frac{(D - \text{mean})}{Sd} + 500$$

$$\text{SdS for E} = 100 \times \frac{(E - \text{mean})}{Sd} + 500$$

$$\text{SdS for F} = 100 \times \frac{(F - \text{mean})}{Sd} + 500$$

$$\text{SdS for I} = 100 \times \frac{(I - \text{mean})}{Sd} + 500$$

After that the openness of climate was computed for every school. The following formula was used:

$$\text{Openness} = \frac{(\text{SdS for S}) + (1000 - \text{SdS for D}) + (\text{SdS for E}) + (1000 - \text{SdS for F})}{4}$$

A score of 500 represents an average dimension score in the first conversion of dimension scores into standardized scores. This implies that, if the score is below 500, then the dimension is low and lower than a certain percent of schools. For instance, if a school's score is 400 on supportive behaviour, it is one standard deviation below the mean on supportive behaviour of all the schools that participated in the study; that is, the

headteacher is less supportive than 84% of the other headteachers. Similarly, a score of 600 is high, it is one standard deviation above the average score, which means the headteacher is more supportive than 84% of the other headteachers in the sample. The same applies to openness of school climate. A score of 500 represents average openness of climate while a score of 650 on school openness indicates a highly open school. The following numbers represent the range of the dimensions as well as openness from high to low.

Above 600	Very high
551-600	High
525-550	Above average
511-524	Slightly above average
490-510	Average
476-489	Slightly below average
450-475	Below average
400-449	Low
Below 400	Very low

The following is the summary of the calculations done for each group of schools as well as their categorization into very low and very high scores. The vertical column numbers represent the seven schools in each group

Table 5.2: Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group A)

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
1	445	590	521	497	798	470
2	513	527	273	474	324	446
3	414	672	293	614	470	355
4	542	582	352	433	424	470
5	471	694	179	648	487	327
6	400	491	102	598	413	353
7	346	617	-19	544	435	292
Average	447	596	243	544	479	388

Table 5.2 reflects that all (100%) of the schools in group A (school 1-7) had a closed organisational climate. The climate of a school is a blend of different behaviours. The above table indicates that five (71.4%) of these schools' headteachers were not supportive of their staff members. School two representing 14.28% of the schools with a closed organisational climate in this group was slightly above average on supportive headteacher behaviour and school four was above average on supportive headteacher behaviour. Five (71.4%) of these schools, had headteachers who were highly directive (schools 1, 3, 4, 5, &7). One school (school 2) representing 14.28% of the schools was above average on directive headteacher behaviour and average on supportive behaviour. School six representing 14.28% of the schools in this group was average on directive headteacher behaviour. All schools but one (school 1) had very low engaged teacher behaviour, that is, school 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, & 7. Engaged teacher behaviour in school one (14.28%) was slightly above average.

Frustrated behaviour was very high in school 3 and 5 (28.5%), high in school 6 (14.28%), above average in school 7 (14.28%), average in school 1 (14.28%) and low in school 4 (14.28%) in group A. Intimate teacher behaviour was very high in school 1 (14.28%), school 5 (14.28%) was slightly below average and below average in school 3 representing 14.28% of the schools in this group. In school 4, 6 & 7 (43%), intimate

teacher behaviour was low and very low in school 2 which represents 14.28% of these schools. In this group, only two headteachers, that is, headteachers in school 2 and 4 (28.5%) were both directive and supportive.

From Table 5.2 it can be seen that all the schools in group A had a more closed organisational climate. Fifty percent (50%) of these schools were low on supportive and high or very high on directive behaviour, while seventy-five percent (75%) of the schools was very low on engaged teacher behaviour, very high and slightly above average on frustrated teacher behaviour and low on intimate behaviour. This is in line with Halpin's (1966:180) assertion that a closed organisational climate is characterized by low supportive behaviour, high directive behaviour, low engaged behaviour, high frustrated behaviour and low or high intimate behaviour.

Table 5.2.1 Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group B)

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
8	604	651	87	478	528	390
9	272	459	11	546	386	319
10	604	586	144	498	526	416
11	698	482	206	382	506	510
12	348	559	149	523	413	354
13	326	696	271	620	423	320
14	491	630	210	553	433	380
Average	478	580	154	514	459	384

Table 5.2.1 indicates that the majority (86%) of the schools (school 8, 9, 12, 13 & 14) in this group had a closed organisational climate. Five (71.4%) of the schools had a more closed organisational climate (school 8, 9, 12, 13 & 14). Compared to group A where all the schools had a closed organisational climate, school 11 (14.28%) had an averagely open organisational climate. Unlike group A, three (42.8 %) of the schools (school 8, 10

& 11) in this group had headteachers who were very supportive. That is, they were more supportive than 97% of the headteachers in this group. Similarly, headteachers in three (42.8%) schools (school 9, 12 & 13) were less supportive than 97% of other headteachers in this group. One (14.28%) school was average on supportive headteacher behaviour (school 14). Three (42.8%) of the schools (school 8, 13 & 14) had headteachers who exhibited a very directive behaviour. Two (28.5%) of the schools (school 10 & 12) had headteachers who demonstrated a high directive behaviour. One (14.28%) of the remaining two schools (school 11) was slightly below average on directive headteacher behaviour and the last one (14.28%) was below average on directive headteacher behaviour (school 9). Unlike group A all the schools (100%) in this group had very low engaged teacher behaviour. Frustrated teacher behaviour was very high in school 13 (14.28%), high in school 14 (14.28%), above average in school 9 (14.28%), slightly above average in school 12 (14.28%), average in school 10 (14.28%), slightly below average in school 8 (14.28%) and low in school 11 (14.28%). Intimate teacher behaviour was above average in school 8 and 9 (28.5%), average in school 11 (14.28%) and low in school 9, 12, 13 and 14 which represent fifty-seven (57%) of these schools

The above information shows that most of the schools that had a closed organisational climate because they exhibited the characteristics of a closed organisational climate as indicated in table 5.2.1. However, school 8 and 10 whose headteachers, though directive, were very supportive were unable to improve the teachers' morale. The headteachers' example of commitment and hard work seemed to have no effect on the teachers. Although the headteacher demonstrated a high concern for the teachers' welfare they did not allow them to do their duties the way they deem fit. Therefore, they closely monitored the teachers' activities (see table 5.2.1) directive. This could be one of the reasons for their frustration. All the same the teachers appeared to be close to one another. These schools had an unusual blend of behaviour for a closed school climate. The only school (school 11) whose organisational climate was averagely open also had an unusual blend of behaviour. Here, the headteacher gave allowance for teachers' initiatives (less directives); he/she was very considerate, attended to teachers' social as well as their professional needs (highly supportive). They did seem to have lost focus

with regard to their professional activities (disengaged). They had no concern for their colleagues and the success of their pupils. It is not easy to find answers as to what could be responsible for this kind of teachers' behaviour in this school. There are definitely some other factors responsible for these teachers' behaviour.

Table 5.2.2 Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group C)

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
15	430	531	183	504	435	395
16	627	548	266	434	436	436
17	477	498	226	378	458	457
18	550	518	601	354	517	570
19	365	694	83	587	571	292
20	471	439	-304	401	337	332
21	638	421	87	433	442	468
Average	508	522	163	442	457	421

Table 5.2.2 indicates that the organisational climate of schools in this group is similar to the organisational climate in group A and B. School 18 which represents (14.28%) of the schools had a highly open climate, and the rest of the schools (schools 15, 16, 17, 19, 20 & 21) representing 86% of the schools had closed organisational climates. Two (28.5%) of the schools in this group had headteachers who were very supportive (school 16 & 21). One of the headteachers' supportive behaviour (school 18) was above average, another one (school 17) was slightly below average, the supportive headteacher behaviour of school 20 was below average and the last two schools (school 15 & 19) demonstrated low and very low supportive behaviour respectively.

The headteachers in this group were less directive compared to headteachers in group A and B (see table 5.2 & 5.2.1). One (14.28%) of the headteachers was very directive (school 19). In three (42.8%) of the schools, (15, 16 & 18) the directive headteacher behaviour was above average and average in one (14.28%) of the schools (17). The last

two schools (20 & 21) representing 28.5% of the schools had non-directive headteachers. Engaged teacher behaviour pattern in this group is not that different from what was observed in groups A and B. Only one (14.28%) of the schools in this group had teachers with highly engaged behaviour (school 18), otherwise teachers in six (86%) of the schools had teachers who displayed very low engaged behaviour.

In comparison to teachers in groups A and B, teachers in this group experienced less frustration in their schools. One (14.28%) of the schools had teachers who were highly frustrated (school 19). Teachers in one (14.28%) of the schools were averagely frustrated (school 15). Teachers in three (42.5%) of the schools (16, 20 & 21) experienced low level of frustration and two (28.5%) of the schools (17 & 18) in this group had teachers who experienced very low level of frustration. The only school (school 19) whose headteacher was very directive had teachers who were highly frustrated. Intimate teacher behaviour in this group is similar to that of groups A and B. Intimate teacher behaviour in one (14.28%) of the schools (19) was high, it was slightly above average in one school (18) and below average in school 17. The other four (57%) schools (15, 16, 20 and 21) had teachers with low intimate behaviour.

The only school (18) whose organisational climate was open seems to have a normal blend of behaviours that describe an open organisational climate as stated by Hoy and Sabo (1998:125-128), high supportive behaviour, low directive behaviour, high engaged behaviour, low frustrated behaviour and low or high intimate behaviour (see chapter 3). Even though the headteacher was highly supportive of his/her teachers, he/she believed in monitoring the activities of the teachers. This to a large extent, coupled with the fact that the headteacher was genuine in his/her relationship with teachers, could be used to explain the teachers' positive attitude toward their colleagues, pupils and school. The situation in schools 16 and 21 is similar to of school 10 (see table 5.2.1). The headteachers' effort to be humane in their relationship with teachers and to set an example through hard work did not yield good fruits in the sense that teachers were not working together as a team and were not committed to their work. As mentioned earlier, some other variables may be contributing to this kind of scenario.

Table 5.2.3 Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group D)

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
22	468	513	194	478	460	418
23	538	536	333	476	520	465
24	484	534	205	509	411	411
25	514	731	262	471	216	393
26	336	834	-1	683	578	205
27	490	438	447	424	567	519
28	327	449	328	483	478	431
Average	451	576	252	504	461	406

Table 5.2.3 reflects that the organisational climate in this group was more or less a closed one. Apart from one school (7) whose open climate score was slightly above average, the other six schools (22, 23, 24, 25, 26, & 28), which represent 86% of the schools had a closed organisational climate. In fact, the organisational climate in two of these schools (school 25 & 26) was very closed. The supportive headteacher behaviour in this group is almost similar to the supportive behaviour of the headteachers in group A (see table 5.2). In two schools (28.5%) the supportive headteachers behaviour was above average (school 23 & 25) and the headteacher in school 24 (14.28%) demonstrated a slightly below average supportive behaviour. The supportive headteacher behaviour was below average in school 22 (14.28%) average in school 27 (14.28%) and very low in the last three schools (26, 27 & 28), which represent 42.8% of the schools in this group.

Two (28.5%) of the headteachers in this group were very directive (school 25 & 26). Another two (28.5 %) of the headteachers (school 23 & 24) demonstrated above average directive behaviour, one (14.28%) headteacher (school 22) was slightly above average on directive behaviour and the remaining two headteachers (school 27 & 28) representing (28.5%) of the schools in this group were not directive.

Engaged teacher behaviour in this group is similar to the behaviour of teachers in group B. All the schools (100%) in this group had teachers with very low engaged behaviour. One (14.28%) of the schools (26) had teachers who were reported to be highly frustrated. Frustrated teacher behaviour was average in one (14.28%) of the schools (24). Low level of frustrated behaviour was displayed by the teachers in the remaining schools (22, 23, 25, 27 & 28).

Intimate teacher behaviour was very high in two (28.5%) of the schools (26 & 27) and slightly above average in one school (23). Teachers in one (14.28%) of the schools (28) exhibited a slightly below average intimate behaviour and below average intimate behaviour was indicated in one (14.28%) school (22). The other two schools, which represent 28.5% of the schools in this group, had teachers who displayed low intimate behaviour and in fact the intimate teacher behaviour was very low in one of these two schools (school 25).

In view of the above, one can say that schools 24 and 26 had a normal blend of behaviour characterizing a school with a closed organisational climate. However, it is surprising that teachers in school 28 were not very frustrated despite the fact that their headteachers was neither humane nor efficient. Schools 23 and 25 whose headteachers attempted to be considerate in dealing with teachers and also made effort to demonstrate industriousness for teachers to emulate could still not get teachers to be faithful to their work and support their colleagues. It can be deduced that teachers did not respond to their headteachers' effort because they were not clear about the genuineness of their headteachers' behaviours. School 27 has an unusual blend of an open organisational climate. Although the headteacher tried to attend to the teachers' job and social needs and was transparent in his/her relationship with them, teachers' commitment to their work and pupils was low. One would have expected teachers working in this kind of atmosphere (non-directive and averagely supportive headteacher) to put in their best for the success of their pupils.

Table 5.2.4 Behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate (Group E)

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
29	462	536	109	446	413	398
30	573	456	210	684	495	411
31	275	646	4	660	561	243
32	523	583	113	657	425	349
33	288	645	-96	420	385	282
34	558	537	218	497	462	436
35	443	614	356	503	505	420
Average	446	574	131	553	464	363

Table 5.2.4 indicates that the organisational climate in this group was a much closed one. It is very similar to the organisational climate that prevailed in group A schools. Three (42.5%) of the schools (30, 34 & 35) had a closed climate and very closed climate in the other 4 (57.1%) schools (29, 31 32 & 33). Two (28.5%) of the headteachers (school 30 & 34) were highly supportive of their teachers and slightly above average supportive behaviour was shown by one headteacher (school 32). One (14.28%) of the headteacher's (school 29) support to his/her teachers was below average and low in another school (35). The 2 (28.5%) other headteachers (schools 31 & 33) gave very low support to their teachers. Three (42.8%) of the headteachers were very directive (schools 31, 33 & 35). The directive headteacher behaviour was high in one (14.28%) school (32) and above average in 2 (28.5%) schools (29 & 34). The directive behaviour of the remaining headteacher in this group was below average (school 30).

Teachers in 3 (42.8%) of the schools (30, 31 & 32) demonstrated a highly frustrated behaviour and 2 (28.5%) schools (34 & 35) had teachers who were averagely frustrated. Teachers in the remaining 2 (28.5%) schools (school 29 & 33) experienced a low level of frustration.

The engaged teacher behaviour in this group was generally very low, following the same pattern of teachers' behaviour in groups B and D. The intimate teacher behaviour pattern in this group is not different from the intimate teacher behaviour in group C and D. Teachers in 1 (14.28%) of the schools (school 31) demonstrated a highly intimate behaviour and average intimate teacher behaviour was displayed by teachers in 2 (28.5%) of the schools (30 & 35). The remaining 2 schools had teachers whose intimate behaviour was low (schools 29, 32, 33, & 34).

From the above findings, the majority of schools in this group have a usual blend of a closed organisational climate. Nevertheless, teachers' negative attitude toward their colleagues, pupils and the school was more pronounced in school 34 where the headteacher made himself/herself available to meet teachers' various needs compared to school 29 where the headteacher's behaviour did not reflect his/her concern for the teachers' welfare. The teachers in schools 30 and 32 and in the particular the former, did not respond to their headteachers' frantic effort to make life interesting for them while at work. The teachers in both schools either felt being bothered by excessive work or unnecessary monitoring by the headteachers or may be were not happy about the insincerity of their headteachers' behaviour toward them (see chapter 3). Thus, schools 30, 32 and 34 have an unusual blend of behaviour characterizing a closed organisational climate.

The following is a summary of behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate of all the 35 schools.

TABLE 5.3 Summary of behaviour dimensions and openness of school climate of all the 35 schools.

School	Behaviour Dimension					Openness
	Supportive	Directive	Engaged	Frustrated	Intimate	
1	445	590	521	497	798	470
2	513	527	273	474	324	446
3	414	672	293	614	470	355
4	542	582	352	433	424	470
5	471	694	179	648	487	327
6	400	491	102	598	413	353
7	346	617	-19	544	435	292
8	604	651	87	478	528	390
9	272	459	11	546	386	319
10	604	586	144	498	526	416
11	698	482	206	382	506	510
12	348	559	149	523	413	354
13	326	696	271	620	423	320
14	491	630	210	553	433	380
15	430	531	183	504	435	395
16	627	548	266	434	436	436
17	477	498	226	378	458	457
18	550	518	601	354	517	570
19	365	694	83	587	571	292
20	471	439	-304	401	337	332
21	638	421	87	433	442	468
22	468	513	194	478	460	418
23	538	536	333	476	520	465
24	484	534	205	509	411	411
25	514	731	262	471	216	393
26	336	834	-1	683	578	205
27	490	438	447	424	567	519
28	327	449	328	483	478	431
29	462	536	109	446	413	398
30	573	456	210	684	495	411
31	275	646	4	660	561	243
32	523	583	113	657	425	349
33	288	645	-96	420	385	282
34	558	537	218	497	462	436
35	443	614	356	503	505	420
Average	466	570	189	511	464	392

Table 5.3 reflects that on the whole, the majority of schools studied specifically 32 (91.4%) out of 35 schools either have a closed or very closed organisational climate. In essence, only 3 (8.57%) schools (school 11, 18 & 27) can be said to have an open organisational climate in all the 35 schools. Eleven (33.3%) of these schools with a closed or very closed climate were above average, high or very high on supportive behaviour (schools 2, 4, 8, 10, 16, 21, 23, 25, 30, 32 & 34), 31 (93.9%) of these schools (2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 & 35) were low or extremely low on engaged behaviour, 25 (75.7%) of the schools were above average, high or very high on directive behaviour (school 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34 & 35) and 17 (51.5%) schools were either average, high or very high on frustrated behaviour (schools 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 19, 26, 30, 31, 32, 34 & 35).

In view of the above, it appears that there is a link between the supportive headteacher behaviour and the idea of openness in the climate of the school. Halpin (1966:206) believes that interactions are not genuine in a closed climate. In other words, individuals in a closed climate do not project the real self, they do not allow their personalities to bear in the relationship and this ultimately makes the individuals to be suspicious of one another. As a result the relationship suffers tension. The headteacher openness is related to the supportive headteacher behaviour (see chapter 3).

Table 5.3 portrays the majority of the headteachers in the schools with a closed organisational climate as individuals who were not 'open' in their interactions with teachers. It can be assumed that since many of the headteachers were not 'real' in their relationship the teachers responded accordingly and play 'games' with their colleagues also. Their morale declined and they became uncooperative and irritable even to their colleagues. They perceived any assigned non-teaching duties as a burden, they were so unsatisfied with the situation that the directive headteacher behaviour could not make them to be committed to the success of the pupils. Both the headteachers and the teachers' behaviours are in line with how Hoy and Sabo describe both headteachers and teachers in this situation as individuals who are 'going through the motions' (see chapter

3). This kind of situation has a bearing on climate that exists in those schools. A few of the schools that had a closed climate were low on both supportive and directive headteacher behaviour. The teachers in 2 schools (school 6 & 9) seemed to be frustrated by headteachers who would neither be supportive nor be firm in controlling the affairs of their schools (see table 5.3). Therefore, the teachers would not get seriously involved in the activities of their schools.

The only 3 (8.57%) schools (11, 18 & 27) with an open organisational climate were either high on directive headteacher behaviour, low on engaged teacher behaviour or low on supportive headteacher behaviour. One (33.3%) of these schools (school 18) had the most open headteacher behaviour, slightly below average on directive headteacher behaviour (low production emphasis), very high on engaged teacher behaviour (low disengagement) and very low on frustrated teacher behaviour. It seems that this school shares almost all the attributes of an ideal organisation with an open climate. It is not unexpected as enumerated by Halpin (see chapter 3) that the teachers' morale in this school was high. They enjoyed working with their colleagues and were willing and ready to assist not only their colleagues but also their pupils (engaged). They happily did assigned non-teaching duties; they were generally approachable and were proud of their school (high esprit). The genuineness of the headteacher's supportive behaviour seems to influence teachers' behaviour among themselves and to their pupils. Even though the headteacher supervised the teachers' activities, he/she provided the needed support to make them happy.

The other school (school 27) with a more open climate was average on supportive headteacher behaviour and low on engaged teacher behaviour. In effect, the teachers' morale was low; they were neither supportive of their colleagues nor committed to their pupils. A possible explanation is that the headteacher did not give sufficient support to his/her teachers. If the headteacher had given enough support, had shown sufficient examples of hard work (high thrust), provided adequate help with regard to their professional duties and shown a remarkable concern for their welfare (highly supportive) teachers would have probably committed themselves to the academic achievement of

their pupils and given necessary support to their colleagues as enunciated by Halpin and Hoy and Sabo (see chapter 3).

The last school (11) with an averagely open organisational climate was very high on supportive headteacher behaviour and extremely low on engaged teacher behaviour. In other words, teachers' morale was very low despite the fact that the headteacher provided the teachers with very high support. In fact, of all the 35 schools, this school's (11) headteacher gave the most support to his/her teachers. There are two possible explanations for this unusual situation. On the one hand, there is the possibility that the teachers took advantage of the headteacher's expression of extreme concern for their welfare which led to the manifestation of their unprofessional attitude. They believed that even when they came up with flimsy excuses for not performing their professional duties the headteacher may not take any decisive action because of the attention he/she shows in satisfying their social needs. There is the likelihood that some teachers may detest their colleagues' behaviour and become critical of their colleagues, which may lead to division among teachers. This eventually affects the climate of the school as the teachers are just 'putting in their time' (see section 3.2.3.2).

On the other hand, the climate in this school may be a camouflage of a familiar climate and or what Hersey and Blanchard (see section 2.4.3.6) refer to as a misuse of participating style of leadership. A situation characterized by an obviously friendly behaviour of both the headteacher and teachers, where priority is given to maximum satisfaction of social needs and minimum attention is paid to the supervision of the group's activities toward goal accomplishment. Everybody is happy because their social needs are met and the headteacher is seen as a 'good guy' (see section 3.2.2.1). In essence, the productivity is very low because there is low production emphasis. The headteacher's priority is to establish and maintain a friendly atmosphere, but at the expense of task accomplishment. And perhaps it would have been a different story if the headteacher had carefully maintained a balance between supportive and directive behaviour just like the headteacher in school 18 did.

5.3.2 The LEAD-Other Data

The LEAD-Other has twelve (12) situational statements. There are four (4) responses to each situational statement. Each teacher had to read each statement carefully and indicate how he/she thought his/her headteacher would behave in that particular circumstance by pulling a circle around the alternative response that would best describe the headteacher's behaviour. The responses were meant to indicate the manager's reactions in those circumstances which represent his/her management style (see Appendix A section B of the questionnaire for the LEAD-Other situational statements)

The responses from the LEAD-Other situational statements were scored by using the standardized score card to determine the leadership style. The standardized score card indicates 12 situations represented by numbers one to twelve. The numbers one to four in quadrant represent the alternative actions. The scores that had been plotted from the LEAD-Other situational statements were entered into the blank spaces under each quadrant. The alternatives A-D for each situational statement on the scorecard were arranged in the order of their appropriateness and not in an alphabetical order. For instance, alternative A may represent telling (1) style in situation one but may represent participating (3) style in situation six. Therefore, the responses were transposed after they were entered.

Table 5.4 (Scorecard)

Situation	Alternative Actions			
1	A	C	B	D
2	D	A	C	B
3	C	A	D	B
4	B	D	A	C
5	C	B	D	A
6	B	D	A	C
7	A	C	B	D
8	C	B	D	A
9	C	B	D	A
10	B	D	A	C
11	A	C	B	D
12	A	C	B	D
Quadrant	1	2	3	4
Quadrant score				

The interpretation of the quadrants 1-4

→High Relationship ←	Quadrant 3 High relationship Low task	Quadrant 2 High task High relationship
	Quadrant 4 Low relationship Low task	Quadrant 1 High task Low relationship
	Low ← Task Behaviour → High	

One standardized scorecard was used for each respondent. The alternatives each respondent had circled in the questionnaire were entered accordingly. For example, if a teacher had circled ‘A’ the ‘A’ next to 1 in the scorecard was recorded. All respondents’ choices for alternatives as indicated on the questionnaire were recorded accordingly. Then, the numbers of chosen alternatives in each vertical column representing quadrants were counted and the total was then written in the blank space for quadrant scores. The total of the alternatives chosen from all the columns for each respondent was twelve (12). Scores from the scorecard were transferred to the corresponding quadrant (see table 5.4).

The primary/dominant leadership style was represented by the quadrant with the highest score. The secondary or supportive management styles (see section 4.10.2) were represented by the next two or more scores in any of the other three quadrants. The literature reviewed (see section 2.4.3.6) indicated that there is no one best way to lead, manage or to influence people. The readiness level of the subordinates and the type of task to be done are the major determinant factors for the choice of style.

The vertical numbers stand for the seven schools in each group and the horizontal numbers next to each number in the vertical lines indicate how each school scored in the quadrants of one to four.

TABLE 5.4.1 (Group A response on LEAD-Other)

School	Quadrant 1	Quadrant 2	Quadrant 3	Quadrant 4
1	42	57	27	6
2	25	53	36	18
3	59	78	69	22
4	20	57	43	0
5	51	107	63	7
6	46	64	63	7
7	64	97	57	46

Table 5.4.2 indicates that all the highest scores, which indicate the dominant styles used by the headteachers, are situated in quadrant two. Quadrant two represents a high relationship and high task leadership style. In other words, all the headteachers in this group used primarily the selling style of leadership.

TABLE 5.4.2 (Group B response on LEAD-Other)

School	Quadrant 1	Quadrant 2	Quadrant 3	Quadrant 4
8	75	88	40	13
9	27	18	19	32
10	56	122	115	7
11	18	24	34	8
12	62	66	85	63
13	27	19	26	12
14	48	79	60	5

Table 5.4.3 reflects that the highest score (indicated in bold) of one school is situated in quadrant one (high task and low relationship), the highest scores of three schools are located in quadrant two (high task and high relationship), the highest scores of two schools are found in quadrant three (high relationship and low task) and the highest score of the last school is situated in quadrant four (low relationship and low task).

Compared to group A, only 3 (42.8%) of the headteachers in group B used the selling style, one (14.28%) of the headteachers used telling style while 2 (28.5%) of the headteachers used the participating style of leadership.

TABLE 5.4.3 (Group C response on LEAD-Other)

School	Quadrant 1	Quadrant 2	Quadrant 3	Quadrant 4
15	19	67	59	23
16	21	74	65	8
17	37	72	30	5
18	29	21	41	29
19	54	92	57	37
20	33	35	58	18
21	27	69	74	10

Table 5.4.4 shows that the highest scores of four schools are located in quadrant two while the highest scores of the other three schools are located in quadrant three. In effect, 4 (57.1%) of the headteachers in that group employed the selling style, while 3 (42.8%) used the participating style of leadership.

TABLE 5.4.4 (Group D response on LEAD-Other)

School	Quadrant 1	Quadrant 2	Quadrant 3	Quadrant 4
22	46	48	52	22
23	48	85	51	8
24	26	62	55	13
25	62	70	31	5
26	66	87	47	16
27	21	41	61	21
28	35	77	67	25

Table 5.4.5 shows that the highest scores of most schools in group D are located in quadrant two and the remaining highest scores are found in quadrant three indicating that

5 (71.4%) of the headteachers in this group used the selling style while 2 (28.5%) of them used the participating style. This is similar to the pattern of leadership in group C.

TABLE 5.4.5 (Group E response on LEAD-Other)

School	Quadrant 1	Quadrant 2	Quadrant 3	Quadrant 4
29	49	83	54	18
30	16	30	36	14
31	29	21	41	29
32	21	49	46	4
33	101	86	30	23
34	20	81	67	0
35	70	89	58	23

Table 5.4.6 reflects that the highest scores of four schools are found in quadrant two, the highest scores of two schools are located in quadrant three while the highest score for the remaining school is situated in quadrant one. In other words, 4 (57.1 %) of the headteacher in this group used the selling style, 2 (28.5%) used participating style while 1(14.2%) used the telling style of leadership.

Table 5.5 A summary of all the schools under study

School	Telling	Selling	Participating	Delegating
1	42	57	27	6
2	25	53	36	18
3	59	78	69	22
4	20	57	43	0
5	51	107	63	7
6	46	64	63	7
7	64	97	57	46
8	75	88	40	13
9	27	18	19	32
10	56	122	115	7
11	18	24	34	8
12	62	66	85	63
13	27	19	26	12
14	48	79	60	5
15	19	67	59	23
16	21	74	65	8
17	37	72	30	5
18	29	21	41	29
19	54	92	57	37
20	33	35	58	18
21	27	69	74	10
22	46	48	52	22
23	48	85	51	8
24	26	62	55	13
25	62	70	31	5
26	66	87	47	16
27	21	41	61	21
28	35	77	67	25
29	49	83	54	18
30	16	30	36	14
31	29	21	41	29
32	21	49	46	4
33	101	86	30	23
34	20	81	67	0
35	70	89	58	23
Total	1450	2268	1817	597
%Total	23.65	36.97	29.63	9.74

Table 5.5 suggests that the highest scores of most headteachers are located in quadrant 2; the highest scores of 23 (65.7%) out of 35 schools fall in this quadrant (schools 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 32, 34 & 35). As indicated earlier, quadrant 2 represents a high relationship and high task leadership behaviour. This implies that the majority of the headteachers (65.7%) that participated in the study used the selling style while influencing the behaviour of teachers. The highest scores of 9 schools are situated in quadrant 3 (schools 11, 12, 18, 20, 21, 22, 27, 30 & 31). This means that the behaviour of 9 headteachers out of 35 are characterized by high relationship and low task orientation. In essence, 25.7% of the headteachers used the participative leadership style. The highest scores of 2 schools are found in quadrant 1 (schools 13 & 33). Quadrant 1 represents a high task and low relationship orientation. This suggests that the dominant style of 5.7% of the headteachers under study was telling. It is also indicated in the table that the highest score of one school falls in quadrant 4 (school 19). Quadrant 4 represents a low relationship and low task orientation. That is, 2.8% of the headteachers used the delegating style in running their schools.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993:197) indicate that quadrant one is the telling style while quadrant 2, 3 and 4 styles are selling, participating and delegating respectively. Therefore, based on the above statistics, 65.7% of the headteachers used the selling leadership style, 25.7% of the headteachers used the participating style of leadership, 5.7% used the telling style and only 2.8% of the headteachers used the delegating style of leadership.

As indicated above, 65.7% of the headteachers used the selling leadership style. This stresses a high task and high relationship orientation. In situations where task emphasis is high, it means teachers are still learning more and more about their work. This means that they have not yet reached a readiness level at which less emphasis will be placed on task. In other words, most of the direction with regard to the task to be performed is still provided by the headteachers. The need for high emphasis on relationships suggests that the headteachers consider it necessary to build and develop staff members that are not gullible but a group, which is able to interact and communicate freely with others as they

strive to complete the given tasks. The implication of this is that the headteachers are not satisfied with having staff members that will perform tasks but they are interested in having achievement-motivated staff members, teachers who are mature, conscientious, approachable and devoted and who take pleasure in their job. As a result the headteachers look for opportunities to reinforce appropriate behaviour and encourage a two-way communication (see section 2. 4. 3. 6). This dominant style (the selling style) should have an impact on the atmosphere that prevails at these schools. Teachers who realize that their headteachers are not only concerned about the accomplishment of tasks but are equally concerned about their personal welfare would endeavour to satisfy their headteachers by willingly working hard to meet their headteachers' expectations. This is however done with the understanding that everybody stands to gain from this kind of relationship.

Nine (25.7%) of the headteachers used the participating style of leadership. This style is high relationship and low task oriented. In this situation, the teachers are at above average level of readiness, their past record shows that they have the ability and knowledge to do the task but their behaviour indicates that they cannot do the task given. The reality is that they lack motivation that can rekindle their confidence and bring them to the level of effectiveness. The slightest thing that could contribute to the teachers' lack of motivation is a situation where headteachers attempt to bribe teachers to like them at the expense of the work to be done. Various atmospheres may emerge according to the situations. For example, if the teachers work according to the level of their readiness, the anticipated atmosphere will be that of trust and willingness to do the work for which they have already been equipped. On the other hand, if the headteachers try to buy teachers to delight in them at the expense of work accomplishment, the atmosphere is likely to be that of friendship while the work suffers. However, one of the ways to handle this kind of situation requires the headteachers to encourage the teachers to work on the task while the headteachers support the teachers' effort. Another way of looking at it demands the headteachers to work with the teachers to facilitate task accomplishment. In either case, an achievement-oriented atmosphere will be promoted (see section 2.4.3.6).

One (2.8%) of the headteachers used the delegating style of leadership, which is characterized by low relationship and low task behaviour. Low emphasis on relationship and task suggests that there is a good interpersonal relation, teachers are at high readiness and that the teachers are performing well (see section 2.4.3.6). Therefore, the headteachers allow the teachers to design their own methods of solving problems while they (headteachers) supervise. Trust, self-esteem and personal worthiness should characterize the atmosphere in these schools. It is also possible that the headteachers delegate when the teachers are at low level of readiness, which Hersey and Blanchard (1977:170) describe as abdication; a situation where the headteachers abandon their responsibilities. The expected atmosphere will be that of lawlessness and unproductivity.

Two (5.7%) of the headteachers used the telling style of leadership, which depicts high task and low relationship behaviour. This suggest that the headteachers define the role of teachers and tell them what, how and where to do which task. The headteachers are basically in charge of the situation; monitoring every activity and ensuring that tasks are done according to the given specifications (see section 2.4.3.6). The headteachers control the relationship between them and the teachers such that sentiment is not allowed to interfere with task completion (see section 2.4.2.2). This indicates that the teachers are no more performing at their readiness level and therefore, their performance is declining. This is probably due to the fact that teachers perceive the headteachers as permissive because the headteachers display a high degree of relationship leading to what Black and McCanse describe as excessive familiarity (see section 2.4.2.3). If the above style of leadership is appropriately used in this situation, an unproductive atmosphere is likely to change for the better.

5.3.2.1 Headteachers' supporting leadership styles

Headteachers use various styles of leadership corresponding to the teachers' readiness level. The secondary/supporting leadership style(s) is/are the styles headteachers use in addition to the primary or main style (see section 4.10.2). For instance, the headteacher may use the telling style as the supporting style to the selling style. The telling style will

be appropriate to use for new teachers who recently join the school for them to be well integrated in the system. It may also be useful to put on track the existing teachers whose performance is deteriorating (see section 2.4.3.6).

Table 5.5 indicates that 17 (48.6%) of the headteachers (school 2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 20, 22, 27, 28, 30, 31 & 35) used three supporting styles to supplement their primary style. For the sake of uniformity, a number that is not up to a quarter of the highest number in each school was not regarded as a secondary style. Seven (7) of these headteachers whose primary style of leadership was selling, used telling, participating and delegating as supporting styles (schools 2, 3, 7, 15, 19, 28 & 35). Eight (8) of the headteachers who used the participating style as their main style of leadership employed telling, selling and delegating as their secondary styles (schools 11, 12, 18, 20, 22, 27, 30 & 31). One (1) of the headteachers whose primary style was the telling style used selling, participating and delegating styles as supplement (school 13) and one (1) headteacher who used the delegating style as a primary style used telling, selling and participating as supporting styles (school 9).

Eighteen (51.4%) of the headteachers used two secondary styles to supplement primary styles (schools 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 14, 16, 17, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29, 32, 33 & 34). Sixteen of these headteachers used the selling style as their primary style and telling and participating as their secondary styles (schools 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 14, 16, 17, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29, 32 & 34). One of the headteachers used participating as his/her primary style while telling and selling were used as supporting styles (school 21) and one headteacher whose primary style was the telling style used selling, participating and delegating styles as the supporting styles (school 33). In essence, all of the headteachers used two or more supporting styles. The above statistics suggests that telling is the most used supporting style, followed by participating and delegating, the least used as supporting style is the selling style (see table 5.5).

The secondary leadership style of headteachers also contributes to the kind of atmosphere that prevails in the school. Teachers are definitely different from one another therefore;

there will be differences in their level of performance and rate of development. As a result, the use of a supporting style becomes necessary and relevant especially where the headteachers use one dominant style for the majority of teachers. Some teachers may need supporting style(s) to encourage them to improve on their performance. This ultimately will affect the climate because those with whom the supporting style is used may be spurred to work harder (see section 2.4.3.6).

5.3.3 Interview data

The purpose of this interview (see section 4.10.2.) was to track any discrepancy between the headteachers' perceptions of their leadership behaviour and the teachers' perceptions. The headteachers' responses are summarised under each question as presented in the following section.

How do you go about setting goals in your school?

All the headteachers interviewed responded almost in the same way to this question. Their responses indicate that setting of goals was a combined exercise of the entire workforce in the school. Goals were set by individual teachers, departments and administrations and given to management team two (comprised of heads of department and senior teachers) for compilation and moderation. It is then passed to the management team one (comprised of the headteacher, the deputy and the three pastoral heads), after which, the entire staff meet to integrate and finalize the goals. According to some of the headteachers' responses, students' needs as well as the needs of the community served by the schools are usually considered in the setting of the school goals. In view of the above, it can be inferred that the view of all staff members are considered before school goals are set.

What do you do if teachers are hostile or evasive when you attempt to be friendly?

Eight (40%) of the respondents stated that they would use other members of the

management team, particularly those who are influential, to reach such teachers. One of these headteachers cited a recent example in her school, which happened as the school prepared for the prize giving ceremony. Some teachers rejected her idea of purchasing something of value for the students. Despite her effort to convince them they still believed they were right. Once she gained the support of the influential members of the management team, she went ahead to execute her plan, knowing that once those who did not buy her idea get to know about the management team support for her, they know they have lost the battle. Another headteacher believed that engaging such teachers in little assignments draws them close to the authority and in that process the differences could be settled. Twelve (60%) of the headteachers however reported that calling the teachers concerned and interacting with them with the intention of finding out what is amiss and resolving it was the most appropriate. Two (10%) of the headteachers believed that the best action was to ignore and use force when need be. Based on the above opinions, it can be deduced that the majority of the headteachers would handle this situation by either selling their ideas or consulting those affected making sure that all staff members were happy. If it is a problem of attention seeking, the headteachers believed in verbal motivation, as one respondent stated: ‘.....I look for opportunity to recognize their effort in the presence of other staff members’. In the light of this, it can be deduced that most headteachers believed in meeting the needs especially the emotional needs of teachers.

How do you deal with team members who are unable to handle a particular task they have been given?

A large number, 19 (95%) of the respondents stated that they would first of all find out the problems facing the team and organize the needed help to facilitate their effectiveness. Some of the examples given were: ask some competent staff members to assist the team, organize staff development programmes or the headteacher himself/herself provides the team with the needed assistance. In this respect, one headteacher gave the following reason to justify the idea of giving assistance: ‘Once their problems are brought to my attention, I look for ways of assisting them after all, leadership is about coaching, training and counselling.’ In the light of this, it can be

inferred that teachers are not left alone when they find it difficult to make progress on the assigned tasks and that the headteachers consult with them and other staff members to resolve the issue.

How do you introduce changes?

The majority of the headteachers reported that they completely depend on other members of staff for the successful implementation of any change. Therefore, they consult and encourage active participation of other members. It was reported that changes are introduced through a team composed of the senior teachers. The headteachers would share the ideas with this team, which is expected to sell the ideas to teachers. Then, a forum is created for discussion involving the whole staff. The headteachers believed also in enforcing change as long as it is for the benefit of the pupils. In other words, the headteachers sometimes impose changes on others. One headteacher gave an example of a time when he observed that there was a steady decline in pupils' performance. He introduced the idea of giving remedial lessons to pupils. After he had consulted and communicated with the staff, pupils and parents, some teachers did not feel obliged to participate in the exercise. A committee was set up to look into the matter for possible resolution, but the matter could not be resolved. As a result, the feelings of those 'deviants', to use his word, were ignored. In this regard, one respondent stated thus: 'changes should be implemented if it is for the best of the school, I do it anyway.' Given the fact that the majority of the headteachers believed in involving others before changes are introduced, it can be inferred that headteachers carry everybody along in introducing and implementing changes at the school level. However, changes can be enforced if the situation demands it, as one of them stated: 'Change is sometimes inevitable, so it should be imposed if necessary'.

What do you do if team members seem to have lost focus and are complacent?

The majority of the headteachers reported that there is a plan already in place to track members of staff who have lost direction and are complacent. This is often done by

requiring every staff member to give a report of his/her failures and accomplishment at the beginning of each term. Their responses indicate that they usually consult, establish the reason for failure and redirect such members of staff. Failures are handled in a committee and a way forward is provided. One of the headteachers responded that even though staff members complain about too many staff meetings, she still believed that in such forum some staff members may be motivated. For example, if and when the effort of staff members who are willing to improve are recognized, other members may wake up from their slumber.

In view of the above, the deduction can be made that, in the main, consultative and participative styles of leadership are exercised by most headteachers while dealing with issues that concern the school.

The comparison of headteachers behaviour, as indicated by their teachers in Table 5.5 and how the headteachers thought they behaved while influencing the activities of others as gathered from their responses to the interview guide questions indicate that there is a difference between the teachers' views and the headteachers' opinions. In other words, what the teachers said did not correspond with the headteachers perceptions about their style of leadership. Based on the perceptions of teachers, the majority, that is twenty-three (66% in LEAD-Other) of the headteachers used the selling style (see table 5.5) whereas the headteachers claimed to use the consultative or participative style of leadership. According to the situational model, the selling style of leadership is characterized by high a task and high relationship orientation. The style requires the headteachers to give specific directions to teachers, oversee their activities and provide them with the necessary support. The participative /consultative behaviour on the other hand is characterized by low task and high relationship orientation. Here, the headteachers are expected to give the teachers the liberty to carry out their duties as they deem fit while the headteachers provide support to facilitate teachers' effectiveness. Nevertheless, how the headteachers perceive their behaviour is unimportant when the focus is to identify their leadership styles because the style is not how leaders think they behave, but how their followers perceive their behaviour (see section 4.10.2). In effect,

how the teachers perceive their headteachers matters a lot for they will respond to their headteachers' leadership according to how they perceive their leadership behaviours. Consequently, the finding on leadership style as reflected in Table 5.5 is upheld in this study.

Table 5.6 Leadership styles and school climates of participating schools

School	Headteachers' style (LEAD-Other)	School Climate (OCDQ-RS)
1	Selling , Telling, Participating	Closed climate
2	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
3	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
4	Selling , participating, Telling	Closed climate
5	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
6	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
7	Selling , Telling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate
8	Selling , Telling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate
9	Delegating , Telling, Participating, Selling	Closed climate
10	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
11	Participating , Selling, Telling	Open climate
12	Participating , Selling, Delegating, Telling	Closed climate
13	Telling , Selling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate
14	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
15	Selling , Participating, Delegating, Telling	Closed climate
16	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
17	Selling , Telling, Participating	Closed climate
18	Participating , Selling, Telling, Delegating	Open climate
19	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
20	Participating , Selling, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
21	Participating , Selling, Telling	Closed climate
22	Participating , Selling, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
23	Selling , participating, Telling	Closed climate
24	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
25	Selling , Telling, participating	Closed climate
26	Selling , Telling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate
27	Participating , Selling, Telling, Delegating	Open climate
28	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
29	Selling , Participating, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
30	Participating , Selling, Telling, Delegating	Closed climate
31	Participating , telling, Delegating, Selling	Closed climate
32	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
33	Telling , Selling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate
34	Selling , Participating, Telling	Closed climate
35	Selling , Telling, Participating, Delegating	Closed climate

Table 5.6 reflects the various leadership styles that are used by headteachers of thirty-five community junior secondary schools as well as the climate that prevailed in their schools according to the responses from the questionnaires. The styles used in each school are

arranged on the left with the corresponding climate in each school. The styles in bold print are the dominant styles while the others are secondary styles. The numbers 1-35 represent the schools that participated in the study.

A close look at the above table as well as the statistics in tables shows that there is a relationship between headteacher leadership style and school climate. The LEAD-Other items were used to ascertain the leadership style of the headteachers since leadership style is based on the perceptions of the followers. Therefore, the teachers responded to the LEAD-Other items. The OCDQ-RS was also responded to by the teachers to arbitrate their perceptions of their headteachers, school and even themselves.

The majority of the headteachers used the selling style of leadership, which is characterized by a high task and high relationship orientation according to the situational leadership model. Moreover, this style, if used in an appropriate situation, in other words, if it is effective, it should be seen by followers as satisfying the needs of the group by maintaining a balance between goal setting and work coordination and the provision of high 'socio-emotional' support (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:132). Otherwise, if the followers perceive the leader's behaviour as insincere and as introducing more structures than necessary, this kind of situation renders the style ineffective (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:132). For selling to be effective, it has to correspond to the readiness level of the followers, that is, unable, but willing or confident (low to moderate readiness) followers (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:196).

The Teaching Service Management statistics show that more than 95% of teachers in community junior secondary schools are well qualified. Besides, the researcher ensured that only the full fledged teachers with at least three years of teaching experience responded to the questionnaires. It then follows that the selling style of leadership used by most headteachers was not suitable since the teachers studied possessed the necessary skills to function effectively at that level.

Apart from that, if the selling style of leadership was going to be suitable for this group of teachers, the support required, as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1993:195) was not given by the majority of the headteachers as indicated in the OCDQ-RS findings. In effect, it can be deduced that the selling style of leadership was inappropriately used. This is probably why a substantial number of teachers perceived their headteachers as task masters, (as reflected in the OCDQ-RS results) who were not sincere in their relationship with them. This definitely affected the teachers' attitude; they became frustrated and disengaged. Consequently, the organisational climate in those schools was affected.

The three headteachers whose schools had an open organisational climate used the participating style of leadership as their dominant style. The participating style of leadership as mentioned earlier constitutes a high relationship and low task behaviour; it demands the manager to be 'encouraging, communicating, collaborating, facilitating or committing' (Hersey & Blanchard 1993: 194-195). If the participating style of leadership is effective, it follows that the followers believe that the leader does not only have absolute trust in them, but he/she is also very much interested in helping them to accomplish their goal (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:132). However, the participating style of leadership is ineffective if and when the followers perceive their leader's behaviour as mainly seeking after friendship and sometimes reluctant to accomplish a task if it will interfere with his/her friendly relationship with the followers. The issue of trust is of paramount importance in creating and sustaining an open organisational climate. A headteacher who deals with his/her teachers with an open mind, demonstrates his/her confidence in them, shows interest in their activities and facilitates their goal accomplishment by providing necessary support is an example of a participative leader. All things being equal, it is most likely that a large number of his/her teachers would love to work with such a headteacher and put in their best to improve the image of the school. In this regard, it appears that the openness of the organisational climate in those three schools is related to the appropriate use of the participating style of leadership.

As pointed out earlier, one of the schools' engaged teacher behaviour was very low, may be it is high time the headteacher addressed the situation in that school. A headteacher in

an open organisational climate, as portrayed by (Halpin 1966:175) is supposed to be flexible depending on the demands of the situation. Therefore, it is not out of place to direct the activities of the teachers if need be; the situation should always dictate the behaviour of the headteacher. The teachers in those three schools with an open organisational climate were frustrated probably due to another variable. For instance, the cause(s) of their frustration may not be unconnected to Mhozya's (1998:21) findings, which reveal that Botswana teachers' low self-esteem is as a result of lack of incentives from the government and unsatisfactory conditions of service namely: low remuneration, unaddressed teachers' welfare issues, slim chances of progress and the like. Otherwise, one would have expected the teachers who worked in schools with an open organisational climate to delight in their work.

5.3.4 Observations made in participating schools

The researcher made an average of three visits to each of the schools that participated in this study. Some observations were made during the visits and are discussed below.

The physical appearance of school compound

Most of the community junior secondary schools visited had similar structures and necessary facilities. The first point of contact, which is the administration office, was neat and moderately decorated with flower pots. Most of the receptionists were receptive and helpful. It was observed that most of the schools, posted their vision and mission statements at conspicuous areas in the administration office. On the surface, the messages of the vision and mission statements were pleasant. For instance, a school's vision and mission statements are as follows respectively: 'Strives to prepare a well balanced citizen, able to compete in a dynamic world, 'Through partnership with parents, we aim at providing a firm foundation for a conducive teaching and learning environment, for the preparation of a wholesome individual'. Some of the core values of the vision and mission are: 'productivity, transparency, consultation, commitment and professionalism'. However, there were some community junior secondary schools whose administration

offices looked plain and sometimes without the receptionist to attend to visitors. The general environment of most of these schools was clean and attractive, but a few of them were surrounded by litter. Many of the classrooms were spacious, well lit and ventilated.

Pupils and teachers' attendance records

The researcher was allowed to see some attendance records. Generally speaking, the attendant records observed (for both pupils and teachers) reflect a regular attendance of both teachers and pupils. It was however gathered that though the records looked good some of the teachers and pupils do not stay till the end of the school day. In other words, some teachers and pupils usually mark the register in the morning and disappear before the end of the day. During the researcher's interactions with the schools, it was observed that sometimes, some classes were without teachers when pupils were supposed to be occupied by designated teachers.

Conversation with a few teachers provided valuable information for this inefficiency. It was gathered that some teachers were not committed and as a result, the syllabus is not usually covered by the end of the year. And if the headteachers were around, (as they are usually out of school for conferences seminars and meetings) and notice such behaviour, the headteachers had no authority to discipline such teachers. All the same, some headteachers introduced some measures to combat this kind of attitude to work. For example, a headteacher made it compulsory for teachers to mark a register of attendance after each lesson. Teachers still found a loophole, because the headteacher could not take any disciplinary action since the matter must be reported to the Ministry of Education and it takes several weeks before any feedback is given. Headteachers also wanted an atmosphere devoid of conflict and stress, and therefore they allowed the sleeping dog to lie. The implication of this is that dodging lessons by some teachers is a problem in community junior secondary schools. More so when the headteachers feel incapacitated because they have to wait for the authority, which is far away from the situation, to take necessary measures.

Noisemaking and student mobility rate

There was calmness at least outside the classrooms in most of the schools visited. Even then, pupils made noise when teachers were not with them in the class. Many of the pupils kept to their classes during lesson periods and were seen socializing with one another during break/lunch time. They gathered in small numbers to eat their refreshments during break and had real meal (often provided by the government) at lunch time.

Parent involvement

The researcher visited the schools toward the end of second term (April) and for a few weeks into the third term (June). It was observed that parents were constantly seen in the school premises at the beginning of the third term. It was however gathered that parents visited schools at that time just to collect their children's report cards. Otherwise, they rarely visit the school and many of them neither attend the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meeting nor come for the prize giving ceremony and may not show up if and when called for their children's discipline problems. However they turn up when their children are suspended from school. This implies that, parent involvement in school activities is minimal. This finding negates Small's (2003:194) notion that parents are interested in participating in school activities, because many of these parents did not seem to be interested in the education of their children. The records of results that were observed indicate that pupils' performance was poor. For instance, a school that was in the top ten in the last final examination results had, out of 200 candidates, only two pupils with straight A's and the rest (198) pupils) were in their Bs, Cs, and Ds.

In view of the above, it can be deduced that, to some extent, most community junior secondary schools are operating normally except for a few things that need to be addressed: lack of parent involvement, uncommitted behaviour of some teachers, which could be contributing to pupils' low performance and the limited appearances of the headteachers in the school premises. The researcher believes that the headteachers'

presence in the school is very important, if not for any other reasons; their visible presence influences the school atmosphere because they symbolize the supreme authority at the school level.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an analysis of the data obtained from the empirical study. A description of how the results were calculated and interpreted was given. This was done to identify the relationship between headteacher's leadership style and school climate in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools. The study found that the dominant style of leadership used by the majority of headteachers covered in this study, as perceived by their teachers, was the selling style of leadership. A substantial number of headteachers used the selling style of leadership inappropriately. To this end, the closed climate that existed in most of the schools could be linked to the inappropriate use of the selling style of leadership by many headteachers. More importantly, the style does not seem to be suitable to create a positive organisational climate. In addition, the research results revealed that the school climate, open or closed, is blended differently probably as a result of situational use of the styles and or other external variables.

This chapter also revealed that the headteachers' perceptions of their behaviour while influencing the teachers' activities are different from how the teachers perceive their behaviour. This without doubt affects the climate of the schools for the teachers simply responded to the behaviour of their headteachers in accordance with their perceptions.

Moreover, a closed organisational climate characterized by lack of production, lack of teachers' commitment to pupils and colleagues was identified as another contributory factor to pupils' poor performance in schools. The findings also indicate a generally slack attitude of teachers condoned by some headteachers, which influences the organisational climate of the school.

The findings reflect that there is a link between headteacher leadership style and school climate; the headteachers' styles of leadership have a bearing on the climate that exists in the school as an institution. To a large extent, the headteachers' behaviour creates school climate, which could facilitate or inhibit pupils learning and teachers' effectiveness and of course, parent involvement in the school activities.

In Chapter Six, the conclusions drawn from both the literature reviewed and the empirical research findings will be discussed. Some recommendations that can be used to improve the climate in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools will be made and areas for further research on the subject suggested.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Botswana, the steady decline in moral uprightness and academic performance of most learners need to be tackled to redirect and sharpen pupils' focus on the shared vision for this country, which is characterized among others, by the preservation of moral and cultural values and achieving better quality life through quality education (see section 1.1). The accomplishment of Vision 2016 in the area of education depends on collective effort, commitment and productivity of the key role players involved in education service delivery especially the headteachers, teachers, pupils and parents. The problem statement of this study centres on the implications of headteachers' leadership style on school climate and what effective actions the education stakeholders can take for the improvement of unpleasant climate that prevails in some community junior secondary schools. It is assumed that the improvement of school climate will positively influence pupils' attitude toward the realisation of the Vision 2016 as individuals and as a country. In this respect, recommendations will be made on what some stakeholders can do to address the problem of moral decadence that is on the increase and lack of focus of many Botswana community junior secondary school pupils, part of a group the nation relies upon to realise her dream in 2016.

Chapter One established the study within a conceptual framework by exploring the problem investigated in the context of the current situation in some Botswana community junior secondary schools. Some of the prevalent acts of indiscipline in the schools include: stealing, bullying, smoking (cigarettes and daga), sexual misconduct, truancy and vandalism (see section 1.2.2)

In addition, some teachers' lack of professionalism is demonstrated in their negative attitude toward their job and pupils. Some of them are not regular both in school and class. Some of them assault pupils and involve themselves in illicit relationships with pupils. This kind of situation is partly responsible for the decline in pupils performance (see section 1.2.2) It also indicates that unhealthy climate prevails in some of the community junior secondary schools. The afore-mentioned negative behaviours defeat the aim of education in the Botswana context: to inculcate moral, social and cultural values in pupils for them to become responsible and productive citizens.

Now that the Vision 2016 is the priority of the country, investigating the factors that contribute to this situation is pertinent if Botswana would realize her dream in 2016. The headteachers are seen as the 'school gate keepers' who monitor and direct all activities within the school premises. Given the nature of their position, it is assumed that the headteachers would align their school vision with the nation's vision as a demonstration of their commitment to the national goals. As a result, this study was carried out to mark out the connection between the headteacher leadership behaviour and the school climate in their schools. A quantitative questionnaire was used. In the light of this, the aim of education in the Botswana context was discussed along side the current behaviour of some pupils and teachers. While recognizing other contributory factors, leadership style of the headteacher was the focus of this study.

Chapter Two presented the literature review on leadership style, focusing on different forms of leadership. It was argued that every form of leadership goes with human relations style, which is meant to inspire others. This is to say that the leader's preference of stimulating tactics determines the kind of relationship that will grow between the leader and his/her followers, which again is reflected in the organisational climate of the institution. Also, it was made clear that the headteachers themselves identified climate as one of the key factors which could be used to gauge the effectiveness of the school. The headteachers' behaviour was seen as a means to an end; very significant in promoting a positive climate in the school. Thus, the bulk of the responsibility of creating a pleasant school climate was placed on the headteachers' shoulders. It was therefore suggested that

headteachers should, if they have not, go for a transformational style of leadership which, if exercised correctly, could improve organisational climate.

Chapter Three also presented review of literature on school climate concentrating on the types of climates and climate dimensions. It was contended that climate varies from school to school. It was argued that an open school climate cannot be compromised in the making of a wholesome individual as it is pivotal to teachers' level of dedication to their pupils and colleagues. The headteacher was identified as an individual to whom teachers, pupils and parents look up for direction. Therefore, it was pointed out, once again that the headteacher's behaviour determines the kind of climate in a school. Thus, to some extent, the headteacher's behaviour dictates the teachers' productivity, the pupils' success and the parent involvement in school programmes.

In Chapter Four, the researcher explained the quantitative methodology used in this study. The similarities and dissimilarities between the methodologies were discussed and the rationale for the choice of a quantitative methodology provided. The survey method, data-collection techniques were also explained. The major instruments used were the adapted LEAD-Other and the OCDQ-RS questionnaires. The LEAD-Other and the OCDQ-RS originated from the LEAD and the OCDQ respectively. Both the LEAD-Other and the OCDQ-RS were designed to measure leadership style and school climate respectively (see section 4.11). The OCDQ-RS consists of 34 items (see appendix A section A) measuring five dimensions of secondary school headteachers and teachers, behaviour (see section 5.3.1) that constitute the school climate. The LEAD-Other consists of 12 situational items (see appendix A section B which describe different scenarios typical of an organisation. For each scenario there are 4 alternatives describing how the leader will behave in each situation (style). Both the OCDQ-RS and the LEAD-Other instruments are reliable for measuring leadership style and school climate (see section 4.11).

Chapter Five presented the data analysis and interpretation. The steps taken to analyse the data and the convergence and divergence that emerged in the analysis of data were

discussed. The quantitative data was analysed by means of frequency counts, standardized means and standard deviation; while the qualitative data was discussed using the interview question guide followed by the interpretation and discussion of the research results.

This Chapter presents conclusions from the findings and makes recommendations for various stakeholders to improve the present organisational climate in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools. This Chapter also makes suggestions for further study.

It is worth mentioning that by means of the aforementioned strategies the aim and objectives as stated in chapter one have been achieved. This research has given a clearer explanation why, due to some underlining factors, the organizational climate does not sometimes have a normal blend characterizing a closed or open climate as enumerated by Halping. This is because an open headteacher's behaviour does not necessarily mean that teachers will be open in their interaction with headteachers and among themselves or affect their input positively. This is evident in the research findings as some teachers working in an open school climate did not respond to their headteachers' open door policy due to some other factors. This research provides some ways of improving the quality of education by improving school climate through effective leadership. This is because through this research, it has been established that headteachers' leadership behaviour is related to school climate. In this regard, headteachers are informed about their leadership behaviour that can promote a positive atmosphere where high level of academic performance and high standard of behaviour is facilitated. In addition, through this research, stakeholders are aware of their roles in promoting a positive climate in schools.

6.2 THE RESEARCH RESULTS

The following themes emerged in the analysis of data collected from headteachers, teachers and the observations made.

- School climate differs from school to school.
- Headteachers employ various styles while performing their duties.
- Headteachers' perception of their behaviour is different from how their followers perceive them
- Most schools have the necessary facilities
- Teachers are not committed to their work.
- There is a link between headteacher leadership style and school climate.

6.2.1 School climate differs from school to school.

Findings revealed different organisational climates in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools. Two different organisational climates were identified namely: an open climate and a closed climate (see table 5.6). The majority of the schools studied had a closed organisational climate (see table 5.6). Both the teachers and pupils' behaviours were affected one way or the other by the unhealthy, negative or closed climate. The headteachers' inefficiency with regard to facilitating task accomplishment and demonstrating interest in teachers' personal welfare contributed greatly to teachers' lack of commitment to pupils and school. The headteachers' emphasis on hard work yielded no fruits because they failed to lead by example; their behaviours contradicted their words. They expected teachers to take initiative, but at the same time limited their freedom to perform necessary leadership duties and the headteachers themselves did not provide adequate leadership. Therefore, their inconsistency coupled with their high expectations of teachers portrayed their behaviour as insincere, which contributed to the teachers' frustration and consequently pupils' unacceptable behaviours and poor performance (see section 3.2.2.1f).

6.2.2 Headteachers employ various styles while performing their duties.

Most teacher respondents reported that their headteachers' primary leadership style was selling style (see table 5.6). In other words, the headteachers employed the selling

leadership style in running the school. The selling leadership style is characterized by high task and high relationship behaviour (see section 2.4.3.6b). The teachers indicated also that their headteachers used telling, selling, participating and delegating as their secondary styles and the telling style was identified as the frequently used supporting style by the headteachers (see table 5.6). However, the selling style of leadership was not appropriately used by the headteachers, probably because most of them got to that position by promotion and not by certification, therefore they lack the necessary leadership skills; thus, the style was ineffective. The selling can only be used, at best, to achieve what a transactional leader would achieve because both styles of leadership share some major characteristics; both are characterized by directive headteacher behaviour (see section 2.4.3.6b). The followers' commitment depends on how much of their needs are satisfied and both styles do not facilitate followers' development. The selling or transactional leadership style seemed unsuitable for creating and maintaining a positive organisational climate because directive headteacher behaviour does not foster growth, creativity and teachers' open interpersonal relations (see section 2.4.2.2). And when teachers are driven by what they will benefit, they will get frustrated because the headteachers cannot provide some things the teachers are demanding for, for example, salary increase and better conditions of service.

Similarly, the participative style of leadership shares some attributes with transformational leadership. For example, both styles promote the inclusion of followers in decision-making, followers' development, collaboration and power sharing through the use of (followers) initiatives (see section 2.4.3.6c & 2.4.5.2). Participative leadership style as reflected in the findings seemed to promote an open/positive organisational climate (see table 5.6). One possible explanation for this is that teachers were included in school matters and were encouraged to carry out their duties in the way they deem appropriate, thus, enhancing collegiality, power sharing, teachers' confidence, self development and positive attitude to school.

6.2.3 Headteachers' perceptions of their behaviour are different from how their teachers perceive them.

The headteachers' opinions of their behaviour while performing their duties were quite different from how their teachers saw them behave. The headteachers thought that they involved teachers and other staff members in decision-making and other activities of the school, but the teachers believed the contrary. The headteachers introduced their idea and tried to sell it to teachers. The discrepancy in the headteachers and teachers' perceptions of the behaviours of headteachers to a large extent, contributes to teachers' low morale, lack of motivation and commitment and the prevailing closed climate in many schools. The teachers' lack of response to what the headteachers believed to be a participative/consultative style underscores the notion that leadership style is determined by the followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviour (see section 4.10.2). An issue arising from the above is why most teachers felt left out in decision-making in spite of the fact that most headteachers used the participative/consultative style of leadership.

6.2.4 Most schools have the necessary facilities

Most of the schools visited by the researcher where respondents participated in the study were generally clean and moderately beautified with flowers. Some of the schools had their vision and mission statements artistically displayed giving a good impression of the school. To have a vision is one thing and to channel all plans and actions to realizing the vision is another. Some of the research findings namely the headteacher's use of the selling style of leadership, low engaged teacher behaviour and high frustrated teacher behaviour would stand in the way of fulfilling the vision. If the situation persists, the nation's vision especially in the area of education, which is core would only be a dream for a long while.

The physical environment of some schools was unattractive and dirty which made one to be curious of the primary duties of the school cleaners. This kind of picture in a way reflects the personality of the headteachers in such schools and the manifestation of their

attitude towards the country's vision on education. Generally, community junior secondary school classrooms were adequately and appropriately furnished: chairs and lockers were in good condition and the rooms were airy and well-lit.

6.2.5 Teachers are not committed to their work.

A large number of teachers studied as reflected in Table 5.3 were not committed to their work. The fact that many teachers demonstrated a disengaged behaviour even when their headteachers were very supportive (as seen in some schools with a closed climate) and quite genuine in their relationship with teachers (as indicated in a couple of schools with an open climate) (see table 5.3) lend support to Phaswana's (1996:137) findings that many of the community junior secondary school teachers have a very negative attitude to their work. As gathered during the observation period, low salary, poor conditions of service, the pattern of promotion and the like bear on teachers' general attitude to work. It is assumed that individuals who opt for the teaching profession are interested in imparting life and so have the interest of pupils at heart. If this is the case, then, it is logical to expect most teachers, not to trade the future of their pupils for their unmet needs. But if individuals take up the teaching profession as the last resort (the case for some teachers) then, this type of attitude should not be a surprise. A pertinent issue is effect of disengaged behaviour and a closed climate in schools, on the nation's aspiration as articulated in Vision 2016.

The focus of this research study was the relationship between headteacher leadership style and school climate. From the result, it can be deduced that headteachers perform their tasks by using various styles of leadership. Their tasks entail, among others, leading teachers, providing direction for the growth of the institution as well as teachers. The manner in which headteachers carry out their duties affects the way the teachers discharge their duties and this in turn as well as how they relate to the authority and one another creates the type of climate in the schools. There is no gain saying that headteachers cannot perform their leadership roles in isolation from teachers because leadership is all about the relationship with other members in the organisation (Maxwell

1999:106). Hence, teachers perceive their headteachers based on the style they (headteachers) employ and how such a style affects them.

Both headteachers and teachers obtain their appointments from teaching pupils. The headteacher's style therefore, ultimately affects the teachers' behaviour, the accomplishment of teaching assignment and the work environment. From the research results, it is clear that there is definitely a correlation between headteacher leadership style and school climate. The headteacher has a choice to either consciously create a particular climate by employing certain style(s) or by going through the motion having no plan to make teachers and pupils' stay in school a worthwhile period. It is good to point out that creating a positive school climate is the collective effort of headteachers and teachers. The teachers' involvement however, rests on the leading of their headteachers. Hence, a climate is the cumulative effect of reciprocal relationships between the headteachers and teachers and among teachers. These research findings uphold the hypothesis posed in this study. The leadership styles of the headteacher either promote engaged teacher behaviour or disengaged teacher behaviour, either of these two ways affects the type of climate that will envelope the school (see section 1.2.1).

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the researcher makes some recommendations that can be applied to address the negative climate in some Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools. In Chapters One, Two and Three it was argued that the headteacher leadership behaviour is pivotal to creating a climate in the school (see section 1.2.1). In effect, the headteachers' relationship with teachers and the pattern of headteacher-teacher interactions creates either a negative or positive climate in the school. Moreover, it was revealed in Chapter One that teachers' low morale is due, in part, to unsatisfactory conditions of service. In this regard, the recommendations will be directed to the policy makers in the Ministry of Education and the stakeholders at the school level. It is important that these recommendations are considered and effected as they are practicable and effective for

making the Vision 2016 a reality (see section 1.3). The structure of the recommendations will be based on the research questions of this study (see section 1.2.3).

6.3.1 Headteachers use different leadership styles

The findings of this study in relation to different headteacher' leadership styles reveal that the headteachers used different leadership styles which include: the selling, telling, participating and delegating styles (see table 5.5). The findings also imply that the majority of the headteachers used their dominant styles of leadership (the selling, telling and participating styles) inappropriately. Therefore, it is recommended that headteachers should familiarize themselves with various leadership styles and their effectiveness in different situations. In this regard, the Ministry of Education should organize extensive in-service development programme and/or encourage the headteachers to go for short courses in educational management with specific emphasis on leadership skills and styles. Since one of the tenets of the nation's vision is to be an educated and informed nation, it is imperative that the Ministry of Education reviewed the manner headteachers run the school in relation to the school climate and how much learning takes place. In essence, headteachers should be enlightened about the appropriate use of leadership styles in different situations.

Active participation of the headteachers is very important in this kind of programme, headteachers should be encouraged to suggest solutions to the existing problems using their past experiences, which can be supported with relevant theoretical information and research findings. The exercise can include case studies of existing school situations, which need specific leadership skills and styles of headteachers. Case studies on situational leadership will be of help not only because present day teachers are well informed and differ in various ways, but also because school needs are ever changing. Thus, headteachers should be well furnished to be able to determine the appropriate leadership style for a given situation.

Better still, case studies on transformational leadership are of unique importance. Transformational leaders are marked by the exemplary schools they lead (Sagor 1992:13); the schools that are driven by explicit common goals, and as a result, they constantly experience improvement in all aspects of school life. Transformational leadership incorporates situational leadership and much more. It is a 'value added' style of leadership (Avolio & Bass in Leithwood 1992:9), which can be used to address some of the challenges facing some Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools. At a time like this, when all hands are on deck in order to fulfil the country's vision, the country needs desperately transformational headteachers to turn the situation around for the better. Instruments like LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other and the Multifactor leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) can be used (see section 4.10.2).

6.3.2 Two types of climates in Botswana secondary schools

The results emanating from this study in connection with the different types of climates in schools indicate that there are two major types of climates in Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools namely: the open/healthy climate and the closed/unhealthy climate. However, the findings reveal that the majority of the schools have a closed/unhealthy organisational climate (see table 5.6). It is important that community junior secondary school headteachers are aware of various climates that exist (see section 3.2.2.1) and other aspects of school climate. In this respect, it is suggested that the Ministry of Education should organize workshops where experts in the field will expose headteachers to all the details of school climate, for instance, the meaning, importance, the dimensions of climate, how good climate can be created, how it can be improved and sustained.

6.3.3 Headteachers' leadership styles are responsible for school climate

The findings of this research in respect to whether school headteachers' leadership styles are responsible for school climate show that the headteacher leadership style is one of the major factors responsible for school climate (see section 1.1 and table 5.6). The

headteachers need to know why and how their leadership behaviour can bring into existence a particular type of climate. It is therefore recommended that the Ministry of Education initiate and involve Community Junior Secondary School headteachers in the climate improvement programme. The programme may include a research whereby each school will carry out a study to identify the type of climate that exists in the school with the intention of improving it. The OCDQ-RS research tool (see section 4.10.1) will be effective in achieving this task. It is assumed that if this kind of programme is introduced it will help headteachers in evaluating their leadership behaviours. It will also help them to take necessary steps to improve the climate in their schools. School climate improvement should not be a one time exercise rather, it should be an on going exercise for the sustenance of a positive climate in schools.

6.3.4 There is a relationship between leadership style and school climate

The literature reviewed as well as the findings from the empirical study with regard to the implications of headteachers' leadership styles for school climate clearly indicate that there is a link between the headteachers' leadership style and the school climate (see section 1.1 and table 5.6). In addition, the findings reveal that the leadership style employed by the headteacher has implications for school climate (see table 5.3 and section 1.1). In essence, the headteacher leadership behaviour for example, his/her expectations, values, beliefs, relationships with teachers and the examples he/she sets for the whole school shape the climate in the school. In view of this, the need for headteachers to be well informed to use their leadership styles to create and improve school climate can not be over emphasised. Thus, the Ministry of Education should begin to campaign for the need to improve the existing school climate and work out plans to back up the movement.

Moreover, resentment and conflict attend domineering/authoritarian style of leadership (see section 2.4.1.1). Hence, headteachers should embrace the collaborative style where teachers are included and free to share ideas and concepts for the benefit of pupils and the school. Headteachers should endeavour to fully involve teachers in the decision-making

and execution of plans. Teachers will most likely work with enthusiasm when they are not left out in matters concerning the progress of the school. Headteachers should be professional objective and fair during appraisal exercise and or recommendation for promotion. Transparency is central to congenial and collegial relations at work (see section 3.2.3.1c). Headteachers are therefore encouraged to adopt an open pattern of relationship with teachers for a happy aura to prevail in schools

The results of this study in relation to what the school stakeholders can do to improve school climate is presented below focusing on the Ministry of Education, headteachers and teachers respectively.

6.3.5 The role of government in the improvement of school climate

(a) The findings reveal that headteachers are often engaged in activities that take them out of their schools (see section 5.3.4). In this regard, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education should allow headteachers to stay more in their schools and should be engaged only occasionally outside their school premises to attend important and relevant meeting, workshops and conferences. This will give them time to review their school progress and plan for necessary improvement. Besides, this will afford the headteachers ample time and opportunities to reach out to both pupils and teachers.

(b) Another step that the Ministry of Education can take in addition to previously enumerated recommendations is to reconsider the undue red tape and documentation which characterize discipline issues in schools. The Ministry of Education should empower headteachers to use their discretion when it comes to suspension of pupils and when teachers display unprofessional behaviour. It is assumed that headteachers by virtue of their profession and experience have better understanding of situation in their schools. Otherwise the Ministry of Education should strive to attend promptly to discipline problems reported by the school headteachers.

It is note worthy that the headteachers position is not an enviable one, they operate among many groups of people: parents, teachers, pupils and the government. If they tilt towards one group, they may not find support from others and much as they would want to please all the categories of people they deal with, their hands are sometimes tied. For example, headteachers are not in a position to increase teachers' emolument, can do little or nothing to stop the double shift system just introduced by the government because teachers do not like it or refuse to collect the newly introduced school fees by the government because parents are against it. In essence, the headteachers are in a delicate position as a result, they should be given the needed support so as to sustain a positive climate in schools.

(c) The research findings suggest that teachers working in 33 (94%) of the schools studied were not committed to their work (high disengagement behaviour). They are frustrated despite the fact that some of the headteachers in these schools were supportive (see table 5.3). In view of this, it is suggested that the Ministry of Education should consider the issues raised by the teachers as part of the strategies to fulfilling the nation's vision. For instance, the policy on promotion should be reviewed so that the teachers are promoted at the appropriate time. It is assumed that when promotion is tied to vacancy, as it is presently, it affects the attitude and performance because teachers are stagnated since vacancy is usually limited. The teachers who are frustrated due to lack of promotion are likely to take their frustration out on the headteachers with whom they have direct contact on daily basis. In essence, education being the pillar of the Vision 2016, teachers' efficiency cannot be compromised if the vision will be realized. Therefore, it is imperative for the government to motivate the teachers by attending to some of their long-standing requests as a way of encouraging them to take their rightful positions in the nation's journey to a better Botswana in 2016.

6.3.6 Headteachers' role in the improvement of school climate

(a) The findings of this research indicate lack of parent involvement in pupils' education (see section 3.2.3.4). It is therefore recommended that the school

administration should employ various techniques to improve parent participation in school activities. It is assumed that when parents work in partnership with the school, pupils' behaviour and academic performance is enhanced as a result and a positive school climate is facilitated. Parents should be assisted to see themselves as stakeholders and encouraged to behave accordingly. Therefore, headteachers should intensify their effort in motivating parents to play their role in the education of their children. The forum should be created, for instance, 'Parent Day', 'Family Day' or workshops where parents can be enlightened on the significance of their involvement in their children's education. The parents who are actively involved in school should be recognized and appreciated for their contributions toward school. Headteachers should also create opportunities and organize activities such as 'Fund Raising', 'Fun Day', and 'Sport Day' that will improve parent involvement in school. In addition, parent expertise can be utilized to benefit the school. For example, a 'Career Week' can be organized and experts in different areas: engineering, accountancy, medicine, law etc. be invited to motivate the pupils. In this regard, it is suggested that much of career development programme which is presently done at the senior secondary school level where pupils study already chosen subjects for future career should be carried out at the junior secondary school level where it will be beneficial to pupils because once they are well informed, they are not likely to be confused as to what subjects to choose for which career.

(b) The majority of the schools studied had a closed climate. A closed climate is an indicator of game playing and deception (see section 3.2.2.1f). The headteachers should endeavour to walk the talk and be role models for teachers, pupils, parents and other stakeholders. Their apparent efficiency and hard work should be an incentive for others. They should attend immediately to issues that interrupt teaching and the learning process and should take a firm stand on such issues to prevent reoccurrence. The support for teachers to discharge their duties effectively and create climate where pupils learn with fun should be adequately provided. The headteachers should try to move around the school building looking for good things that are happening for pupils and openly affirm them, bringing encouragement to both teachers and pupils.

6.3.7 Teachers' role in the improvement of school climate

This research results suggest that teachers have a role to play in creating and sustaining a positive/healthy climate in schools (see section 3.2.3.2). In this regard, it is suggested that teachers should handle their job concerns with maturity, use proper channels and exercise patience while waiting for the government to address issues. There is the need for them to share in the nation's vision and their full participation in planning and accomplishing the plans towards Vision 2016 is critical. Thus, teachers are encouraged to be committed, faithful and to see to the success of the pupils they teach.

The need to create a pleasant climate cannot be overemphasised. A climate where the headteacher can function effectively, teachers can work with enthusiasm, pupils can enjoy learning and parent involvement can be encouraged should be the top priority for the Ministry of Education, headteachers, teachers and other stakeholders.

6.4 THEMES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There is a shortage of research on leadership styles and school climate in Botswana, specifically on the connectedness of the headteacher leadership style and school climate. Presently, there is no information or facts on the clear-cut schemes that can be utilized to improve the headteacher leadership styles and school climate. Thus, more research, both qualitative and quantitative is required to examine the factors responsible for pupils' poor performance, increase in pupils' acts of indiscipline and the negative climate in some community junior secondary schools. In this regard, suggested research areas are:

- Strategies for improving headteachers' leadership skills and styles
- The impact of headteacher style of leadership on teachers' effectiveness, pupils' attitude and the general climate of school.
- Dealing with the steady decline in pupils' academic performance and high rate of indiscipline in community junior secondary schools.
- The headteachers' level of authority with regard to disciplinary issues pertaining to teachers' behaviour.

- The strategies for creating and sustaining a positive, healthy climate in Botswana community junior secondary schools.
- The level of teacher commitment in community junior secondary schools and its effect on pupils' performance and school climate.

6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The level of indiscipline and poor academic performance of pupils in some Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools is a disturbing issue to the parents and other stakeholders. It was contended in Chapters One and Five of this study that the headteachers are responsible for creating and sustaining a suitable climate, which promotes pupils positive behaviour and teachers' commitment to pupils, colleagues and school. Furthermore, it was mentioned that the headteachers' limited knowledge on leadership skills and styles, as evident in inappropriate use of leadership styles in many of the schools studied, is a major contributory factor to disengaged teacher behaviour, pupils lack of focus and the existence of an unhealthy climate in many of the community junior secondary schools.

The above picture requires the government, through the Ministry of Education to come up with effective ways of improving headteachers' leadership skills and styles and the general climate in schools. The headteachers' broad knowledge of and the ability to apply leadership skills and styles are fundamental to creating and maintaining a conducive climate for teaching and learning. Thus, the whole process of establishing a culture of learning and teaching starts with the headteachers' leadership skills to direct both teachers and learners' focus on the essence of schooling, which would lead to the creation of a positive climate.

Finally, the government should consider the betterment of school climate priority by giving thought to teachers' complaints with regard to conditions of service. The government should also be active in building a culture of accountability in schools and ensure that schools are answerable for the general performance of pupils.

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Appendix A

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information about your school, relevant to my research title: *The Relationship Between Leadership Style and School Climate in Botswana Secondary Schools*. The information provided will be used purely for my academic research, and will be treated anonymously and privately. So I humbly request you to provide the information requested as candidly as possible.

Name of School: -----

PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Sex: -----
2. Subjects taught: -----

Section A

DIRECTIONS: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by putting a tick \checkmark in the appropriate box.

RO= rarely occurs; **SO**= sometimes occurs; **O**= often occurs; **VFO**= very frequently occurs

	RO	SO	O	VFO
1. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.				
2. Teachers have too many committee requirements.				
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.				
4. Teachers are proud of their school.				
5. The principal sets an example by working hard himself or herself.				
6. The principal compliments teachers.				
7. Teacher-principal conferences are dominated by the principal.				
8. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.				
9. Teachers interrupt other staff members who are talking in staff meetings.				

RO = rarely occurs; SO = sometimes occurs; O = often occurs; VFO = very frequently occurs	RO	SO	O	VFO
10. Student body has an influence on school policy.				
11. Teachers are friendly with students.				
12. The principal rules with an iron fist.				
13. The principal monitors everything teachers do.				
14. Teachers' closest friends are other staff members at this school.				
15. Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school.				
16. Teachers help and support each other.				
17. Pupils solve their problem through logical reasoning.				
18. The principal closely checks teacher activities.				
19. The principal is autocratic.				
20. The morale of teachers is high.				
21. Teachers know the family background of other staff members.				
22. Assigned nonteaching duties are excessive.				
23. The principal goes out of his or her way to help teachers.				
24. The principal explains his or her reason for criticism to teachers.				
25. The principal is available after school to help teachers when assistance is needed.				
26. Teachers invite other staff members to visit them at home.				
27. Teachers socialize with each other on a regular basis.				
28. Teachers really enjoy working here.				
29. The principal uses constructive criticism.				
30. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of the staff.				
31. The principal supervises teachers closely.				
32. The principal talks more than listens.				
33. Pupils are trusted to work together without supervision.				
34. Teachers respect the personal competence of their colleagues.				

Section B

DIRECTIONS: Assume your headteacher is involved in each of the following twelve situations. Read each item carefully and think about what you believe your headteacher would do in each circumstance. Then circle the letter of the alternative that you think would most describe your headteacher's behaviour in the situation presented. Circle only one choice.

- 1. The staff are not responding lately to this leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.**

 - A Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.
 - B Be available for discussion but would not push for involvement.
 - C Talk with the staff and then set goals.
 - D Intentionally not intervene.

- 2. The observable performance of the staff is increasing. The leader has been making sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.**

 - A Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.
 - B Take no definite action.
 - C Do what can be done to make the staff feel important and involved.
 - D Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.

- 3. The staff is struggling to solve a problem. The leader has normally left them alone. Staff performance and interpersonal relations have been good.**

 - A Work with the staff and together engage in problem solving.
 - B Let the staff work it out.
 - C Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - D Encourage the staff to work on the problem and be supportive of their efforts.

- 4. This leader is considering a change. The staff has a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.**

 - A Allow staff involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive.
 - B Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.
 - C Allow the staff to formulate its own direction.
 - D Incorporate staff recommendations, but direct the change.

- 5 The performance of the staff has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their task done on time.**
- A Allow the staff to formulate its own direction.
 - B Incorporate staff recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
 - C Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.
 - D Allow staff involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not too directive.
- 6. This leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin to show concern for the needs of the staff.**
- A Do what could be done to make the staff feel important and involved.
 - B Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
 - C Intentionally not intervene.
 - D Get the staff involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.
- 7. This leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to the staff. Members of the staff have made suggestions about needed change. The staff has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.**
- A Define the change and supervise carefully.
 - B Participate with the staff in developing the change, but allow members to organize the implementation.
 - C Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
 - D Avoid confrontation, leave things alone.
- 8. Staff performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat insecure about not providing direction to the staff.**
- A Leave the staff alone.
 - B Discuss the situation with the staff and then initiate necessary changes.
 - C Take steps to direct followers towards working in a well defined manner.
 - D Be supportive in discussing the situation with the staff, but not too directive.
- 9. This leader has been appointed to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for a change. The staff is not clear on their goals. Attendances at sessions have been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help.**
- A Let the staff work out its problems.
 - B Incorporate staff recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
 - C Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
 - D Allow staff involvement in setting goals, but not push.

- 10. Followers, who are usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.**
- A** Allow staff involvement in redefining standard but not take control.
 - B** Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
 - C** Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave the situation alone.
 - D** Incorporate staff recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
- 11. This leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous headteacher was uninvolved in the affairs of the staff. The staff has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Staff interrelations are good.**
- A** Take steps to direct followers working in a well defined manner.
 - B** Involve staff in decision making and reinforce good contributions.
 - C** Discuss past performance with the staff and then examine the need for new practices.
 - D** Continue to leave the staff alone.
- 12. Recent information indicates some internal difficulties amongst staff. The staff has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.**
- A** Try out solution with staff and examine the need for new practices.
 - B** Allow the staff members to work it out themselves.
 - C** Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
 - D** Participate in problem discussion while providing support for the staff.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND SINCERE RESPONSE, MAY GOD BLESS YOU.

Appendix B

Interview Guide

How do you go about setting goals in your school?

What do you do if teachers are hostile or evasive when you attempt to be friendly?

How do you deal with team members who are unable to handle a particular task they have been given?

How do you introduce changes?

What do you do if team members seem to have lost focus and are complacent?

Appendix C

TELEPHONE: 3655400

TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD

FAX: 351624/3655458

REFERENCE: E 11/17 XXXVI(4)



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

PRIVATE BAG 005

GABORONE

BOTSWANA

10 August 2005

Dear C O Oyetunji

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH- C O Oyetunji

We acknowledge receipt of your request to conduct a research in Botswana Junior Secondary Schools that will provide information that will contribute to the improvement of climate that is conducive to learning.

You have been granted permission to conduct your research entitled:

The Relationship Between Leadership Style and School Climate in Botswana Secondary Schools

You are however reminded that since you will be collecting data from the teachers and school heads, you are requested not to inconvenience the pupils as much as possible.

You are also reminded that the findings of your research should be used in Botswana and for the requirements to fulfil the award of PhD at University of South Africa (UNISA), Pretoria, South Africa

Thank you

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'M I Mokubung'.

M I Mokubung
For / Permanent Secretary