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TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING IN GHANAIAN BASIC SCHOOLS: A Study of Some Selected Basic Schools in the Cape Coast Metropolitan Area and Mfantseman Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana.

Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
At the University of Northampton

2015

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this doctoral dissertation is the result of an independent investigation. Where it is indebted to the work of others, acknowledgements have duly been made.

University of Northampton
February, 2015

DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to all basic school Teachers, Head teachers and Circuit Supervisors in Ghana.

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I would like to express my special appreciation and thanks to my supervisors Dr. Estelle Tarry and Dr. Cristina Devecchi, your continuous encouragement and mentorship are the main foundation of this thesis. I would like to thank you for encouraging my research and for allowing me to grow as a researcher. Your advice on both research as well as on my career have been priceless. I also wish to express my profound gratitude to the Vice Chancellor and management of the University of Education, Winneba, (my employer) for granting me the scholarship and study leave to pursue my PhD.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the current levels and challenges/barriers facing teacher participation in school decision-making in the Cape Coast Metropolitan area and Mfantseman Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. The study employed the explanatory sequential mixed method design involving semi-structured interviews with 11 teachers, 4 head teachers and 4 circuit supervisors. Furthermore, questionnaires were administered to 209 teachers, 26 head teachers and 11 circuit supervisors. The SPSS version 20 and the Nvivo software version 10 were used to analyse the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview. In a micro ethnographic study, teachers and head teachers from 2 schools that recorded the highest and lowest teacher participation in school decision-making were subsequently observed during staff and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. In addition, their documents such as staff and PTA minutes books were also analysed. Classroom, committee/group and school levels emerged as the levels of teacher participation in school decision-making. However, few teachers were found participating at the school level, while the majority participated at the classroom level, with some at the committee/group level. The study found that unilateral decisions by head teachers, unimplemented decisions and insufficient funds were the challenges/barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making. Nevertheless, almost all the teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors agreed that there should be regular training for head teachers with regard to the tenets of school decision-making and leadership to enable them fully involve teachers in all issues concerning the school. The study concludes that for teachers to participate fully in all school decision-making and for schools to improve, head teachers need to motivate teachers, consult them, trust and be transparent to them in all school related issues. Furthermore, the researcher recommends a nationwide training of head teachers and decentralisation of power in schools. At the school level, teacher empowerment, creating instruction-oriented structures and teacher motivation are the key to effective teacher in PSDM.

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ACRONYMS

BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
CREAT	Consortium for Research on Education, Access, Transition, Equity
CS	Circuit Supervisors
DfID	Department for International Development
DIA	Decision-Making Involvement Analysis
DM	Decision-Making
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
GES	Ghana Education Service
GNAT	Ghana National Association of Teachers
JHS	Junior High School
MOE	Ministry Of Education
NAGRAT	National Association of Graduate Teachers
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PDM	Participation in Decision-Making
PSDM	Participation in School Decision-Making
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SDM	Shared Decision-Making
SIF	School Improvement Fund
SMC	School Management Committee
SPAM	School Performance Appraisal Meeting
TED	Teacher Education Division
TPSDM	Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making
TLM	Teaching and Learning Materials
WSD	Whole School Development
UTTBE	Untrained Teacher Training in Basic Education

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Ghana as a country has evolved from a number of educational reforms from 1987 to present day. The main issues addressed in these reforms have been a reduction in number of years spent in formal education from 17 years to 12 years of schooling, increase access to basic education, improving the quality of teaching and learning and most significant is the introduction of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE). The fCUBE programme was meant to ensure that all school going-age children receive free and compulsory quality basic education by 2005. This policy helped to create motivation for a coordinated sector programme providing donor support to education and a drive for educational decentralisation with greater recognition of the important role of community and other stakeholder's participation in school management for school improvement. The fCUBE was developed on the basis of three main objectives namely:

- Improving the quality of teaching and learning
- Improving efficiency in management and
- Improving access and participation in basic education

The new educational reforms in Ghana also created the momentum for introducing the School Management Committee (SMC) and the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) with the intention to enhance stakeholders' and communities' sense of ownership and participation in all school decision-making. To deliver the objectives of the FCUBE, the Government of Ghana adopted the Whole School Development (WSD) programme that was designed and managed by the Ministry of Education (MOE) with its funding from the United Kingdom (UK) Department for International Development (DfID).The WSD programme was viewed as a strategy to counter the paralysis that has come as a result of the centralisation of decision-making in basic education by devolving control of

education to the metropolis, municipalities, districts, schools and the local communities.

Despite the numerous efforts made by past governments to revamp stakeholders and community participation in issues concerning school improvement, there are still persistent problems affecting the policy of decentralisation of decision-making in schools due to the bureaucratic and archaic educational systems and policies still practised in Ghana (Oduro 2003; 2007; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008; Mensah and Dampson, 2013; Dampson, 2010).

There is no doubt that as per the fCUBE objective 3, stakeholders (teachers and parents) and community participation in decision-making (PDM) has become one of the key issues on Ghana's education development agenda. Over the years, in pursuit of improving the standards of education, successive Governments of Ghana have made various efforts with the view to ensuring that education rendered to Ghanaians meets both social and economic expectations and individual aspirations. However, challenges such as lack of teacher participation, motivation, leadership styles, conflicts, and logistics had made it impossible to achieve such expectation (MOE, 1999; Dampson, 2010; Oduro, 2003 & 2009; Dampson and Mensah, 2010; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2009).

However, current studies shows that involving teachers in the decision-making process offers a variety of potential benefits which can generate the social capacity necessary for excellent schools (World Bank, 2010; Dampson, 2010; Wadesango, 2011). More in detail, research shows that such benefits range from improving the quality of the decisions made (Harris, 2012; Somech, 2010), and enhancing teacher motivation (Akyeampong, 2004; Dampson and Mensah, 2010). In addition, decision-making serves as an important conflict resolution tool, allowing the members of the school environment to resolve their differences before the educational process is hampered and student learning diminished (Nye and Capelluti, 2003; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2009). Although often difficult, participation in all the process of decision-making can

be of assistance in reconciling individual needs and organisational goals (Barnard, 1938; Hoy and Miskel, 1991).

As well as stressing the central role of decision-making in an organisation, Owens (2008) also claims that organisational leaders are directly responsible for the quality and efficiency of the decision-making process. As a result, this authority rests, to a substantial degree, with the head teacher or school-based administrator who may choose to make a decision or delegate the power to others within the school (e.g., assistant head teacher, team leader, department head, teacher, community member) (Barth, 2000; Evers and Lakomski, 1991).

Indeed, while scholars stress the importance of involving staff members and teachers in a shared decision-making process (e.g., Hoy and Tarter, 2010; Harris, 2012; Somech, 2010), head teachers ultimately control decision-making by initiating the process and ensuring the implementation of the resulting conclusion(s) (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000). Who should be involved in the decision-making process, how an administrator or committee arrives at a solution, and when or how that solution is put into place are, according to O'Sullivan (2011), all under the direct control of the school's head teacher. As a consequence of the head teachers' position within the educational institution and because of the organisational authority granted to them, they make decisions on an almost continuous basis (Hallinger and Heck, 2010). To assist in this task, head teachers may use a variety of decision-making types/models and involve a number of different stakeholders (Johnson and Kruse, 2009). Despite these benefits, studies in Ghana have shown that the majority of Ghanaian basic school teachers who are the implementers of educational policies are still not participating fully in school decision-making (Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012; Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Bloomer, 1991).

Regardless of the benefits and importance of teacher participation in school decision-making, Bloomer's (1991, p.249) assertion made over two decades ago that, "in developing countries like Ghana, little is done about teacher PDM which is crucial for school improvement" is still relevant despite the implementation of various educational policies which calls for teachers,

stakeholders and community participation in all school related issues. The paucity of research and related literature regarding teacher PDM in the Ghanaian context which has created a gap in present understanding of teachers, stakeholders and community participation in school decision-making calls for the justification of this study.

1.1 Rationale of the Study

The study has emerged from the researcher's personal study experience as a trained teacher and the understanding of the importance and benefits of teacher participation in school decision-making. As a classroom teacher with over 10 years of primary and secondary level of teaching experience, the researcher never had the chance to fully participate at all the levels of school decision-making and this has necessitated the researcher to investigate the current levels and challenges/barriers that made it impossible for him to participate fully in school decision-making issues and suggest achievable recommendations to address the problem.

1.1.1 Personal and National Rationale

The researcher studied Masters in Education at the University of Northampton in the UK during the 2005-2006 academic years. Upon completion the researcher lectured the course Educational Administration, Management and Leadership for four years at the University of Education in Winneba (UEW). During this period the researcher developed interest, understanding and gained exposure through publication of articles in Educational Administration, Management and Leadership (Mensah and Dampson, 2013; Afful-Broni, and Dampson, 2008 & 2009; Dampson and Mensah, 2010; Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Afful-Broni, Noi-Okie, and Dampson, 2007). Currently the researcher has published over 10 articles in both local and international journals in the field of Educational Administration, Management and Leadership thereby adding to the paucity of literature in the field in Ghana.

His teachings and publications in Education Administration, Management and Leadership helped him to acquire a much broader view of the importance of teacher participation in school decision-making (PSDM). Interestingly, his study in the field led him to understand that while teacher PSDM has been considered by some scholars in the field as practically working to some extent in few schools in Africa (Bush and Heystek 2003a; Udoh and Akpa, 2007; Oplatka, 2004), for the majority of the Ghanaian school teachers, PSDM seem to be relatively new and in some instances unheard and un-experienced by some of the schools in the country (Dampson, 2010 & 2011).

According Dampson (2011) among the majority of Ghanaian basic schools, decisions are tailor-made and fed to teachers to implement. Dampson further argues that the 'fear factor' of being transferred to a rural school, demoted, suspended, or not being promoted made teachers not to question authority. This situation personally de-motivated me as a teacher which affected my commitment and teaching, which the researcher believes indirectly, affected the improvement of the school and the academic performance of the students he taught.

Aside his own experiences is a common feature in most Ghanaian basic schools where the head teacher makes decisions without involving his/her staff for fear of exposing or losing his/her position and respect as a head teacher (Dampson, 2010 & 2011). Perhaps, this common feature has emerged as a result of how basic school head teachers are selected and appointed to lead and manage schools through long services, past experiences and without adequate formal training in school administration, management and leadership which according to Bush and Oduro (2006) and Afful-Broni and Dampson (2008) affect them in their day-to-day management of schools.

The importance and benefits of teacher PSDM drawn by scholars in the field suggest that that when teachers participate in school decision-making it increases school productivity, innovation and organisation behaviour. In addition, the findings from the researchers' published articles (Dampson, 2010 & 2011) substantiate the fact that limited information is available in field of

teacher PSDM within the Ghanaian context. It was also evident in Dampson (2010 & 2011) and Mensah and Dampson (2013) that the Government of Ghana, the MOE, and the GES have not given much attention to teacher PSDM through its procedure for selecting, training and appointing of basic school head teachers to lead schools (Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Akyempong, 2004; Bush and Oduro, 2006).

Although teacher PSDM has been successful and making the headlines in the UK and USA (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom, 2010; Day, Harris, and Hadfield, 2001; Bush and Heystek, 2003a), the researcher believes that there is still paucity of its evidence in practice and in literature among Ghanaian basic schools. Based on the on-going discussions, it is therefore justified to research into this topic in order to bridge the gap created in literature and practice among basic schools in Ghana.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

As Ghana is part of the rapidly changing world, among the primary pre requisites for improving the quality of teaching in basic schools is full teacher participation in school decision-making process (Dampson, 2010 & 2011). In this regard, one of the programmes that have made positive contribution to training of head teachers in Ghana is the Leadership for Learning Programme (LfL). The LfL, the Cambridge Network was established in 2001 as a value-based network concerned with learning, leadership and their interrelationship (Jull, Swaffield, and MacBeath, 2014). In Ghana, the LfL partnership with the Institue for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) at the University of Cape Coast have been able to train and organise workshops for an estimated 3000 head teachers throughout the country. Additionally, the LfL's five policies: focus on learning; conditions for learning; shared leadership, dialogue; and shared accountability has been adopted by the Ghana Education Service (GES) and included in the head teachers handbook. Such positive impact in policy implementation and training of head teachers in leadership and learning, perhaps, is yet to be felt across basic schools in Ghana because Dampson

(2010 & 2011) argues that the majority of the basic school teachers lack participation in school decision-making.

In this context, Somech (2010) and Harris (2012) remind us that the participation of teachers in school decision-making may motivate teachers to exert their intellectual and emotional involvement in group situations that may enable them to contribute to group goals and share responsibilities for better school improvement. In addition, Atakpa and Ankomah (1998) claim that lack of teacher participation in decision-making is the cause to lack of student academic achievement in Ghana. Furthermore, Dampson (2010 & 2011) believes that Ghana's fCUBE will be fully achieved through teacher participation in school decision-making. Therefore, the researcher believes that the lack of participation of teachers in school decision-making has become a matter of great concern in the field of education in Ghana in recent years (Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Agebure, 2013). With the quality of teaching being one of the major requirements of school improvement and the concern that an alarming number of teachers are under performing as evidence from the 2011-2013 Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) indicates poor performance of students (GES, 2011; MOE, 2013; MOE, 2014), increasing teacher participation is a necessity for academic productivity and excellence in Ghanaian basic schools (Somech, 2010; Harris, 2012; Kuku and Taylor, 2002). The Ministry of Education, Ghana (1999), in trying to understand the reasons for low achievements among pupils in schools suggested 10 key causes of which unmotivated teachers owing to unattractive incentives and the poor appreciation of the roles of teachers (teacher participation in school decisions) were considered as key factors to school improvement.

The above concerns indicate the importance of teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghanaian basic schools. However, regardless of the importance of teacher participation in school decisions, only few studies (Agebure, 2013; Bogaert, Goutali, Saraf, & White, 2012; Kweggyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012; Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Drah, 2011) have been conducted in Ghana to find solutions to the lack of teacher participation in school decision-making. Nonetheless, the majority of the studies to which most references are

made, were conducted in Europe and the United States of America where school culture and dynamics are totally different from Ghana. This situation has created paucity of literature in the field of study which has resulted in the perceived causes and effects of teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghana. The researcher therefore believes that the paucity of literature within the Ghanaian context justifies the need for a study that focuses on the current levels and challenges/barriers to teacher participation in relation to school improvement in Ghana in the midst of low academic achievement among basic school pupils.

1.3 Aim(s) and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study was to fill the gap in the literature and practice by mapping teacher participation in decision-making in four dimensions of school governance: staff development, curriculum and instruction, goals, vision and mission and managerial issues; and the impact of PDM on school improvement, with a view of suggesting achievable recommendations for ensuring effective teacher participation in school decision-making (PSDM) in the basic schools. In addition, the study was designed to contribute to existing knowledge on the preparation, appointment and training of basic school head teachers. Furthermore, the study aimed to unveil the factors responsible for the lack of teacher participation in school decision-making and how to address them. The study achieved these aims by focusing on schools within the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality in the Central Region of Ghana.

The objectives of this study are:

- To investigate the current trends of teacher participation in decision-making that exist in the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality.
- To explore and critically examine the factors that facilitates or prevents teachers from participating in school decision making.

- To relate the findings to the four dimensions of school governance so as to ascertain the relationships between PDM and school improvement.
- To suggest achievable recommendations for ensuring effective teacher participation in all school decision-making issues.

1.4 Research Questions

The study was designed to answer the overall research question guiding this study:

To what extent do teachers participate in school decision-making (TPSDM), specifically in relation to the four dimensions of school governance: goals, management, curriculum and instruction and staff development?

The following primary (1, 2 and 3) and secondary (1a and 2a) research questions also guided the study.

1. What are the current trends of TPSDM in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and the Mfantseman municipality?
1a. What views and expectations do teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors hold about TPSDM?
2. What factors facilitate or prevent TPSDM in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and the Mfantseman municipality?
2a. To what extent do head teachers and circuit supervisors support TPSDM?
3. In what ways does TPSDM affect school improvement in Ghanaian Basic Schools?

1.5 Study Site/Area

According to the 2010 population and housing census, the Central Region occupies a land area of 9,8286sq kilometres and a total population of 2,107,209 out of which 998,409 are males and 1,108,800 are females. The capital of Central Region is Cape Coast. It has a coastline of 168 km stretching from Nyanyano in the east to Komenda in the west. The Central Region of

Ghana consist of one metropolitan, six municipal and ten district assemblies (www.mlgrdghanagov.com)

Out of the 17 administrations in the Central Region, the study adopted the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality because of time, proximity and familiarity to the researcher. Figure 1.1 below shows the geographical map of the Central Region of Ghana.

Figure 1.1 Geographical Map of Central Region of Ghana
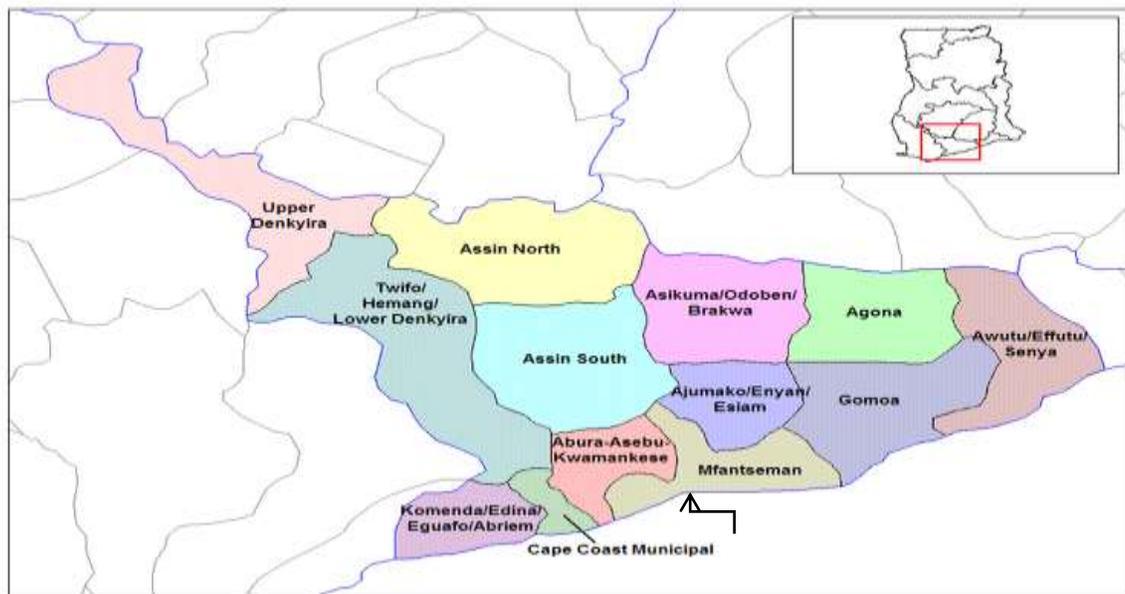
Data source: Ghana District.Gov (2013)

1.5.1 The Cape Coast Metropolitan Area (Site 1)

The Cape Coast metropolitan area is bounded on the south by the Gulf of Guinea, west by the Komenda / Edina / Eguafo /Abrem Municipal, east by the Abura/Asebu/Kwamankese district and north by the Twifu/Hemang/Lower Denkyira district. The Metropolis covers an area of 122 square kilometres and is the smallest metropolis in the country. The capital, Cape Coast, is also the capital of the Central Region. In the Cape Coast Metropolitan area, agriculture is also the main source of livelihood in the rural communities. In 1984, 10.5% of the economically active populations of the District were engaged in farming

and fishing (Ghana, 1984 & 2002). Today, the figure has substantially increased to 70%. (http://capecoast.ghanadistricts.gov.gh/)

1.5.2 The Mfantseman Municipality (Site 2)

Mfantseman municipal is located along the Atlantic coastline of the Central Region of Ghana and extends from latitudes 5* T to 5* 20' North of the equator and longitudes 0* 44' to 1* 11' West of the Greenwich Meridian, stretching for about 21 kilometres along the coastline and for about 13 kilometres inland and constituting an area of 612 square kilometres. The municipal capital is Saltpond. The municipal is bounded to the West and Northwest by Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District, to the East by Gomoa District and to the South by the Atlantic Ocean. The municipal has farming and fishing as the main economic activities, employing about three-quarters of the total workforce. Fishing is particularly important among the coastal communities and the presence of huge shoals of fish makes this activity highly rewarding. In the inland areas, farming is the main activity. Perhaps the best potential lies in the vast mineral resources within the municipal (ghanadistrics.com).

1.6 Organisation of the Study

The thesis consisted of ten chapters as shown in the table of content. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the thesis including the background and justification/rationale, statement of the problem, research questions, aims and objectives, sites/area, and the outline of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the related literature on the current trends and factors influencing teacher participation in school decision-making and the educational system in Ghana. The chapter further highlighted the role of stakeholders in decision-making, while exposing the barriers to PDM. Chapter 3 reviews the theoretical framework relating to decision-making. Discussions were made on participative decision-making, decision-making styles, process, types and models. Important issues such as leadership and decision-making were also discussed.

Chapter 4 presents the research methodology and design. The research framework, ontological and epistemological underpinnings of the study was also addressed. Also, the adaptation of mixed/multiple method approach for the study was justified. Strength and weakness of quantitative and qualitative research were highlighted to justify the use of mixed method approach for the study. The ethical consideration, validity and reliability of the instruments used for the study were all addressed.

In chapter 5, the instruments and procedure for data collection and piloting process were summarised. In addition, the population, sample and sampling procedure for data collection and the challenges encountered during the piloting process were also discussed.

In chapter 6, the questionnaire survey data was presented and analysed based on the four dynamics of school governances namely: staff development, managerial decision-making, curriculum and instruction, goals and vision and school improvement.

Chapter 7 and 8 presents and summarises data transcribed and obtained from the semi-structured interviews and participant observation conducted. Data was presented in themes that emerged from the transcripts to support the data obtained from the questionnaire survey in chapter 6. Chapter 9 and 10 presents the summary of findings, recommendations, significance, limitations and conclusion of the study.

1.7 Summary of Chapter 1

In this chapter the background of the study, statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the study and rational for the study has been thoroughly been discussed in the light of the purpose of the study. In addition, the research questions, and a brief introduction of the study's sites have been simplified. In chapter 2, the study will highlight the current trends of teacher participation, factors that influence teacher participation and challenges to teacher participation in school decision-making.

CHAPTER 2
TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL DECISION-MAKING

2.0   Introduction

The literature review for this study was guided by the basic procedures of literature search in Bell (2010) "*Doing your research project: a guide for first-time researchers in education".* Bell (2010) points out that literature search involves 'defining the parameters of the study, refining and focusing on keywords which will allow you to identify relevant sources' (p. 83).

According to Hart (1998) a literature review is important because it enables researchers to acquire understanding of their field of study, existing research, methodology and the key issues relating to the subject of study. Hart therefore, points to some key questions that guided the study's review of the literature:

- What are the origins and definitions of the topic?
- What are the major issues and debates about the topic?
- What are the key theories, concepts and ideas?

(Hart, 1998, p.14)

The review of literature for this study was generated from critical evaluations and interpretation of various research works in the field educational administration and leadership and other business organisations. The information was gathered from conference papers, journals, thesis, text books, and seminars, which was retrieved from electronic media and hardcopy. This chapter explores the educational system in Ghana, the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making (TPSDM) in Ghana and other African countries and the factors that influence teacher participation in school decision-making. This chapter also highlights the challenges/barriers to TPSDM and the role of stakeholders in school decision-making process.

2.1. The Educational System in Ghana

The level of development of any country depends to a large extent on the level and quality of education of its citizens. The education system of Ghana is modelled on that of the British school system. Pre-tertiary education in Ghana comprises nine years of basic education excluding kindergarten. These nine years consist of six years of primary and three years of Junior High School (JHS) (Ministry of Education Science and Sport, 2007b: Ministry of Information and National Orientation, 2007). Figure 2.1summerizes the educational structure in Ghana.

Figure 2.1 The Educational Structure in Ghana
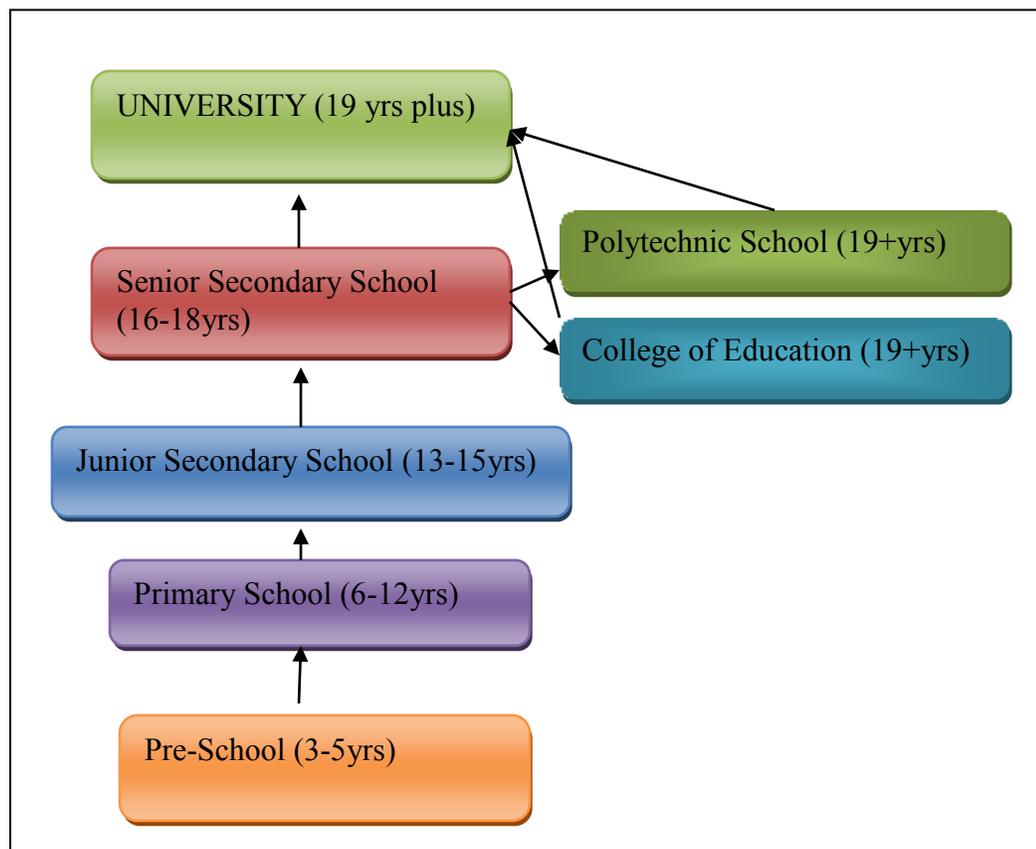
Adopted from the MOE sector report (2013)

Since 1951, various governments of Ghana have attempted with varying degrees of success to provide quality basic education for all children starting with the 1951 Accelerated Development Plan for Education (MOE Sector Report

(2013). The Education Act of 1961, Kwapong Education Committee of 1967, Dzobo Education Committee of 1972, and the Education Commission's report in 1986 on Basic Education were part of the effort made to restructure Ghana's education system. In 1983, the government of the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) enacted PNDC Law 42 to modify and reinforce, among others, the Education Act of 1961 Section (1) subsection (g) of the law which stated that educational facilities at all levels were to be provided and made available to the communities because it was the responsibility of the state to provide such facilities. Provision of material resources such as textbooks, classrooms and in-servicing training was intensified. While these inputs were necessary for the programme, they did not seem to be sufficient to transform the participation of teachers in school decision-making and the learning of the pupils.

However, the most persistent criticism of the education system at the time was its structure, totalling 17 years of pre-tertiary education which was considered inefficient, highly selective and which generally marginalised participation of teachers, communities and the poor in education. Thus, the new educational reforms set the following targets:

- Replacing the 6-4-7 school system with 6-3-3 thus shortening pre-tertiary education from 17 to 12 years
- Improving the quality of teaching and learning by increasing school hours and introducing a policy to phase out untrained teachers
- Making education planning and management more efficient and effective

After the new structure of education had been set in place, the government introduced an education sector policy in 1996 known as "Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE). FCUBE represented the effort to ensure that all school-age children received free and compulsory quality primary education by 2005. The new policy helped to create (a) motivation for a coordinated sector programme providing a framework for donor support to education, and (b) a drive for educational decentralization with greater recognition of the important role of community and teacher participation in

school management for school improvement. The FCUBE was developed on the basis of three components:

- Improving quality of teaching and learning through the review and revision of teaching materials, new measures on teacher incentives, and a focus on in-service teacher training.
- Strengthening management at both central and district level; and
- Improving access and participation especially through schemes that encouraged girls' participation at primary level.

It also created the momentum for introducing School Management Committees (SMCs) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) with the intention to enhance communities' sense of ownership and participation in education service delivery. To deliver the objectives of FCUBE, the government adopted a large scale Whole School Development (WSD) programme that was designed and managed by the Ministry of Education with funding from the UK Department for International Development (DFID). The WSD was viewed as a strategy to counter the paralysis that had come to characterize local decision-making in basic education by devolving control of education to districts, schools and communities. Regardless of these interventions by the government of Ghana, studies have shown that teachers still lack participation in school decision-making (Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008; Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006).

2.2. Trends and Impact of Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making in Ghana and other African Countries

Teacher participation in school decision-making remains a persistent theme in Ghana's educational reforms (GES, 2004). In 2002, for example, the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) called for teachers to be involved integrally in making school decisions. In the same year, the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), the nation's largest teachers' union, also called for teacher participation in identifying the purposes, priorities and goals of the

school (GNAT, 2002). These actions by teachers' unions indicate teachers' readiness to fully participate in decision-making that concern them and the schools they teach. Regardless of these calls for participation teachers are yet to achieve full participation in all school decision-making (Dampson, 2010 & 2011). Furthermore, the World Bank (2006), based on a national survey of public school teachers in Ghana, found that the majority of the teachers were not asked to participate in such crucial matters such as teacher evaluation, staff development, school budget, goals, and curriculum and instruction.

Although current research has shown that there has been a significant increase in the training of head teachers and circuit supervisors in leadership and school administration in Ghana (Jull, Sawffield, and MacBeath, 2012 & 2014). Regardless the fact that some head teachers have been trained, some of them are yet to allow teachers to participate in all school decision-making. To substantiate this fact, evidence from the World Bank Report in 2010 and a report by Transparency International Workshop by Bogaert *et al.,* (2012) further confirmed that teacher participation in decision-making in Ghanaian basic schools has received little attention mainly due to unresolved debate about who should participate and at what level.

However, regardless of these reports, Bush and Oduro (2006) and Oduro (2008) on the other hand attributed the lack of teacher PDM to the traditional top-down bureaucratic educational systems that place authority at the apex, which to them is a common feature in most African countries, including Ghana, which has made it impossible for teachers to participate fully in decision-making and benefit from it. For example, in 2010 the World Bank noted that the hierarchical institutional arrangement prevented teachers and lower level government agencies from making legitimate choices that would have seen schools enjoying substantial share of public expenditure allocated to primary schools. Furthermore, a case study of two rural and urban towns in Ghana revealed that in some parts of Ghana PDM is often perceived more as rhetorical than real because there was a tendency for bureaucratic establishments to protect their (authority) power and not to concede power to groups they did not trust (Dampson, 2011). Drah (2011) added that the majority of head the

teachers in the Eastern Region of Ghana perceived teacher participation in school decision-making to be a reduction in their authority and afford teachers to sabotage them in their day-to-day management of the school. The perception that the majority of the teachers in Ghana and other African countries are not willing to participate in school decision-making was debunked by Dampson (2011), Kiprop and Kandie (2012), Drah (2011), Duze (2011) and the World Bank Report (2010) who found that an average of about 75% of teachers are willing to participate fully in all school decision-making regardless of its challenges. Perhaps, the major concern for these African school head teachers might be how to motivate, create and ensure a feeling of job satisfaction and high moral amongst teachers, which may result in teacher commitment and job performance.

Additionally, Oduro and MacBeath (2003) also found out that the traditions and tensions in leadership in Ghanaian basic schools are also a major challenge to TPSDM due to how basic school head teachers are selected and appointed based on experience and long service to manage schools. They identified barriers to teacher participation to insufficient training, procedure used in appointing head teachers, and partly to the lack of distributed/participatory management styles, which they claim are poorly understood or applied by most Ghanaian basic school head teachers. Consequently, Ghanaian teacher, who are positioned at the bottom of the educational structure, are mostly recipients of decisions and instructions which, while to be implemented at the school level, is the result of decisions made either at national, district or school levels (GES, 2011). Furthermore, studies conducted by Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012), Bogaert *et.al.,* (2012), Dampson (2011 & 2012) and Mensah and Dampson (2013) indicate that the majority of the teachers in Ghanaian basic schools lack full participation in decision issues such as finance, teacher recruitment and long term goals of the school. In addition, Drah (2011) administered 125 questionnaires to teachers and interviewed 25 teachers in the Eastern Region of Ghana and found that 55.2% of the teachers agreed that they were not involved in issues concerning finance, goals of the school and school budgeting. He also established that the majority of the teachers were

only allowed to participate in issues at the classroom level that concerned their teaching and learning.

Another study conducted in Nigeria by Abahunmna (2010) also revealed that the majority of Nigerian head teachers would confine teachers' participation to merely expressing their reaction to a tentative decision already made by the head teacher. A similar opinion had been given by Bush, Abbott, Glover, Goddall and Smith (2010) that the average extent of teacher's participation ranges from none to taking part sometimes. Abahunmna (2010) added that the current level of teacher's participation in decision-making at Adama seems relatively very low in overall decision categories. This confirms Duze (2011) findings when she established that head teachers still monopolise decision-making in Nigerian schools despite literature stressing the benefits derived from participatory decision-making. On the contrary, Olorunsola and Olayemi (2011) found high teachers' participation in decision-making in some selected secondary schools in Ekiti state in Nigeria. These and other findings (Ndu and Anagbogu, 2007; Okoye, 1997) raise the issue of variability of findings in teacher participation in school decision-making.

In addition to the above, Wadesango (2011) underlines that head teachers in secondary schools in Zimbabwe claim that they do not consult their staff members because they believe that over involvement of teachers in decision-making process can be a sign of inability to run a school and that they prefer consulting the assistant head teacher or a senior member on staff for advice and support. This attitude, Wadesango (2011) argues, has led to a decline in staff morale and, consequently, school improvement. Likewise, Dampson (2011) and Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012) found similarities between the situation in Zimbabwe and Ghana. However, the available literature within the Ghanaian context on teacher participation in school decision-making indicates that the majority of the basic school teachers are participating at the classroom or individual levels where they are confined to making decisions concerning teaching and learning in their classrooms (Prew and Quaigrain, 2010; Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Agebure, 2013; Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012).

The available literature indicate that teachers within Ghana and other African countries are participating, to varying degrees, at three levels (individual, committee/group and school) of school decision-making suggested by Somech (2010). The literature further indicates that the majority of the teachers in Ghana and other African countries are participating at the individual/classroom level where teachers are consulted and make decisions relating to their own classroom performance, such as choice of teaching materials, teaching schedule and student performance. The literature also revealed that at the second level of school participation, which is the group/committee participation, some teachers were found participating in issues relating to subject panel, co-curriculum activities and student discipline. At the third level of school participation, which according to Somech (2010) is referred to as the school level, the review of the literature in Ghana and other African countries established that only few teachers participated in the goals of the school, school budget, admission policy, teacher and pupils recruitment, and development and training.

However, regardless of these revelations in teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghana and other African countries, studies have shown that explicitly or implicitly PDM carries an expectation of school improvement and outcomes, because it is considered instrumental in achieving productivity, efficiency, innovation or other valued school results (Lam, Chen, and Schaubroeck, 2002; Somech, 2010; Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Harris, 2012).

Theoretically, Somech (2010) contends that PDM promote teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly, Somech argues that it thought to improve the quality of educational decision-making by giving administrators access to critical information close to the source of the problems of schooling, namely the classroom. In addition, Tschannen-Moran (2001) argues that the participation process helps to ensure that unanticipated problems that arise during work can be tackled directly and immediately by those affected by the problem. Furthermore, because teachers have an opportunity to be involved in and to exert influence on decision-making process, Hoy and Tarter (1993 & 2010) believes that teachers' participation increases the willingness to

implement school policies, hence promoting school improvement. Indirect benefits have generally according to De Dreu (2006) has been higher levels of teacher morale and job satisfaction, manifested in less absence and tardiness as well as reduced interpersonal conflicts, which in turn may raise level of performance.

Nonetheless, Harris (2012) points out that involving teachers in decision-making improves schools as a study of teacher leadership conducted in England found positive relationship between the degree of teachers' involvement in decision making and student efficacy. In addition, Hallinger and Heck (2010) also found out that while decision-making is a factor to school improvement, distributed leadership is crucial co-effect of school improvement processes. Similarly, research by Day *et al.,* (2001) found that substantial leadership distribution was very important to a school's success in improving pupil outcomes. Leithwood *et al.,* (2010) remind us that in today's context of school improvement, good leadership quality is a vital tool if schools are to improve. They stressed that current evidence from research in school-level leaders; especially heads, deputy heads or their equivalent have demonstrated that successes of school improvement evolve from good leadership. Leithwood *et al.,* findings is consistent with the findings of Prew and Quaigrain (2010) who revealed in their study that the main difference between an improved and unimproved basic school in Ghana lie within the quality of (distributed leadership) the head teacher/leader in post. Harris (2012) also added that if distributed leadership implies sharing of power, then decision-making is premised on the broad-base of involvement of staff in decision-making and straight forward planning, then the role of the head teacher has to change. The changed or redefined head teacher's role will be chiefly concerned with creating the conditions for others to lead rather than leading from the front.

The organisational literature reveals that most studies conducted within the African context have lauded PDM as the best approach to school improvement and policy implementation (Lewis and Naidoo, 2004; Oduro, 2007; Bush, 2006; Dampson, 2010; Prew and Quaigrain, 2010; Wadesango, 2011) in African schools. However, Travaglione and Marshall (2006) argue that empirically

based studies demonstrating that PDM actually improves schools and teacher outcomes remain inconclusive. Furthermore, most research, mainly conducted in the developed countries reported moderately positive relationships between PDM and certain outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover (Somech, 2010; Amstrong, 2004; Bush, 2006; Travaglione and Marshall, 2006). However, in Ghana and other African countries, the researcher believes that these positive relationships are yet to be achieved (Dampson, 2011 & 2010).

On the other hand, various researchers (Aryee and Chen, 2006; Careless, 2004; Probst, 2005) have ignored the potential negative impacts of PDM on well-being. Studies (e.g., Dwyer and Fox, 2000; Javis, 2002; Sato *et al.,* 2002) points out that job enlargement could be a source of stress that leads to additional strain. For example, Haimovich (2006) found that teachers who evaluated PDM as threatening showed deterioration in their well-being and health, whereas teachers perceiving PDM as challenging evinced improvement in theirs.

Reviewing the educational literature on PDM, Smylie, Lazarus, and Brownlee-Conyers (1996) suggested three explanations for lack of consistent and conclusive evidence about PDM. First they noted that the wide variety of structures, foci, and process that characterize participative incentives yielded very different outcomes. Second, concerning the level of implementation, even the best designed participative structures are not likely to achieve their anticipated outcomes unless they are well executed over a substantial period of time and are provided with adequate resources. Third, a relatively small proportion of the educational literature employed systematic empirical investigations, either quantitative or qualitative with identifiable questions for inquiry, specified methodologies, and collection and analysis of original data. In addition, Smylie *et al.,* suggested that the effect of PDM might be criterion dependent.

As a result of the inconsistency in findings with regard to PDM and teachers, and with the paucity of literature available within the Ghanaian context, the

researcher believes that it is justifiable to conduct a study in Ghana to explore the current levels teacher participation in decisions in relation to the four dimensions of school governance such goals, management, curriculum and instruction and staff development in order to bridge the gap between literature and present understanding of both school governance and policy implementation.

2.3 Factors Influencing Teacher Participation in the Decision-Making Process

A review of literature on teacher participation in school decision-making processes points to some factors that play a role in determining the extent and the manner in which teachers can be involved in school decision-making processes. Some of these factors are organisational trust, teacher motivation, decisional zones, teacher empowerment, past experiences and individual differences (Somech, 2010, Oduro, 2007; Anderson, 2002; Lee *et al.,* 1999; Jennings and Wattam, 1998; Johnson and Kruse, 2009; Blasé and Blasé, 2001; Hoy and Tarter, 2010). As per the aims of the study, these factors are important not only for how the study was designed, but also for understanding how teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors make sense of TPSDM. These factors are reviewed in more details in the next subsections.

2.3.1 Organisational Trust

According to Giddens (1999), trust is analyzed in two categories: trust among individuals, and trust in abstract systems. In its broadest meaning, organisational trust is the dispositional beliefs that employees have for their organisations (Zaheer, 1998). Organisational trust also reflects the perceptions of an employee related to the support provided by the organisation (Mishra and Morrissey, 1990). Taylor (1989) points out that organisational trust is a phenomenon developed through harmonious behaviour based on mutual respect and courtesy, and is realised over time. This implies that for head teachers to develop organisational trust among teachers, they must respect

and give teachers the due courtesy and vice versa.

Newcombe, McCormick and Sharpe (1997) conceptualise trust in financial context, as integrity, consistency and fairness of the decision makers and the decision-making process; the expertise of the decision maker; the effectiveness of the process; and the degree of disclosure of financial information. This implies that head teachers and teachers who work together ought to have a trusting work relationship because if they do not trust one another, they are not likely to disclose information openly to each other. The issues of transparency, openness, accountability and democracy are some of the factors that influence organisational trust in most Ghanaian basic schools (Dampson, 2010; Bogaert *et al.,* 2012). These factors are aimed at ensuring trust and faith in all educational institutions. The implication is that head teachers who work with teachers within educational institutions must have trust in each other, in order for them to be able to ensure proper teacher participation in school decision-making. Newcombe *et al.,* (1997) point out that the desire to be involved or not to be involved in the decision-making may stem from lack of trust in the decision makers and the decision-making processes.

In addition, Newcombe and McCormick (2001) suggest that the challenge for school head teachers is to establish an environment of trust through the implementation of a process based on integrity, openness, consistency, fairness and professional approach to decision-making processes. Despite these suggestions, Newcombe *et al.,* (1997) further noted that in circumstances where participative decision-making is based on full disclosure of information there is an absence of perceived bias in the decision-making process and implementation of the decision resulting from collaborative process.

Collaboration and trust takes place between autonomous partners who choose whether or not to participate and therefore, it is unlikely that collaboration will develop without at least a measure of trust having been established. Tschannen-Moran (2004) further stated that collaboration involves the investment on time and energy, as well as the sharing of resources,

responsibilities and rewards and, that this is difficult without trust. Building trust, according to Tschannen-Moran require attention to the five facets of trust. A person who desires to be regarded to be trustworthy will need to demonstrate benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty and openness. However, studies have demonstrated that due to the lack of skills and knowledge of basic school head teachers, they find it difficult to demonstrate benevolence, competency, honesty and openness which hinders teacher PDM (Dampson, 2010; Bogaret *et al.,* 2012; Agebure, 2013).

2.3.2 Teacher Motivation

Internationally, a plethora of research on teacher motivation (e.g., Agezo, 2010; Cogneau, 2003; Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2011; Sargent and Hannum, 2005) found that teacher motivation is associated with student learning outcomes. In a cross-country analysis of the relationship between teacher motivation and pupils performance, Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez (2011) observed that countries with poor records of teacher motivation have low teacher performance leading to poor educational outcomes.

In the field of education, motivation may mean different things to different people depending its application. Velez (2007) conceptualises motivation as an inspiration or encouragement of a person to do his or her best. Snowman, Mcown and Biehler (2008), however, define motivation as the forces that lead to the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behaviour. In their view, teacher motivation is a concept that assists us in understanding why teachers behave the way they do. Motivation to teach, according them, is "a complex construct easier to define than to understand. Motivation is not observed directly but rather inferred from the teacher's behavioural indexes such as verbalisations, task choices, and goal directed activities" (p. 569).

According to Bennell (2004), teacher motivation are all the psychological processes that influence their behaviour towards the achievement of educational goals and yet these psychological processes cannot be observed directly due to many organisational and environmental challenges that affect

the achievement of educational goals. Measuring the determinants and consequences of teachers' motivation to work is therefore difficult. However, there are two important aspects of motivation that are inter-related. They are; "will-do" and "can do", and 'will-do' motivation is "the extent to which an individual has adopted the organisation's goals and objectives. On the other hand, 'can-do' motivation focuses on the factors that influence the capacity of individuals to realize organisational goals" (Bennell, 2004, p.8).

Two main types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic types are commonly used in the literature. Intrinsic factors are those which come from within a person whereas extrinsic motivation are those which are determined basically by the level and type of external rewards that are available (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). However, Claeys (2011) identifies a third factor and calls it altruistic. She defines altruistic factor as "a love for and desire to work with children and/or young persons, and an inclination to serve society" (p.4). Although extrinsic factors like higher remuneration and good working conditions "tend to attract the most attention, attempts to improve the substance of teachers' work, such as improvement of teaching materials or in-service training, can also be significant incentives" (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007, p. 4).

Additionally, literature on extrinsic teacher motivation are many and varied, however, the most commonly cited are attractive remuneration, student discipline, good working conditions, favourable educational policies and high occupational status (Agebure, 2013; Salifu and Agbenyega, 2013; Agezo, 2010; Bennell and Akeampong, 2007).

Intrinsic motivators, on the other hand, are the "internal desires for personal and professional development and working in educational settings" (Claeys, 2011, p. 4). Similarly, Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) also define intrinsic motivation as that which comes from within a person. Research (Ghana National Association of Teachers & Teachers and Education Workers Union of Trade Union Congress, 2009; Hanushek, *et al.,* 1999; Smithers and Robinson, 2003) have established that generally, females are more likely to be

intrinsically motivated to stay in the teaching profession than men. Also, younger teachers have lesser motivation to teach and are more likely to leave the profession than older teachers. Affirming the relationship between motivation and teacher participation in decision-making, Dampson and Mensah (2010) observed that teachers in the Sekondi-Takoradi of Ghana were not satisfied with their job because they lacked both extrinsic and altruistic motivation to do their job.

In order to ensure a good relationship between employers and employees, the general working conditions of the latter must be improved with their remuneration necessarily reflecting market conditions. Also, institutions of learning must provide facilities for teaching and learning that will enhance and entice teachers to stay and be dedicated to the profession.

2.3.3 Decisional Zones

Hoy and Tarter (2004) claim that head teachers find it difficult to motivate teachers because the majority do not have the expertise to know how and when to involve teachers in school decisions. However, they believe that it would be unrealistic and unproductive to expect school head teachers to involve teachers in every school decision, especially those that relates to school financial management. They developed a normative model of shared decision-making. This model is based on two rules. The first rule has to do with whether or not the teacher has a personal stake in the decision. The second rule has to do with whether or not the teacher has the expertise to contribute in the decision. This means that subordinates may want to be involved in an area or issue because they have the expertise or personal stake in the decision. This model advocates extensive teacher involvement in the decision in which teachers have personal stake and or expertise.

This model provides school head teachers with a tool that they can use to decide on which decisions to involve teachers and how. In a school setting where a decision falls outside the teachers' "zone of acceptance", involving them in that decision will increase the likelihood that the decision will be

accepted (Tschannen-Moran, 2004). In instances where a teacher has the expertise but no stake in that particular decision, teachers can be asked to share that expertise as a consultant, but full involvement in the decision may not be necessary (Hoy and Tarter, 2010 & 2011). This model is very important for head teachers when dealing with financial matters especially the school budget. The budget process entails many items which teachers have both the stake and expertise and some may have neither of the two. Regardless of the influential role the decisional zone play in teacher participation in school decision-making, Hoy and Tarter (2004) argue that for head teachers to be able to apply the decisional zones they must first trust teachers.

2.3.4 Teacher Empowerment

In recent years, the role of head teachers has come to be seen as critical in implementing shared decision-making. It is believed that when head teachers acquire the skills and knowledge in shared decision-making they will be able to motivate teachers and make use of teacher's expertise in school decision-making. Empirical research provides, however, few detailed pictures of the day-to-day dynamics of sharing governance of a school with empowered teachers (Blasé and Blasé, 2001). This implies that for teachers to be able to participate fully in school governance (school decision-making) head teachers should be able to empower teachers to be more fully responsible for work-related decisions.

Bolin (1989) define teacher empowerment as "investing in teachers the right to participate in the determination of school goals and policies and the right to exercise professional judgement about the content of the curriculum and means of instruction" (p.83). Bolin's definition assumes that teaching is fundamentally a moral (value based) activity and, as such, it requires that teachers have expertise to engage in thoughtful deliberations and professional authority to participate meaningfully in decisions about their schools and classrooms. For effective teacher participation in school decision-making it is the duty of the head teacher to embrace the concept of teacher empowerment rather than merely expecting teachers to implement other people's visions for

schools. This will accord teachers respect and dignity and will help them to be more fully responsible for work-related decisions (Blasé and Blasé, 2001).

For teachers to achieve empowerment, Tate (2004) believes that head teachers should regard teachers as concerned citizens, as protectors of the truth, and as participants in the schooling enterprise and be allowed to voice their opinions about educational policies. Barth (2000) however, argues that most head teachers are challenged with the ability to tap teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions and build better educational programs. In addition, Blasé and Blasé (2001) argue that failure in initiating active teacher involvement in decision-making may result, in part, because head teachers lack the particular leadership skills and basic knowledge essential to planning and change in shared decision-making. Moreover, research concludes that many other factors such as failure to focus on achievement, institutional barriers, limit of authority, lack of information, knowledge and rewards are also related to failure to involve teachers in school decision-making by head teachers (Leithwood and Menzies, 1998; Summers and Johnson, 1996).

2.3.5 Past Experiences and Individual Differences

Apart from organisational trust, teacher motivation, decisional zones and teacher empowerment, another factor which is significant to the study with regard to school leadership in basic schools in Ghana, is the past experiences and individual differences of head teachers. This includes the age and socioeconomic status, and a belief in personal relevance of the head teacher.

Within the Ghanaian educational culture and past experiences can have an impact on school decision-making. Juliusson, Karlsson, and Garling (2005) indicate that past decisions influence the decisions people make in the future. It stands to reason that when something positive results from a decision, people are more likely to decide in a similar way, given a similar situation. On the other hand, people tend to avoid repeating past mistakes (Sagi and Friedland, 2007). This is significant to the extent that future decisions made based on

past experiences are not necessarily the best decisions. In this regard, head teachers who relied on programme decision-making style tend to repeat mistakes made because many decisions taken in the past might have not been evaluated. It must, however, be noted that although past experience can enable the head teacher to solve problems and make quick and wise decisions in no time, care must be taken as schools have evolved within the last century. It must also be noted that in school financial decision-making, highly successful head teachers do not make investment decisions based on past sunk outcomes, rather they examined the choices with no regard for past experiences; this approach conflicts with what one may expect (Juliusson *et al.,* 2005).

In addition to past experiences, individual differences may also influence school decision-making. Research studies have shown that age, socioeconomic status (SES), and cognitive abilities influences decision-making (Bruine de Bruin, Parker, and Fischoff, 2007; Finucane, Mertz, Slovic, and Schmidt, 2005). Finucane *et al.,* (2005) established a significant difference in decision-making across age; that is, as cognitive functions decline as a result of age, decision-making performance may decline as well. In addition, older people may be more overconfident regarding their ability to make decisions, which inhibits their ability to apply strategies (Bruine de Bruin *et al.,* 2007). Finally, with respect to age, there is evidence to support the notion that older adults prefer fewer choices than younger adults (Reed, Mikels, and Simon, 2008). These suggestions imply that older head teachers will prefer not to involve the majority of the teachers as he/she is overconfident in his/her decisions. However, younger head teachers might prefer involving majority of the teachers as his/her choices are limited.

In another instance Bruine de Bruin *et al.,* (2007) argue that age is only one individual difference that influences head teachers' decision-making. According to de Bruin *et al.,* (2007), the head teacher in lower social economic status (SES) group may have less access to education and resources, which may make them more susceptible to experiencing negative life events, often beyond their control; as a result, low SES head teachers may make poorer decisions, based on past decisions. The implication is that in Ghana where head teachers

are appointed and selected based on experience and long service rather than qualification, where they are ill-prepared and with a remuneration that cannot enable them survive through the month, there is the possibility that head teachers may experience negative life events which may affect them in their decision-making.

2.4 Challenges/Barriers to Teacher Participation in Decision-Making Process

Participative management is believed to be an ideal way of leading and managing any organisation including the school. However, participative management is not easy; it is fraught with challenges which make it difficult for both the leaders and sub-ordinates to work together. It is important that practitioners of participative management should be aware of these challenges so as to develop measures to mitigate their impact. Different barriers have been given with regards to different studies, its context and its location (Duze, 2011; Swanepoel, 2008; Wadesango, 2011). However, the researcher found the following barriers to be more related to the study's context and location. These barriers include the fact that participative management is time consuming, the lack of requisite skills, as well as, the lack of trust and the bureaucratic structure of school management.

2.4.1 Time Consuming

Time is believed to be a very important resource for any organisation (Steyn, 2001). It is against the backdrop of such a view and belief that teacher participation in school decision-making processes can be regarded as time consuming for any head teacher in terms of time management. One of the most documented hindrance to participative management in general (Somech, 2002; Swanepoel, 2008), and financial management in particular (Shortt, 1994; Newcombe and McCormick, 2001) is the fact that it is time-consuming. Other studies in Ghana, Drah (2011), Kenya, Kiprop and Kandie (2012), Nigeria, Duze (2012) and Lewis and Naidoo (2004) in South Africa all found some

element of time as a barrier to teacher participation in school decision-making. Regardless of time being a barrier, Tschannen-Moran (2001) believes that collaborative decision-making has the potential benefit of higher quality decision and greater ownership and implementation of decisions when time is managed well. However he also cautions that it can also be costly in terms of time and energy and that despite such huge investment in time, there is no guarantee that potential benefits will actually be realised.

In an attempt to establish a high level of teacher involvement in decision-making processes, and to promote an image of self-management, some schools have established administrative structures that, in effect, distract the teachers from their primary instructional role; they are encouraged to be involved in a plethora of financial issues ranging from income generation to marketing and long term financial planning (Newcombe, *et. al,* 1997). Such views are also shared by White (1992) when he stated that teacher participation in school decision-making involved a wide array of time-consuming activities, such as meeting to discuss school budget issues, serving on textbook selection committee and fund raising activities. White concludes that if sufficient time is allocated and managed well by head teachers for all these activities, time will not be a barrier to effective participation.

The issue of time is reported to be the reason why some teachers shun participation, because they prefer to stick to their classroom responsibilities. As a result some teachers choose not to participate. A study conducted in South Africa by Lewis and Naidoo (2004) found among other things, that many teachers were not interested in participating in management issues, particularly when it involved extra meetings, and that they like to do their work and leave immediately after school. This finding is consistent with Dampson and Mensah (2010), Drah (2011) and Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012) who also found out that majority of the teachers in the Central, Western and Eastern parts of Ghana see participation in decision-making and other management activities as time wasting. These findings reported that teachers have to cope with increased workload which to them had had effect on their teaching and personal development. This may discourage teachers who may

wish to be part of the decision-making team, but who, due to the work over-load, might find it very difficult to participate in school decision-making processes. However, Dampson (2011) argues that if head teachers manage time effectively; consider teachers views and implement all decisions taken, time will not be an obstruction but will aid teacher participation in school decision-making.

2.4.2 Lack of Requisite Skills and Knowledge

Steyn and Squelch (1997) point out that head teachers' lack the requisite skills and knowledge that will enable teachers to effectively participate in the school decision-making. White (1992) concurs Steyn and Squelch's view by stating that both head teachers and teachers lack the specific training in shared decision-making, school budget, curriculum, as well as, staffing decisions. This situation, according Tschannen-Moran (2001) makes the head teacher feel reluctant to extend genuine influence to teachers, perhaps assuming that they do not have the expertise to make valuable contributions or make decisions in the best interest of the school.

Corroborating the above facts, evidence from current research (Jull *et al.,* 2012; Mensah and Dampson, 2013; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008; Oduro, 2009; Bush and Oduro, 2006) indicate that a considerable proportion of teachers and head teachers in some Ghanaian basic schools are not sufficiently qualified, trained or have the required skills and knowledge to lead schools or take part in decision-making processes. In this regard the researcher argues that it is therefore going to be difficult for teachers who are overworked and sometimes regarded as unqualified to accept and embrace the tenets and demands of participative decision-making. In this vein, the researcher shares a similar view with the mentioned scholars that teachers may perhaps, turn away from decision-making because first, they won't be involved and even if they are, their contributions will not be taken into consideration. Secondly, teachers may see it as waste of time, and a cessation of 'power' by authority that is not meant to be shared. However, despite the perception of lack of requisite skills and knowledge, the majority of the teachers in Ghanaian basic schools still

crave for full participation in all school decision-making activities (Drah, 2011; Dampson, 2010 & 2011; Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012).

2.4.3 Lack of Trust

Robinson (1996) defines trust as believing that the other party will not work against him or her and will not stand in the way of his or her interests. Fukuyama (2000) on the other hand sees trust as expectations that arise in societies where the members share common norms, behave honestly and cooperate with each other. In addition, Yilmaz and Kabadayi (2002) describe trust as the beliefs about the unselfishness of the other party, readiness to risk-taking and dependency at a certain level. Regardless of these definitions, studies reveal that the most important discrimination about organisational trust is the distinction between setting ones trust in an individual and in the organisation (Blomqvist, 2005). "Trusting somebody" and "trusting an organisation" are different concepts (Doney and Cannon, 1997). An employee working in an organisation can trust the organisation and the other people in organisation at different levels (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997).

Tschannen-Moran (2001), however, argues that collaboration which is a reciprocal process depends upon and fosters one another. He argues that if school head teachers, parents and teachers do not have trust in one another, especially on issues of school finances, it is apparent that participation will be very minimal. He added that school management is very broad and it is impossible for school head teachers and or the school committees to do everything. In this regard, if there is an element of distrust it will be very hard for school head teachers to share responsibilities and authority with teachers (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Somech (2002 & 2010), however, concurs with such views when she noted that when there is notable mutual trust and loyalty in the exchange relationship, subordinates are provided with more responsibility and discretion. Somech further points out that, teachers experiencing the reciprocal trust characteristics of high-quality exchanges with their immediate supervisors tend to appreciate the opportunity to participate, which in turn foster their job satisfaction and performance which leads to school

improvement. Somech (2010), however, argues that when teachers experiencing low-quality exchanges with their immediate supervisors, which are characterized by top-down influence, restricted support, and more formal and limited interactions, might be less content with such an opportunity to participate.

2.4.4 Bureaucratic Structures of School Management

The bureaucratic structure of school management is also a hindrance to authentic participation (Steyn, 2001). In Ghana for example, the bureaucratic nature of schools has made it difficult for head teachers to effectively involve teachers in all aspects of school decision-making (Dampson, 2010 & 2011). In bureaucratically structured schools, Somech (2002 & 2010) argues that significant decisions about strategy, policy and organising mode may lie outside the arena of participation. The inability to create flatter management structure is believed to militate against authentic management. Such views are echoed by Wiggins (2004) when she stated that the increased emergence of participative management in schools reflects the wide shared believe that flatter management and decentralised authority structures carry the potential for achieving outcomes unattainable by the traditional top-down bureaucratic school.

Bush (2003) believes that participative management is at the discretion of the school head teacher, because of his or her official position and as a person accountable to external bodies. Collaboration usually takes the form of delegation and is thus a gift of a head teacher (Poo and Hoyle, 1995). In this regard it has become very easy for some Ghanaian basic school head teachers who believe they are accountable only to external bodies to justify the non-involvement of teachers by citing their official position as a deliberate excuse. The researcher therefore believes that such perceptions and comments by head teachers discourage teachers from genuinely participating in decision-making, which in turn creates conflicts and tension among head teachers and teachers (Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2009; Esia-Donkoh, 2014).

There has always been a resistance by school head teachers to create a flatter management structure; this, sometimes, is attributed to the fear of losing power (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). This view is also shared by Oduro (2007), Drah (2011) and Dampson (2010) who also found that some of the head teachers in some Ghanaian basic schools feel that their position becomes threatened when teachers become empowered. They feel like their own power will diminish. Perhaps, this belief held by some basic school head teachers in Ghana have become an attitude and practice used by them to safeguard their position and job, and to deliberately refuse to involve teachers in all aspects of school decision-making.

Similarly, Esia-Donkoh (2014) argues that the bureaucratic system held by schools has created confusion and conflict among teachers, head teachers and school committees as power is always held by authority, and this situation, to a large extent serves as a barrier to teacher PSDM.

2.5 Stakeholders' Involvement and Decision-Making

The term "stakeholders" has become fashionable in many countries, including Ghana. The term is based on the assumption that certain groups and individuals have an interest, or a "stake" in the activities of an institution. According to Bush and Heystek (2003a) the stakeholders are all those people who have a legitimate interest in the continuing effectiveness and success of an institution. In contextualizing this definition, one gets a picture of an ideal situation where various stakeholders in a school setting (parents, teachers, learners and the head teacher) come together and make decisions in pursuit of a common interest. This reform in decision-making approaches followed by schools presents a challenge for head teachers in terms of their skills and capacities as they have to adopt more collaborative and inclusive decision-making processes. Research into the ever-changing school environment and the changes experienced by head teachers clearly shows that there is now a far greater focus on head teachers' interpersonal skills and capabilities, since head teachers are now required to lead the whole school community while

facilitating participation and collaboration among stakeholders in decision-making, planning and budgeting, their leadership skills and capacities are critical (Cranston, 2001; Jackson, 2000; Williams and Portin, 1997).

Day *et al.,* (2001) further noted that the majority of activities to be implemented by head teachers involve collaborative decision-making and that this demands sound interpersonal skills such as negotiation, conflict resolution, persuasion and collaboration needs to be acquired by the head teacher. In addition, Jackson (2000) points out that head teachers need continually and increasingly to involve staff in collective decision-making as key aspects of their job, and emphasise the importance of consultation, collective decision-making and delegated responsibility. It is clear that nowadays there are marked changes in the roles and responsibilities of head teachers when they used to be the main (often only) decision-maker in schools in Ghana and other African countries. Scholars in the field of school leadership and stakeholder's involvement underscore the importance of facilitative leadership by school head teachers (Jackson, 2000; Day *et al.,* 2001; Cranston, 2001). Head teachers have to initiate, implement and sustain viable forms of teacher empowerment and shared decision-making at school level.

Blasé and Blasé (2001) point out the need to think in terms of notions of "power with" and "power through" rather than the more traditional hierarchical "power over" notion that probably most closely aligns with how head teachers operated in the past. One may conclude that the success of PDM has much to do with the readiness of the head teachers to share power and his/her ability to establish the processes to make PDM works.

In addition, Somech (2002, p.343) notes that, "Leaders must be willing to let go of traditional authority roles, not only allowing teachers to have a greater voice but helping to prepare them, providing support and establishing an environment of trust." Acker-Hocevar and Touchton (1999, p.26) hold a similar view when they stated that, "head teachers must know how to create conditions that foster empowerment and release their control over other stakeholders, alter their roles, and engender commitment, trust, and respect."

In all, it is perceived that the role stakeholders play in school decision-making cannot be taken for granted if schools are to improve.

Mulford, Kendall, Kendall, Bishop and Hogan (2000) established among primary schools in Tasmania that stakeholder's participation in decision-making processes should not be taken for granted as perceived by head teachers, teachers and school council members. Their findings seem to suggest that all the stakeholders (teachers, parents and learners) need to be engaged in real decisions about teaching and learning in the school if real improvement in education is to be achieved. Other studies of shared governance, such as those by Karlsson (2002) and Mncube (2007) point towards the same understanding.

2.6 Summary of Chapter 2

The related literature reviewed is convincing that teacher participation in school decision-making may improve schools. However, the current trends illustrated in this chapter shows a paucity of literature in Ghana and other African countries, while there is availability of rich and in-depth information within Europe and the United States of America. Regardless of the paucity of available literature within Ghana and the rest of the African countries, the current and past available literature indicate that the majority of the teachers in Ghana and the rest of Africa are not fully participating in school decision-making despite its invaluable benefits. The majority of the teachers in Ghana for example were found to be participating at the classroom level where they were mainly concerned with teaching and learning. The available literature further shows that the majority of the head teachers in Ghana perceive their teachers as unskilled and unqualified to be involved in the administrative issues like budgeting, finance, teacher recruitment and long term goals of the school. However sad this might be, the researcher believes that regular training of head teachers and teachers perhaps might be one of the numerous solutions to teacher participation in school decision-making, hence school improvement. It is also believed that the success of school improvement in Ghana might perhaps be the beginning of full and effective teacher PDM.

CHAPTER 3
THEORECTICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

Decision-making serves as an important conflict resolution tool, allowing the members of the school environment to work out their differences before the educational process is hampered and student learning diminished (Nye and Capelluti, 2003). Although often difficult, decision-making provides a process that may assist in reconciling individual needs and organizational goals (Hoy and Miskel, 2005). Johnson and Kruse (2009) and Owens (2008) add to this explanation by describing decision-making as the heart of the organisation and administration. According to Hoy and Tarter (2004) decision-making reinforces norms and support changes within organisations.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 was guided by the aims, objectives and the research questions of the study. The literature was generated from critical evaluation and interpretation of various works in the field of Education Administration and Leadership, business management and other disciplines such as psychology and sociology. The literature review was set out to identify the key issues in the field that were relevant to the study.

The theoretical framework for this study was structured based on the research questions the study sought to investigate; the purpose of the research and the research paradigms and principles adopted by the study. In addition, the ontologies and epistemologies which underpin the study were considerable factors in structuring the framework for the study. In this chapter the models and theories discussed were focused on educational settings, yet comprehensive in its coverage of relevant issues concerning school decision-making and teacher participation. Furthermore, the theories and models establish and justify the focus of the research by presenting arguments and counter-arguments about decision-making and teacher participation.

3.1 Definition of Decision-Making

The term decision-making still lacks a clear and unanimous definition and thus the concept remains surrounded in confusion (Sagie and Aycan, 2003; Somech, 2002). An assumption evident in much of the literature is that the decision construct is a shared piece of tacit and uncontested knowledge. The ambiguity of the term 'decision' makes it seem commonplace (O'Sullivan, 2011). According to O'Sullivan (2011) decisions are often described and understood as conscious deliberate choices made by an individual at the end of a process conventionally assumed to be of a rational nature.

Hoy and Tarter (2010) from their rational paradigm perspective saw decision-making as "rational, deliberative, purposeful action, beginning with the development of a decision strategy and moving through implementation and appraisal of results" (p. 124) which they claim is common to all organisations. Barret, Balloud and Wiensten (2005) also explained their conception of decision-making as the process of "using critical thinking skills to optimize a decision" (p.214). Barret *et al.,* definition seem to echo the common normative conception in the literature of decision-making as a rational problem solving process.

Johnson and Kruse (2009) on the other hand perceived decision-making as a key process or activity in an organisation and what leaders 'do'. They believe "decision-making lies at the heart of managerial behaviour in all organisations" (p.26). They further argue that decision-making is an important construct for all members of organisations to define themselves, their roles and their expectations for each other because people in organisations tend to think and act in terms of decision-making.

Other scholars such as Adair (2004), Mulford *et al.,* (2000), Bush (2007) and Wadesango (2011) attributed decision-making to choice, sufficiently reducing uncertainty, leadership and action oriented towards a specific goal. Both from individual as well as educational organisation perspective decision-making is seen an important activity for successful school improvement.

According to Moorhead and Griffin (2004), decision-making is a choice between alternatives. They argue, that decision-making can be regarded as an outcome of mental processes (cognitive processes: memory, thinking, evaluation) leading to the selection of a course of action among several alternatives which involves mapping the likely consequences of decisions, working out the importance of individual factors, and choosing the best course of action to take. In the decision-making process, Moorhead and Griffin remind us that the decision maker's actions are always guided by a goal and each of the several alternative courses of action is also linked to various outcomes. They believe that information should be available on the alternatives, on the value of each outcome relative to the goal. The decision maker therefore chooses an alternative on the basis of his/her evaluation of the information available to him/her.

Scott and Bruce (1995) comprehensive concept on decision-making was based on the work of other researchers such as Driver (1979). According to Scott and Bruce (1995, p.820) decision-making is "the learned habitual response pattern exhibited by an individual when confronted with a decision situation". This suggests that behaviours of head teachers and teachers are instrumental in making decisions. It also implies that head teachers decision-making styles are built and developed based on their behaviours and past experiences.

In summary, although difficult to define, decision-making consist of several steps to uncover what to do and why a decision is made. A decision maker should consider a wide range of inputs from other people in the process of decision-making. It is assumed that including more people, who may not only have information, but rich experience would result in a more effective decision-making because information from vast number of people can yield a positive decision. Thus, the participation of employee and therefore teachers in the decision-making process is important.

3.2 Definition of Participation and Participative Decision-Making

Participative decision-making (PDM) is closely related to participative management. It is a more general term that refers to sharing decision by authority among stakeholders in a given context (Duke, 2005). Duke's conceptualisation of participative decision-making is consistent with the views about participative management, which assume that participative is a strategy.

Armstrong (2006), however, defines participative decision-making as the inclusion of the employees in the decision-making process of the organisation. Armstrong believes that when employees are involved in decision-making, staff absenteeism is reduced, there is greater organisational commitment, improved performance, reduced turnover and greater job satisfaction.

In a narrow and rigid sense, participative decision-making can be viewed as individual participation in the process of school management (Ho, 2010). According to Somech (2010, p.42) participative decision-making "is totally of forms, i.e. direct (personal) or indirect (through representatives or institutions) and of intensities; i.e., ranging from minimal to comprehensive, by which individuals, groups, collectives secure their interest or contribute to the choice process through self-determined choices among possible actions during the decision process". Somech's definition seeks to clarify the form in which stakeholders can participate and in issues that stakeholders should participate in, whereas Ho's definition looks at participation as an individual activity. However, while Ho's definition is limited to individuality Duke's and Somech's definition conceptualized both individual and collective levels of participation which the researcher believes fit well into this study.

In defining participative decision-making, Lewis and Naidoo (2004) noted that at a basic level, it simply means sharing or taking part in the decision that is in one's interest. They argue that in practice it tends to be highly controversial because by its nature, participation is political as it relates to how groups and individuals are empowered to have control over their lives. Their view is shared by Carrim and Sayed (1999) when they argued that the notion of participation

is currently in vogue, everybody is talking about the word and for many it is naturally good thing and something that is highly desirable. However, according to Ife and Tesoriero (2006) participation is the range from the 'means' to being an 'end'. This implies that participation becomes a means when it is used to achieve some predetermined goal, utilising existing resources to achieve the set of objectives of a programme. However, participation as an end attempts to empower people to participate in their own development more meaningfully and to increase the role of people in development initiatives.

Wilcox (2001, p.2) notes that "people are committed when they want to achieve something, apathetic when they don't". According to Wilcox, understanding participation involves understanding the ability of different institutions to achieve what they want. He stressed that people are empowered when they have the ability and expertise to achieve what they want. He concluded that participation does not just happen; it develops through a process starting from initiation, through participation, and participation to continuation. In this process Wilcox argues that the school head teacher has a strong position to share how much or how little control to give to others.

Drawing from the above views, participation is about providing individuals and groups the opportunity to participate fully in the decision-making process from the formulation to the implementation of the decision (Stoker, 1997). Stoker argues that participation will be achieved when teachers are allowed to take part in the implementation of decisions where their voices will be heard and actions taken into consideration.

3.3 The Decision-Making Process

As seen in the preceding section, the process by which people impact on decision-making is really important. According to Nutt (2008), decision-making process involves action-taking steps indicating how to make and arrive at a decision. Johnson and Kruse (2009) however, argue that the making of decisions happens in complex and contingent social systems, involving diverse

constituencies, ranging from routine administrative work to value laden dilemmas, which is subject to numerous and conflicting demands is people intensive. With reference to available literature scholars such as Nutt (2008), Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter (2009) and DuBrin, Ireland and William (1989) argue that the decision-making process begins with the identification of a problem, followed by a logical procedure to the evaluation of the problem. In most cases, these and other scholars identify five to seven cycles of decision-making processes. This implies that decision-making process is cyclical because at the evaluation stage it is argued that further problems might evolve thus making leaders continue identifying the emerging problem/s. In contrast, Daft (1994) suggests that problems that occur frequently with a great deal of certainty are handled by rules, specific policies and standards operating procedures of the organisation making it unnecessary to develop and evaluate alternatives each time these situation occur. This suggestion by Daft implies that not all decision-making process follow the cyclical nature proposed by the mentioned scholars. From the on-going discussions it implies that there are different types of decisions which need to be taken. Some are routine decision-making which are supported by established rules, policies and cultural norms. Others, on the other hand, are more strategic in nature and therefore respond to short, mid and long term goals of the schools. These types are discussed in the next section.

Figure 3.1 (page 45) depicts how scholars share similar views on decision-making process. The figure (3.1) shows similarities between Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter (2009) and DuBrin, Ireland, and William (1989). Figure 3.1 summarises two decision-making processes commonly used and referred in the literature of this study. In summary, scholars such as Robbins *et al.,* (2009), Hoy and Tarter (2004), O'Sullivan (2011) and Nutt (2008) share the view that the decision-making process is cyclical which starts from identification of the problem to the evaluation of the decision.

Figure 3.1 Decision-Making Process by Robbins *et al*., (2009) and DuBrin *et al*.,

(1989)

Robbins *et al*., (2009)	DuBrin *et al*., (1989)
Identification of problem	Become aware of the problem
Identification of decision criteria	Define the problem
Allocation of weights to criteria	Establish decision criteria
Development of alternatives	Development alternative solutions
Analysis of alternatives	Analysis the data
Selection of alternatives	Describe/take action
Implementation of altern	
Evaluation of decision eff	

Style: **Autocratic** – you make the decision and inform others of it.
There are two separate processes for decision making in an autocratic style:
Autocratic 1(A1) – you use the information you already have and make the decision
Autocratic 2 (A2) – you ask team members for specific information and once you have it, you make the decision. Here you don't necessarily tell them what the information is needed for.

Style: **Consultative** – you gather information from the team and other and then make the decision.

Process: *Consultative 1 (C1)* – you inform team members of what you doing and may individually ask opinions, however, the group is not brought together for discussion. You make the decision.
Consultative 2 (C2) – you are responsible for making the decision, however, you get together as a group to discuss the situation, hear other perspectives, and solicit suggestions.

Style: **Collaborative** – you and your team work together to reach a consensus.

Process: *Group (G2)* – The team makes a decision together. Your role is mostly facilitative and you help the team come to a final decision that everyone agrees on.

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3.4 Types of Decisions

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or the organisation, will be
deemed of little or no signifi

According to Lee *et al.,* (1999) when individuals make decisions they first clarify the nature and relative importance of a problem, and thus the nature of the decision will determine the way in which an individual attempts to deal with the problem. This situation occurs because some decisions; (a) are not regular in occurrences; (b) have more than one possible outcome (c) are inclusive of factors external to the individual (d) are too complex for one person to deal with and (e) are important while others are not. However, they suggested that "in making decisions whether as a private individual or as an employee requires consideration of the listed points in order for an effective – that is, optimum decisions to be made" (p.52).

It has been argued that the way in which an individual approaches a decision may be determined by the availability of time, the extent to which others are or can be involved in the decision process, and the nature of the decision (Simon, 1960; Lee *et al.,* 1999; Shahzad *et al.,* 2010). In this connection, Simon (1960) and Jennings and Wattam (1998, p.3) and Shahzad *et al.,* (2010, p.401) put forward that decisions could be classified as either 'programmed' or 'non-programmed'

Simon (1960), Jennings and Wattam (1998) and Shahzad, Ali, Hukamdad, Ghazi, Khan (2010) share the view that programmed decisions are routine and repetitive and can be dealt through the use of specific handling of methods and procedures. A programmed decision may, for example, involve the way in which pupils are enrolled in a school, disciplined or teachers are promoted. This can be classified as routine decision and therefore dealt with in a routine and standard way determined by guidelines. In contrast non-programmed decisions are one-off occurrences and may also be less structured (Simon, 1960 and Shahzad *et al.,* 2010). When redesigning the school curriculum, for example, to what extent should core subjects be dominant than elective subjects? If such situation has not occurred before, the head teacher faced with such a decision would not have any guidelines to operate by. Such decisions are obviously more difficult to deal with and will be more problematic for those concerned with the decision. Distinguishing programmed from non-programmed decisions, Simons (1960) summarises the characteristics of both

decisions shown in figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2 Programmed versus Non-Programmed Decisions

Characteristics	Programmed decisions	Non-programmed decisions
Type of problem	Structured	Unstructured
Managerial level	Lower levels	Upper levels
Frequency	Repetitive, routine	New, unusual
Information	Readily available	Ambiguous or incomplete
Goals	Clear, specific	Vague
Time frame for solution	Short	Relative long
Solution relies on	Procedures, rules, policies	Judgement and creativity

Source: Robbins *et al.,* (2009, p.227)

Making reference from figure 3.2, it is clear that programmed decisions are relatively clear-cut and depend on previous solutions because the problems faced are structured which are straightforward, familiar and easily defined. In contrast, the reality of any non-programmed decision-making situation is that there is certainly no such thing as perfect knowledge all alternatives cannot be known, outcomes cannot be predicted with any degree of certainty and objectives may not be perfectly clear to all concerned. This is because in reality, non-programmed decisions can and will be affected by range of factors that will impact upon the individuals making the decision. According to Lee *et al.,* (1999) these factors may range from organisational expectations, individual expectations, motivation, experience, and ability through to the organisational constraints and beliefs.

In summary, programmed and non-programmed decisions must, however, be regarded as being at the opposite ends of a continuum, in that a whole range of decisions may in fact be a combination of the two. However, some decisions are straightforward and can be dealt with easily without much thought and

consultations. Other decisions that are more complex, and by definition non-programmed which requires greater consideration because of the range of factors that will influence the way in which an individual deals with such a problem.

3.5 Decision-Making Styles

A school head teacher might choose an appropriate decision-making style that suits his/her followers and the situation confronting him/her. Schermerhorn (1993) believes that individuals may adopt one of these styles:

- *Problem seeker* – someone who actively seeks problems
- *Problem solver* – someone who solves problems
- *Problem avoider* – someone who avoids and/or ignores problem-relevant situation.

Schermerhorn (1993) points out that the attitude of an individual towards involvement in decision-making will depend on the psychological orientation towards active problem solving. For example, it is assumed that a problem seeker may therefore not always seek solutions to a problem if the process and/or the perceived outcomes may cause, for example a high level of cognitive dissonance, which is psychological disruptive within the individual caused by actions that are not in line with his/her beliefs.

Robbins (1995), however, believes that four decision styles can be identified that relate an individual's 'way of thinking' to 'tolerance of ambiguity:

- *Directive* – low tolerance for ambiguity and a rational way of thinking
- *Analytical* – high tolerance for ambiguity and a rational way of thinking
- *Conceptual* – high tolerance for ambiguity and an intuitive way of thinking
- *Behavioural* – low tolerance for ambiguity but an acceptance of intuitions

These four styles according to Lee *et al.,* (1999) are based on decisions being

related to the way in which an individual thinks; that is rationality set the use of intuition, and the desire for consistency and logical order set against inconsistency (ambiguity) of information and ideas. Lee *et al.,* further argue that the greater an individual's desire to be rational, the more that individual will seek to be entirely objective. However, it is believed among scholars (Schermerhorn, 1993; Lee *et al.,* 1999; Robbins, 1995; Simon, 1960; Shahzad *et al.,* 2010) that the very nature of the decision and the context within which the decision is made will determine the style adopted.

In addition, Lee *et al.,* (1999) remind us that the individual do not conform neatly to a particular style of decision-making. In reality, they pointed out that individuals have dominant tendencies that influence their style of decision-making. They, however, argue that individual's perception of the context may be the final determinant of a decision style to be used.

In addition to the types of decision-making discussed, Hoy and Tarter (2004) listed 5 decision-making styles that are commonly associated with shared decision-making:

- *Autocratic decision-making style*: The leader solves the problem unilaterally using the available information.

- *Informed-autocratic decision-making style*: The leader solves the problem unilaterally after obtaining necessary information from subordinates. Subordinates may or may not be told the purpose, but they do not play a role in either defining the problem or generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

- *Individual-consultative decision-making style*: The leader share the problem with subordinates, solicit their ideas individually without forming a group. The leader makes the decision, which may or may not reflect the influence of subordinates.

- *Group-consultative decision-making style*: The leader shares the problem with the group and solicits their ideas and suggestions. He/she

then makes the decision which may or may not reflect the influence of subordinates.

- *Group-agreement decision-making style*: The leader shares the problem with the group and together generates and evaluates alternatives in an attempt to reach consensus. The leader also acts as the chair of the group, but does not press the group to accept his/her solution. The leader is willing to accept and implement any group solution.

Hoy and Tarter (2004), however, cautioned leaders to be very careful when adopting any of the styles. They further added that leaders need to solicit ideas from subordinates who have expertise, skills and knowledge regarding the problem to be solved before making a decision.

3.6 Leadership and Decision–Making

Yukl (2013, p.17) noted that "the term leadership connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from atop gleaming skyscrapers, or shape the course of nations". However, Northouse (2013) argues that there are many ways to define leadership as he pointed out that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it.

Yukl shares a similar view with Northouse when he stated that researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them. However, an observation made by Stogdill (1974) which Yukl and Northouse concluded that leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviours, influences, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position. Most definitions of leadership according Yukl and Northouse reflect the assumption that leadership involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or an organisation.

Nonetheless, Yukl (2013, p.23) defined leadership as "a process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives". Northouse (2013, p.5) on the other hand sees leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". These definitions includes effort not only to influence and facilitate the current work of a group or organisation, but also to ensure that it is prepared to meet future challenges. However, because leadership has so many different meanings to people, some theorists question whether it is even useful as a scientific contrast (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; Miner, 1975). Nevertheless, most behavioural scientist and practitioners seem to believe leadership is a real phenomenon that is important for the effectiveness of organisations.

Regardless of the different definitions of leadership, Yukl (2013) reminds us that the important responsibility of formal leaders is to make decisions about objectives, strategies, operational procedures, and the allocation of resources. In sharing Yukl's view, Narayanan, Zane and Kemmerer (2011) suggest that in decision processes leaders are often faced with confusion and emotionality than by rationality. They argue that instead of careful analysis of likely outcomes in relation to predetermined objectives, information is often distorted or suppressed to serve preconceptions and biases about the best course of action. The emotional shock of discovering a serious problem and anxiety about choosing among unattractive alternatives may result in denial of negative evidence, wishful thinking, procrastination, vacillation between choices, and panic reactions by individual head teachers or by decision groups.

In making decisions Ganster (2005), however, argues that a highly stressed leader is more likely to respond to serious threats and problems by relying on solutions used in the past or by imitating the practice of similar organisations. He stressed that individual leaders with strong negative affect (fear, anger, depression) are more likely to use dysfunctional methods for decision-making than individual leaders with positive affect. Similarly, research has shown that decisions often reflect the influence of intuition rather than conscious rational

analysis of available alternatives and their likely outcomes (Dane and Pratt, 2007; Salas, Rosen and DiazGranados, 2010).

Nonetheless, Yukl (2013) argues that leaders try to determine if a problem is familiar or novel, and for familiar ones they apply past experience to determine the best course of action. But when leaders attached to mental models that are no longer adequate, Narayanan *et al.,* (2011) concur that leaders find it more difficult to recognise novel problems or innovative solutions. They however stressed that involving people can improve the quality of problem diagnosis and decision choice, but only if appropriate processes are used by the leader. In contrast, Yukl (2013), however, believes that involving different people in decision-making often leads to disagreement about the true nature of a problem and the likely outcomes of various solutions, due to the difference in perspectives, assumptions and values typical of leaders from different functional specialities and background.

3.7 Decision-Making Theories and Models

The literature on decision-making contains numerous decision-making models that head teachers and other decision-makers may utilize in order to guide their decision-making process. Within the extant research on organisational decision-making, a considerable number of planning theories are described for consideration (Hoy and Tater, 2010; Lunenburg, 2010; O'Sullivan, 2011; Paton, 2007; Daft, 2001).

Although most scholars' models are slightly different in scope and purpose, all decision-making models overlap, drawing from one another's content and the context of the decision situation; solving problems effectively is the ultimate goal (Hoy and Tarter, 2004). Lunenburg (2010) and O'Sullivan (2011) argue that a good deal of agreement exist among theorists, about how planning and policy-making has to been done in practice; however, Zey (1992) believes that there is no general consensus about how these activities ought to be implemented. In reviewing the literature on theories/models of decision-

making, the researcher identified 4 commonly cited theories/models which are also relevant to this study: the classical or traditional theory, the decision tree model, the rational choice theory and shared decision-making (Hoy and Tarter, 2004 & 2010; Lunenburg, 2010; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000; March, 1994; Owens, 2008; Sergiovanni, 2000; Zey, 1992; O'Sullivan, 2011). In general, these theories and models are normative, describing the steps associated with the decision-making process that are related to the school organisation. However, they may also be used descriptively to explain how decision-making is operationalised within the school setting.

3.7.1 Classical/Traditional Theory

Philosophically, classical or traditional decision-making is grounded in the concept of scientific rationality. It is based upon the notion that leaders are endeavouring to "maximize the chances of achieving their desired objectives by considering all possible alternatives, exploring all conceivable consequences from among the alternatives, and then making a decision" (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000, p.214). This may imply that in using this model clear steps are outlined for a decision-maker to follow. A decision cannot be made until all the steps are completed. Hoy and Tarter (2010) and Lunenburg (2010) made it clear that a logical decision will emerge based upon the assumption that one best solution is possible for any given situation.

While a number of classical decision-making model variants are found in the literature, the fundamental elements and assumptions of classical decision-making remain similar throughout most texts. It is generally referred to as the "classical" or "traditional" decision-making model (Hoy and Tarter, 2004; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000; March, 1994; Owens, 2008). Typically, scholars explain this model as having delineated steps that decision-makers can follow (Hoy and Tarter, 2004; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000; Owens, 2008). Many texts list these steps as identifying the problem, generating the alternatives, evaluating the alternatives, choosing an appropriate solution, and converting the choice into effective action (Hoy and Tarter, 2004; Kollman, Miller and Page, 1992; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000; March, 1994; Owens, 2008).

Hoy and Tarter (2004, p.11) emphasize that "Problems are discrepancies between actual and desired outcomes which is why head teachers monitor school operations to identify problems, that is, to determine when performance falls short of expectations". After the problem has been defined, the decision-maker or a group of individuals generate alternative solutions for that specific situation. This implies that clearly, identifying a problem is the first step in the classical or traditional decision-making process. If there is no problem, there is no need to make a decision. Once this process reaches completion, the generated alternatives are evaluated (Babbage, 1998). However, Reitz (1989) offers three steps to evaluate solutions:

- The decision-maker must recognize all possible outcomes from each alternative solution, both positive and negative.
- The decision-maker must assess the nature of each outcome, both positive and negative.
- The decision-maker must assess the likelihood of each possible outcome to each alternative. (p. 91)

After evaluation, the leader or decision-maker chooses the alternative that is considered the best or most rational choice for the situation. The goals and objectives are measured against the solution to see if it is a good "fit" (Owens, 2008). Finally, the organization implements the solution. As a proactive element of the decision-making process, the leader constantly considers the problems that might occur after solution implementation (Hecther and Kanazawa, 1997).

In school organisations, head teachers are dependent on teachers to implement decisions. That is, the head teacher must have the skills not only for problem solving but also for "selling" the decision to those affected by it (Babbage, 1998; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2000; Lunenburg, 2010). Decision-making does not end with implementing a solution. This precept is often forgotten. The school head teacher responsible for the decision should evaluate whether or not a solution is achieving its desired objectives. Does the hard evidence of what is occurring match the expected or projected outcomes of the

decision? If the specified objective does not match the reality of the outcome, Burns (1978), Reitz (1989) and Simon (1960) believe that the whole process needs to be recycled, and a new solution to the problem found.

When researchers attempted to employ this model in real-world situations, problems were encountered with its feasibility. Scholars and practitioners came to question its efficacy in addressing problems amidst the "hustle and bustle" of daily activities within organisations (Hoy and Tarter, 2004). Ultimately, many concluded the "classical" or "traditional" heuristic was flawed. While some organisational theorists and practitioners want to create new decision-making models, others simply wish to re-envision the classical model, so that it can be useful in a modern organisation (Drucker, 1998).

Possibly, one of the greatest limitations of the aforementioned classical model is the assumptions under which it attempts to operate. For instance, it assumes that the decision-maker has a clear goal for the organisation (Bowers, 1967; Rice and Schneider, 1994; Vroom and Yetton, 1974). Likewise, it anticipates the availability of both complete information and the assumed cognitive ability of the decision-maker to always correctly analyze a problem. In many circumstances, O'Sullivan (2011) and Hoy and Tarter (2010) believe that these assumptions are unrealistic. Regardless of its weakness, many practitioners and scholars endeavour to use this model as a "jumping off point" for their own interpretations of the decision-making process (Barret *et al.,* 2005; Rowan, 2002).

3.7.2 The Decision Tree Model

The term 'tree' coined by Vroom, Yetton and Jago (1998) implying a single decision-making with many branches or alternatives. Vroom, *et al.,* developed this model to help head teachers decide when and to what extent they should involve others in the decision-making process. First the authors identify characteristics of a given problem situation using a series of seven questions. Second, they isolated five decision-making styles that present a continuum from authoritarian to participatory decision-making approaches. Finally, they

combine the key problem aspects with the appropriate decision-making styles to determine the optimum decision approach a head teacher should use in a given situation.

The key characteristics of a decision situation, according to the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1998) model are:

- Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than others?
- Does a school leader have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?
- Is the decision situation structured?
- Is acceptance of the decision by the school leader's followers critical to effective implementation of the decision?
- Is it reasonably certain that the decision would be accepted by followers if the school leader were to make it alone?
- Do school leader's followers share the organisational goals to be achieved if the problem is solved?
- Is the preferred solution likely to cause conflict among the followers?

Vroom *et al.,* however, argued that these seven variables should determine the extent to which a school head teacher involves his/her staff in the decision-making process or the decision alone, without their input. They suggested five decision-making styles, from which school head teachers can choose:

- School head teachers solve the problems or make the decision themselves, using information available at that time.
- School head teachers obtain the necessary information from others, and then decide on the solution to the problem themselves. They may or may not tell others what the problem is when they request information. The role played by others in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to school head teachers, rather than generating or evaluative solutions.
- School head teachers share the problem with relevant individuals', getting

their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then they make the decision that may or may not reflect other's influence.

- School head teachers share a problem with others members as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. Then they make the decision that may or may not reflect other's influence.
- School head teachers share a problem with others as a group. School leaders and others together generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. They do not try to influence the group to adopt their preferred solution, and they accept and implement any solution that has the support of the entire group.

Vroom, Yetton, and Jago (1998) suggested that in choosing the appropriate style, head teachers should match the decision styles to the situation as determined by answers to the seven questions listed earlier in this chapter. They made it clear that by answering these questions, the preferred decision style for each type of problem is identified. The flow chart (figure 3.3) provides the school head teacher with a step-by-step approach to determining the most appropriate style of decision-making under a given set of circumstances.

Understanding the Model

As explained earlier in this chapter, Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1998) argue that when school head teachers sit down to make a decision, their style and the degree of participation they need to get from their team are affected by three main factors:

- *Decision Quality* – how important is it to come up with the "right" solution? The higher the quality of the decision needed, the more you should involve other people in the decision.
- *Subordinate Commitment* - how important is it that your team and others buy into the decision? When team mates need to embrace the decision the leader should increase the participation levels.
- *Time Constraints* – How much time do you have to make the decision? The more time you have, the more you have the luxury of including

others, and of using the decision as an opportunity for teambuilding.

They concluded that these factors impact on a school head teacher by helping him/her to determine the best leadership and decision-making style to use. Vroom-Jago however, distinguishes three styles of leadership, and five different processes of decision-making that school head teachers can consider using the decision tree model. Figure 3.3 summarizes the process.

Figure 3.3 Summary of Vroom-Yetton-Jago Decision Model

Style:	**Autocratic** – you make the decision and inform others of it. There are two separate processes for decision making in an autocratic style:
Process:	*Autocratic 1(A1)* – you use the information you already have and make the decision *Autocratic 2 (A2)* – you ask team members for specific information and once you have it, you make the decision. Here you don't necessarily tell them what the information is needed for.
Style:	**Consultative** – you gather information from the team and other and then make the decision.
Process:	*Consultative 1 (C1)* – you inform team members of what you doing and may individually ask opinions, however, the group is not brought together for discussion. You make the decision. *Consultative 2 (C2)* – you are responsible for making the decision, however, you get together as a group to discuss the situation, hear other perspectives, and solicit suggestions.
Style:	**Collaborative** – you and your team work together to reach a consensus.
Process:	*Group (G2)* – The team makes a decision together. Your role is mostly facilitative and you help the team come to a final decision that everyone agrees on.

Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1998)

In support of the Decision Tree Model, Wagner (1994) and Locke, Alavi, and Wagner (1997) argue that Vroom-Yetton-Jago model represents an important improvement over rational decision-making theory with implications for shared decision-making. Wagner (1994) and Locke *et al.,* (1997) argue that the Decision Tree Model identifies major decision strategies that are commonly used in making decisions, and established criteria for evaluating the success of the various strategies under a variety of situations. Moreover, Vroom *et al.,* developed an applied model for school head teachers to use in selecting decision strategies which improves the quality of decisions, acceptance of the decisions by others, and minimizes the time consumed in decision-making.

Regardless of the strengths of the theory, critics like Yukl (2002) considers the model to be one of the best-supported theories of leadership, but he also notes that it deals with only a small part of leadership which assumes that managers have the needed skills to put the theory into action. Yukl stress that the model fails to consider decisions that extend over long periods of time while invoking multiple processes, and lacks the parsimony needed in a good theory.

Much of their theory according to Yukl is a matter of domain definition. Yukl however believes that Vroom and his colleagues were not trying to deal with many of the matters he mentioned, and that the theory makes that clear. Yukl concludes that theorists are justified in defining their domain as they see fit, but in doing so they risk the possibility that their theory will be considered trivial (because its domain is too small). Yukl does however say the theory covers a small part of leadership, but neither he, nor anyone else, has accused it of being trivial.

3.7.3 Rational Choice Theory

The dominant theoretical framework applied to decision-making in social dilemmas and dilemma-like situations, has been the "rational choice" model .The theory aims to analyse the actions and behaviour of an individual as a rational, discriminating selector who aims to maximise one's "utility"

(Munck 2002).

Rational choice theory (RTC) has an underlying assumption of rationality. Rationality means that "individuals make decisions that maximize the utility they expect to derive from making choices" (Munck 2002, p.166). According to Munck when individuals take actions or make decisions, they tend to be rational in making choices that are expected to maximize their utilities. This underlying assumption derives from the neoclassical economic model in which individuals and firms are assumed to be rational in pursing their egoistic economic interest in the free market. While rational choice theory cannot be equated to neoclassical economics. Levi (1997) suggests that what differentiates rational choice theory from "the straightforward application of economic to politics" (p.22) is that rational choice theory understands how different contextual and institutional factors influence individuals' behaviour and choice. In another words, rational individuals make decisions always under the contextual and institutional constraints. This implies that as rational beings such as head teachers, circuit supervisors and teachers are likely to make decision when confronted with a range of alternatives within the school environment. However, studies have confirmed that it is not always the case among teachers in Ghana where the 'fear factor' plays important role in decision-making (Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008; Dampson, 2011).

Munck (2002), however, suggested four important components of rational choice theory: assumption of rationality, rule of games, strategic interaction, and equilibrium. First, he assumed that individuals are rational and tend to make choices that are expected to maximize their utilities and that they always prefer those choices that offer the highest payoff.

Second, rules of games are given. Different games have different rules, and those rules are considered as given and constant. For example, in the Prisoner's Dilemma, the rules of the game have been specified: (a) there are two players; (b) each player has only two choices: cooperate or defect (Munck 2002). The rules of games are very often dependent on contextual and institutional environments. Thus, Munck caution researchers to be careful when

specifying the rules of games, and sometimes they have to rely on historical analysis.

Third, strategic interaction is an important component of rational choice theory. Munck posit that individuals make choices on the basis of their calculations of the payoffs they expect to receive in the future, while the real payoffs received by actors are constrained by strategic behaviours of other actors in the same game. As a result, actors make decisions not only on the basis of consequences of their behaviours but also on the expectations about the possible choices of other actors.

Fourth, Levi (1997) argues that while equilibrium is a component of choice in Munck's decision-making, he warns that equilibrium is "not an assumption that all behaviour is static or even that all interactions among rational individuals produce equilibrium" (p.27). He stressed that equilibrium is only a process in which actors respond to each other's decisions until each is at a position from which no improvement is possible. However, while Munck (2002) sees equilibrium as a component of choice, Levi argues equilibrium is not necessarily a socially optimal for decision-making.

In rational choice theories, Hoy and Tarter (2010) argue that individuals are seen as motivated by the wants or goals that express their 'preferences'. They act within specific, given constraints and on the basis of the information that they have about the conditions under which they are acting. At its simplest, the relationship between preferences and constraints can be seen in the purely technical terms of the relationship of a means to an end. As it is not possible for individuals to achieve all of the various things that they want, they must also make choices in relation to both their goals and the means for attaining these goals.

From the rationalist point of view O'Sullivan (2011) acknowledges that cultural ideologies has important implication for how decision makers perceive their decision processes and their decision quality. However, Langley *et al.*, (1995) opine that the accepted rational notions that underpin much of normative

decision-making in management and leadership can lead to: reification of the decision, the dehumanization of the decision maker, and the isolation of the decision-making process. If this assumption holds, then it implies that in a school setting in Ghana where cultural and ethnicity are considerable factors in decision-making, head teachers in attempt to make rational decisions may ignore the complexities and messiness of real life decision-making, and strip it of much of its urgency and context. In such situation O'Sullivan (2011) suggests that bureaucratic norms and models remain very strongly embedded in educational organisations which calls often "fall back unwittingly on bureaucratic solution" (p.605) which has a particular resonance in the area of decision-making with decision makers using procedure, routine and satisfying as decision strategies when more imaginative or creative action is desirable.

Many proponents of improved approaches to educational decision-making argue that an extremely linear rational approach is best for ensuring quality decision (O'Sullivan, 2011). However, critics like Nutt (2008) oppose the linear rational approach echoing that it's time consuming and complex to use. Contrary, Simon (1960) argues that decision-making can be conceived of as a continuum of styles with the rational and non-rational components being used in a complementary fashion in effective decision. According to him, the mix styles are needed in decision-making because both conscious and subconscious or subliminal processes have to be accounted for in decision-making. Gigerenzer (2001b) supports Simons view by opining that decision-making theories often neglect the role of emotions and pejoratively present emotions as the opposite of rationality to be avoided and excluded.

Other critics of rational decision-making such as Snidal (2002), Mccubbins (1996), Hechter and Kanazawa (1997) have strongly contested that people rarely have clear sets of preferred goals and that their actions may not always direct towards the pursuit of pleasure, ultimate benefits or seeking to maximize their self-interest in decision-making process. However, Fukuyama (2005) questioned and criticised the universality of rational choice theory saying that the role of culture, norms, mental models and other cognitive factors plays important role in making choice. This may be true because in Africa and Ghana

to be precise, cultural norms and status perhaps determines the choice one should make (Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008). In a school setting where there is cultural diversity coupled with norms, limited space, information and status, teachers hardly stand the chance of making a rational choice. In the words of Margaret Mead quoted in O'Sullivan (2011) "what people say, what people do, and what they do are entirely different things". Nonetheless, considering the arguments and assumptions the rational choice theory will perhaps be useful in understanding how the 'fear factor', cultural, limited infrastructure and space influence head teachers and teachers to make rational decisions within the school environment in Ghana.

3.7.4 Shared Decision-Making Model

Shared decision-making (SDM) has taken on added importance as reformers advocated teacher involvement in school decision-making. However, Hoy and Tarter (2004) believe that always involving subordinates is as short-sighted as never involving them. They further caution that participation in decision-making can improve the quality of the decisions and promote cooperation if the right strategy is linked with the right situation. This implies that when head teachers use the right strategy of participation at the right situation they are bound to yield improvement in the quality of decisions as well as promote cooperation among staff.

Lew and Glickman (1992) define SDM as a process in which a variety of members of the school community collaborate (when appropriate) to identify problems, establish visions, define goals, shape direction, develop action plans and ensure implementation and accountability, and those responsible for implementing the decision must be actively and legitimately involved in making the decision.

Bauer (1992), however, provides another definition. According to Bauer, Shared decision-making is a process designed to push education decisions to the school level, where those closest to children may apply their expertise in making decisions that will promote school effectiveness and ensure that the

most appropriate services are provided to students and the school community. Bauer further emphasise that SDM is content-free; that is, it does not deal with specific topics or programs. Rather, it is an ongoing process of making decisions in a collaborative manner which results in effective decision-making.

However, Hoy and Tarter (2004) argue that there are times when participation improves the quality of the decision, as well as times when participation impedes effective decision-making. The critical question posed by Hoy and Tarter is: *Under which conditions should subordinates be involved in decision-making?* Hoy and Tarter then proposed two models of shared decision-making to address the above question. One is based on a comprehensive set of decision rules (Vroom *et al.,* 1998) which has already been discussed in this chapter (3.7.2) and the other a simple set of three criteria: expertise, relevance and trust in subordinates which will be discussed next.

According to Hoy and Tarter, the persistent question that teachers and head teachers keep asking is: *should teachers be involved in decision-making?* The answer, according to them, is yes, however, they caution that head teachers should involve teachers in some decisions, but which ones and how are the challenges facing educational leaders. However, the Vroom-Jago perspective discussed earlier on in this chapter provides one answer to these questions but their model is formidable and its utility is limited. To find answers to the questions posed by SDM, Hoy and Miskel (2001) and Hoy and Tarter (2004) proposed a simplified normative model of shared decision-making which suggests under what conditions subordinates should be involved in decision and the frequency, nature, purpose, and structure of their involvement. The key concept in the model, drawn from the work of Barnard (1938), Simon (1947) and Bridges (1967) is the zone of acceptance or indifference.

The Zone of Acceptance or Indifference

The concepts 'zone of acceptance' and 'zone of indifference' almost refer to the same meaning and are clarified in the following discussions. Based on Barnard's (1938, p.167) conceptualization of the 'zone of indifference' which

states that "subordinates have a zone of indifference within which an administrator's decision will be accepted without question". Bridges (1967) however argues that not all decisions are appropriate for SDM and that there are issues that subordinates do not care to be involved in. Bridges (1967) therefore, postulates the need for head teachers to apply a 'test of relevance' (interest) and a 'test of expertise' (knowledge) before seeking to involve subordinates in the decision-making process.

The combined levels of interest and expertise serve as a means of determining whether or not a decision issue falls within subordinates' zones of indifference. Clear and Seager (1971) further explored the zone of indifference concept. However, they preferred to use the label 'zone of acceptance'. Their study found, when relating to either organisational maintenance or subordinates' professional judgments that administrators can expect always to have a desire to exercise influence greater than what subordinates are willing to accept. In short, administrators' zones of desired influence are believed to be consistently greater than subordinates' zones of acceptance.

Hoy and Miskel (2004) in summarizing their research work regarding the zones of acceptance stated that if subordinates possess a personal stake (high relevance or interest) in the decision and knowledge to make useful contribution (high expertise) then the decision clearly falls outside the zone of acceptance. Then subordinates should be involved in the decision-making process. If, on the other hand, the issue is not of interest and falls outside their sphere of competence, then the decision is within their zone of acceptance and involvement should be avoided. The test, which identifies zones of acceptance, produces two marginal cases (high interest-low expertise and low interest-high expertise) for which answers regarding decision involvement are less clear.

Therefore, careful attention should be given to these marginal cases. The challenge for the head teachers becomes one of deciding which decision issues fall within the teachers' zone of acceptance and which issues do not. That is, *how would the head teacher then know if a decision is inside the zone of acceptance, outside the zone of acceptance, or marginal?* For example teachers

in Ghana may be interested about a proposed single spine salary structure, but their involvement could complicate the issue as they attempt to protect their own interest at the expense of the welfare of the National Association of Teachers. Clearly, educational leaders need a more precise definition of the zone of acceptance. However, Hoy and Tarter (2004) remind us that for head teachers to know if a decision is inside the zone, outside the zone, or a marginal case, guidelines are required to be followed by the head teacher and that lead to what Hoy and Tarter called mapping the zone of acceptance.

Mapping the Zone of Acceptance

Two decision rules were developed by Hoy and Tarter (2004, p.144) to answer the question: *the relevance rule* and *the expertise rule.*

- *The relevance rule:* Do staff have a personal interest in the decision outcome?
- *The expertise rule:* Do staff have the expertise to contribute to the decision?

These two rules are closely linked to the situational theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1993) that acknowledges the maturity level of teachers. Maturity of teacher is defined in terms of the following three components:

- the capacity to set high but attainable goals;
- the willingness and ability to act responsibly, and
- experience

When teachers are immature, Slater (1995) argues that they need more guidance and more structure, while mature teachers need less structure and more human-relations-oriented behaviour.

These two rules define four discrete decision situations as illustrated in figure 3.4 (page 67). According to Hoy and Tarter (2004) the zone of acceptance and decision situation is a two-dimensional construct defined by relevance and expertise. They argue that when teachers have both expertise and a personal stake, then the decision is clearly outside the zone of acceptance. However, if

teachers have neither expertise nor interest, then the decision is inside the zone.

Figure 3.4 Zone of Acceptance and Decision Situation

	Yes	No
Yes	Outside zone of acceptance (definitely included)	Marginal with expertise (occasionally included)
No	Marginal with relevance (occasionally included)	Inside zone of acceptance (definitely excluded)

Hoy and Tarter (2004, p.145)

The next situation according Hoy and Tarter is a marginal case of personal interest (relevance) but no expertise. They proposed two distinct types of marginality, each with different decisional constraints. The authors opine that when teachers have expertise but no personal stake, or they have a personal stake but no particular expertise, the situations are marginal and participation is problematic.

This mapping of the zone of acceptance according to Hoy and Tarter (2004) suggests two additional theoretical propositions:

- As subordinates are involved in making decisions for which they have minimal expertise, their participation will be marginally effective.
- As subordinates are involved in making decisions in which they have minimal interest or stake, their participation will be marginally effective.

These prepositions imply that if teachers have personal interest but no expertise, involvement should be limited. Teacher participation in this case may

be dangerous, and could lead to frustration because teachers are asked to do a job for which they are ill-skilled or ill-prepared. As a common result, either the decision will be uninformed by expertise, or it will be made by the head teacher contrary to the wishes of those involved.

In the first instance, involving teachers who lack expertise in the process may reduce resistance, but it cannot inform the substance of the decision. In the latter instance, the head teacher makes a show of soliciting opinion, which is subsequently ignored. Such decisions give an indication of manipulation and "game playing" and eventually produce dissatisfaction. Occasionally, however, teachers must be brought into the process to gain acceptance of the decisions, but only when the teachers know at the outset that their role is advisory.

The third situation is the marginal case of expertise but no personal interest. In this case teachers can feel frustrated because they perceive their skills and knowledge to be exploited by their superiors. They have little interest in the outcome of the decisions because they are unaffected. Initially, they may feel a sense of worth as they are involved, but that quickly passes as they labour. The likely long-term response of teachers to such involvement is resentment and alienation. However, teachers may be involved occasionally in this case to enhance the quality of decisions.

In the last situation teachers should not be involved in the decision-making if they have neither the personal interest nor expertise to contribute towards effective decisions then they fall inside the zone of acceptance. This fourth situation is a case for unilateral decision-making by the school head teacher. According to Hoy and Tarter (2004) one more consideration necessary to effectively apply the model to actual problems in school situation is the trust of teachers. The authors believe that trust of teachers may affect their appropriate degree of involvement. To gauge subordinate trust the authors propose the following rule:

The trust consideration: Can teachers be trusted to make decisions in the best interest of the organisation (school)?

The authors agreed that if the decision is outside the teachers' zone of acceptance and if they share the aims of the organisation, then their participation should be extensive. But if there is little trust, then participation should be restricted. Sometimes, especially in the Ghanaian school culture a teacher may have expertise and personal interest in the decision and may also have the trust from the head teacher but may not be committed to the aims of the school. In such a situation, the area outside the zone of acceptance can be divided into situations with trust and little/no-trusted. When teachers are committed and have the expertise and interest, then the decision-making may require consensus rather than majority rule. In a situation where teachers have little or no trust, Hoy and Tarter (2004) recommend that participation should be restricted, otherwise it would move the decision in directions not consistent with the goals of the organisation. However, they stress that when the decision is inside the zone of acceptance, trust is not an issue because teachers will not be part of the decision. In these two marginal cases, teachers trust is seldom a consideration because participation is already limited by either lack of expertise or lack of interest.

In trying not to marginalise teachers in participation based on their trust, Bridges (1967) in his research work on SDM in schools recommended that if teachers have a high interest and feel capable of making a contribution; their desired level of participation will be high. If on the other hand, teachers have high interest but do not feel capable of contributing, then they may wish to be involved only in the later stages of implementing and evaluating the decision. However, if teachers have low interest but high expertise they may particularly wish to be involved at the early stages of defining the problem and suggesting and weighing alternatives. From the on-going discussions, it is evident that head teachers are burden with how, when and who to involve in decision-making. However, the researcher supports Hoy and Tarter's (2004) view that when there is trust among head teachers and teachers; participation becomes accessible to all teachers.

3.8. Summary of Chapter 3

Chapter 3 presented and discussed four frequently cited theories/models of decision-making that are relevant to school decision-making. The theories/models presented in this chapter indicate that there is no one particular model that solves participation in decision-making in schools. However, the theories and models discussed in this chapter serve as a guiding path by addressing the critical issues of lack of teacher participation in school decision-making in basic schools in Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality. Hoy and Tater (2004) argue that head teachers who believe in the expertise of and trust their teachers can use these models to determine who, how and when should teachers be involved in school decision-making for effective and quality decision to be taken. Chapter 4 discuses the research methodology and the design adopted for the study.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.0 Introduction

The review of related literature has highlighted a number of issues which makes researching teacher participation in decision-making (PDM) a complex and challenging task, especially in Ghana. On the one hand, there is no consensus over a definition of PDM, while on the other hand there seem to be agreement that involving teachers in decision-making has some positive effects on their job satisfaction and school improvement. The lack of consensus had implications on how the study's methodology and design was structured. This is because much of the empirical research on PDM has been conducted in developed countries, mainly in the United States of America and the United Kingdom, while some studies have been focused on African countries (Olorunsola and Olayemi, 2011; Udoh and Akpa, 2007; Lewis and Naidoo, 2004; Dampson, 2010; Drah, 2011; Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012), nevertheless, there is still paucity of research specifically on Ghana.

Given the need and the structure of the study and the arguments made for and against qualitative and quantitative methods, it is important to provide an overview of the extent to which teachers participate in decision-making, but also the need for an in depth understanding of the dynamics of PDM in natural settings, the study adopted the explanatory sequential mixed method approach (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The study constitutes three main phases: a questionnaire survey, semi-structured interview and a micro-ethnographic style/participant observation (Bell, 2010; Bryman, 2012) of case study. The questionnaire survey was employed in phase one to find out the current trends of teacher PDM such as the extent of teacher PDM across the four dimensions of school governance and levels of teacher PDM. The semi-structured interviews were also employed in phase two to draw out views, experiences, factors that facilitate or prevent teacher PDM and the effect PDM has on school improvement.

In phase three, the researcher employed a case study of micro-ethnographic study suggested by Bryman (2012), where two schools which demonstrated high and low teacher PDM were selected based on the responses from the analysis of the questionnaire survey (see chapter 8, table 8.1, page 217 and 8.2, 226). In phase three, data about the dynamics and practice of teacher participation in decision-making were gathered through participant observations, informal discussions and school documents. A check list, observation schedules, verbal and non-verbal communications, management strategies, and reactions of teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors were used particularly to gain in-depth understanding of events such as staff meetings and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings.

This chapter focuses on the research framework, design, epistemological and ontological perspectives of quantitative and qualitative paradigms. The chapter further provides an argument for and against using a combination of both quantitative and qualitative designs (mixed methods) and the researchers' reasons for adopting a combination of approaches for the study. In addition, the ethical consideration, the validity and reliability of the study are discussed.

4.1 Research Framework

Robson (2002) making reference to Manstead and Semin (2001) share the view that researchers often neglect the point that the strategies and tactics being selected in carrying out a piece of research depend very much on the type of research question(s) the researcher is trying to answer.

Cohen *et al.,* (2011) proposed that in planning a study, the researcher's framework should depend on (a) the kind of questions being asked or investigated (b) the purpose of the research and (c) the research paradigms and philosophies in which the researcher is working.

Robson (2002) on the other hand suggested five detailed components which the researcher considered and adopted as the bases of his research framework.

- *Purpose(s):* the purpose includes what the study is trying to achieve and why it is being done.

- *Theory:* the theory adopted will guide or inform the study and will provide bases for supporting the research findings.

- *Research Question(s):* to what questions is the research geared to providing answers and what is needed to achieve the purpose of the study.

- *Methods:* what specific techniques (e.g. close-ended questionnaire, semi-structured interview, and participant observation) will be used to collect data and how will the data be analysed.

- *Sampling Strategy:* from who will data be sought (teachers, head teachers, circuit supervisors) and where (Cape Coast and Mfantseman) and when.

All these five components are interrelated and kept in balance as the research progressed. However, the detailed framework emerged as the study progressed because Robson (2002) reminds us that the various activities within the framework – collecting and analysing data; refining and modifying the set of research questions; developing theory; changing the intended sample; seeking answers to rather different questions; and perhaps even reviewing the purpose of the study might changed in the light of a changed context arising from the way in which the other aspects are developed.

This suggests that a better representation of the relationship among the five components/aspects in a flexible design should show two-way arrows between the components as illustrated in the figure 4.1, page 74.

Figure 4.1 The Research Framework

PURPOSE

To investigate the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making.

To explore and critically examine the factors that facilitates or prevents teachers from participating in school decision-making.

Relate the findings to the four dimensions of school governance so as to ascertain the relationships between PDM and school improvement.

To suggest achievable recommendations for ensuring effective teacher PDM

THEORY

Classical or traditional DM theory

Decision tree model

Rational choice theory

Shared decision-making model

Head teachers

Teachers

OVERALL RESEARCH QUESTION

To what extent do teachers participate in decisions, specifically in relation to the four dimensions of school governance: goals, management, curriculum and instruction, and staff development?

Circuit Supervisors

METHODS

Closed-ended questionnaires

Semi-structured interviews

Case study (Participant observation)

Document analysis

SAMPLE & SAMPLING STRATEGY

Convenience sampling

Criterion-base selection/Purposive

Random sampling

Automatic sampling

Adopted from Robson (2002)

4.2. Ontological and Epistemological Underpinning of the Study

According to Kitchin and Tate (2000), methodology is a coherent set of rules and procedures which can be used to investigate a phenomenon or a situation (within the framework dictated by epistemological and ontological ideas). In other words, methodology is projected as how a particular research should be carried out and can best be understood as the critical study of research methods and their uses. Methodology therefore refers to the choice of strategies a researcher adopts against other strategies (Grix, 2004). Thus, the methodological approach a researcher adopts in acquiring knowledge, the procedures he or she employs in acquiring it, the data he or she collects and the sources from which he or she collects the data have a directional relationship with how things really are and how they work (ontological) and nature of relationship between the known and the knower (epistemological) assumptions that the researcher holds about the world (Grix, 2004). The two dominant ontological paradigms that have influenced how social research is conducted in the past century have been interpretivism and positivism (Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004).

Scholars such as Bryman (2012), Cohen *et al.,* (2011), and Kitchin and Tate (2000) argue that, there is a clear relationship between ontological and epistemological issues in that claims about what exist in reality almost inevitably leads to the question about how what exists can be known. Several philosophical theories have influenced how research should be conducted in different fields of study of which education administration and leadership is of no exception. Evidence from past and current readings on ontological and epistemological underpinnings made the researcher understand that there have been different opinions on how research should be conducted (Denzin, 2010; Guba and Lincoln, 2005; Clark *et al.,* 2008). Various complex arguments by Denzin (2010), Guba and Lincoln (2005) and Clark *et al.,* (2008) amongst many, have been made for and against the use of various philosophical and methodological procedures

Literature shows that positivist such as Miller and Brewer (2003) and Grix, (2004) view reality to exist independently of our knowledge of it and looks at the social world as something that is not constructed by us but rather revealed to us. Positivism according to Sale *et al.,* (2002) is based on the basis that scientific judgements are objective and thus scientific research must be conducted in a way that is value free. Positivist ontological assumptions are based on the premise that 'scientific knowledge' can be achieved since through research knowledge about the unknown will be known (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Positivists therefore seek to employ the use of scientific methods and practices within the natural sciences in social research (Grix, 2004; Denscombe, 2002).

The epistemological claims in line with the positivist assumption is that reality consists of what is available to our senses (Hughes, 1990) and that we are stimulated by our senses and therefore report what we experience, hence what we add to knowledge is very significant (Miller and Brewer, 2003; Grix, 2004). Positivists therefore place emphasis on observational and verification dimensions of empirical practice (Grix, 2004). The positivists also believe that in social research, a researcher can establish regular relationships that exist between social phenomena through the use of theory to generate hypothesis, whose testing can be done via participant or non-participant observation (Sale, *et al.,* 2002). Data normally collected purposefully for positivist approach to research in the social sciences is referred to as 'hard data' indicating data that is free from the researcher's interpretation (Bryman, 2012).

In contrast to positivism, interpretivism subscribes to the notion that reality does not exist independently of our knowledge of it (Grix, 2004) and thus it views reality as a complex social construction of meaning, values, human awareness, experience and understanding (Kitchin and Tate, 2000; Grix, 2004). Thus to Kitchin and Tate (2000), it is a people centred form of knowledge. Interpretivists believe that reality can best be understood through people's interpretive capacities instead of mere sensory observations and experiences of the world for understanding social phenomena, as believed by the positivists. Data for interpretivist research is obtained through the interpretations that

people give of their situations, actions and experiences of their life-world (Johnston, 1983). Data obtained in this way is known as soft data and it is normally verbal and human artefacts such as images, drawings which seek to reveal and describe social phenomena by the attribution of words (Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004). Interpretivists employ the use of research methods and data collection techniques that allow respondents to interpret their actions and experience. Primary data collection techniques for interpretivist research include in-depth interviews (with people who have experienced the phenomena in question), structured/unstructured/semi-structured interviews, participant observations, documents, audio-visual materials, photography, and life histories. These techniques generate data that is mostly in the form of words which according to Creswell (2003) and Bryman (2012) give in-depth meaning to the phenomena being studied.

In summary, the debate about interpretative research and positivist research is still ongoing. Blaikie (2009) shares the view that the philosophical assumption guiding positivist research includes an objective view of reality which the research seeks to measure and explain. Consistent with its ontological assumption, positivist researcher seeks the creation of knowledge that is generalisable across different people, times and situations and is, thus, time and content free. While the method used in positivist research have primarily been quantitative, qualitative methods have been used but only to support the quantitative methods in the development of measures, in the development of theory using grounded theory approach or clarifying existing quantitative results.

The philosophical underpinning for interpretative research includes the assumption of multiple realities that are socially constructed and the primary goal of understanding reality from the perspective of those experiencing it. In contrast to positivist research that seeks generalizations; interpretative research is typically time and context-bound. Interestingly, Denzin (2010) echoes that most mixed method articles that ascribe to an interpretative approach in social sciences tend to be more pragmatic, in that their primary focus is the research question, without being committed to a particular

research approach and philosophical assumption. He argues that mixed method may be avoided because interpretivist researchers feel that the use of quantitative methods requires altering one's underlying assumptions. However, he shares the view that it is unnecessary, since it is not the method but how it is used that needs to be consistent with the philosophical assumptions. That is, the appropriateness and use of a method is determined by the researcher's orientation and that phenomena being studied (Morgan, 1998). In other words, the methods do not define the type of the study that is being conducted.

Drawing from the above arguments and discussions, it is evident that this study is interpretive as it epistemologically seeks to address issues of human experiences in participative decision-making, drawing from much deeper levels of understanding through semi-structured interviews, case study and participant observations. This study did not adopt the positivist type of causal explanations but rather sought to understand the human situation in decision-making through meanings, intentions and actions. Rather than the positivist emphasis on what is generalisable and universal, this study's epistemology focused on the current levels of teacher participation in school decision-making in Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality respectively, and the findings cannot be generalised beyond the two study sites. However, fuzzy generalisation which is supported by the researchers' account within the context of the study with justifying evidence can be made from the findings of the study (Bassey, 1999).

4.3 Quantitative-Qualitative Debate

Grix (2004) reminds us that a researcher's methodology is guided by certain ontological and epistemological assumptions which are made up of his/her research questions or hypothesis, the conceptual approach he or she intends to employ to a topic, the methods to be used in a study, a justification of such methods and the sources of data.

From the view point of Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) and Bryman (2012)

there are three kinds of methodological approaches namely; qualitative, quantitative and mixed or multiple approaches. According to Creswell and Plano Clark qualitative is inductive because it deals with small samples and narratives, while quantitative are deductive because it deals with numerical values. They further argue that the epistemological position of a researcher can reveal different views of a particular or specific social phenomenon. These different viewpoints of positivism and interpretivism have given rise to a clear distinction between qualitative (inductive) and quantitative (deductive) research views (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Robson, 1993; Denscombe, 2002; Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004). It is however believed in general that the research problem should define whether one chooses a qualitative or a quantitative method. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) argue, for example, that qualitative methods are useful when one wants to look into a problem in-depth while quantitative methods are useful when one wants to look into a problem widely. However, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.260) point out that, "for virtually all instances of socio behavioural inquiry, the naturalistic paradigm is the paradigm of choice". They elaborated that the naturalistic inquiry paradigm enables a researcher to study the realities in whole that cannot be understand in isolation from their context, nor can they be fragmented for separate study of the parts because the belief of context is crucial in deciding whether or not a finding may have meaning in some other contexts as well.

However, Patton (2002) opines that, common data collection techniques for qualitative research include an in-depth investigation of phenomena through the use of open ended interviews, observation (participant or non-participant) and documentary (archival records or ethnographic study). Grix (2004) added visual and narrative methods such as diaries, personal notes and archive documents.

Generally speaking, researchers who choose qualitative studies which are inductive usually opt for an interpretivist philosophical position and tend to use data generation methods which are flexible and sensitive to social context in which the data are produced (Grix, 2004). However, Lincoln and Guba (2000) are of the view that a qualitative researcher working within the naturalist

inquiry paradigm perspective assumes that all people experience the world in the same way, and thus, the goal of conducting social science research is to learn more about how the world works so that phenomena can be controlled or predicted. Such researchers generally seek to amass information from their studies on specific events, decision, institution, geographical location, issues with a view to discerning patterns, trends and relationships between variables. However, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) argue that the language of qualitative research therefore tends to revolve around case studies and social context instead of variables and hypotheses as it is in the case of quantitative research.

In justifying the strength of the qualitative research approach, Patton (2005) noted that the approach is more flexible and reflective. Sale *et al.,* (2002) adds that the qualitative approach puts emphasis on categories and concepts rather than mere incidence, frequencies, and relationship between variables. The approach also reveals the different perceptions participants have on the same situation (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2005; Grix, 2004). Creswell (2003) further argues that the strategy in qualitative research is to allow important dimensions to emerge from analysis of the cases under study without supposing in advance what those important dimensions will be. On the contrary, the weakness of qualitative approach is that it tends to be subjective, and difficult to replicate. Qualitative research is usually on a small-scale rendering it to be non-representative, as the results are generated from small/few respondents. This approach cannot be generalised beyond the cases that have been investigated and as such no predictions and forecasting can be made out of it (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Patton, 2002; Grix, 2004). This 'inability to generalise' from small samples or few cases leads to a question of validity of results obtained using a qualitative approach. However, Yin (1994) argues that case study can be statically and analytically generalised. In his 'fuzzy generalisation' Bassey (1999) argues that qualitative researchers should be more concern about producing case reports the reader could exercise judgement. He warns that it will be a fatal flaw in doing case studies if researchers are to conceive statistical generalization as the method of

generating the results, instead of fuzzy or analytical generalization which is applicable to case study.

On the other hand, according Sale *et al.,* (2002) quantitative approach is deductive in nature, associated with positivism and characterised by empirical research. Quantitative research according Bryman (2006) is characterised by three basic phases including finding variables for concepts, operationalising them in the study and measuring them. Bryman argues that the social researcher employing quantitative strategy normally follows a structured approach in which he or she explains the social phenomena using relationships between variables. In this way Bryman noted the researcher compresses what he or she is studying into key attributes which are normally taken as variables within a value-free framework. Miller and Brewer (2003) adds that the main goal of quantitative approach is to find as small a set of variables as possible and the wider philosophical assumption which informs. They argue that for one to know something, he or she has to establish general relationships which are robust across as many cases as possible (Miller and Brewer, 2003). The ultimate goal in this approach is generalization, and the main reason for establishing relationships is to demonstrate that the final results reflect general features of social life (Burns, 2002). This approach is good for theory or hypothesis testing, identification of general patterns and for making predictions or forecasting (Ragin and Becker, 1998; Miller and Brewer, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004). The common techniques for collecting quantitative data are questionnaire, surveys and laboratory observations. The sample size here is large as it is representative of the population from which it is chosen. However, Bryman (2012) argues that not all quantitative studies can achieve representativeness because the use of purposive sampling techniques, for instance, may not be statistically representative.

The main strengths of this approach are; it allows for generalisation and predictions as well as the uncovering of broad trends. This approach is said to be nomothetic because it provides background information that is replicable and also allows for comparism with other quantitative research data (Bryman, 2012).

In spite of its strengths, quantitative research has been criticised on several grounds and some of the most common and recurring criticisms of the approach is discussed next. A main weakness of the quantitative approach is that, it is said to be artificial and may suffer the crudest defect of over generalization (Burns, 2002; Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2003). As noted by Brannen (1992), although the quantitative approach is pre-determined and uses finely tuned technological tools, it allows for much less flexibility, imaginative input and reflexivity. Grix (2004) also warns that the overdependence on quantitative methods can lead to neglect of the social and cultural context in which the variables are being produced. Silverman (2000) on the other hand is of the view that in most situations the researchers using quantitative strategy often feel reluctant to move from statements of correlation to causal statements and this can have an effect on how the social situation being investigated is understood. Furthermore, critics argue that there are some facets of human actions, especially behavioural phenomena, that are difficult to quantify or measure (Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004).

From the above discussions it is evident that believers of the two methodological positions have identified loop holes in both sides and thus, accused their 'proponents' of distortion of truth. However, the researcher believes that a careful blend of the two, taking into consideration their epistemological and ontological beliefs, their strengths and weaknesses will produce data worth of generalising beyond the context of the study.

4.4 Combination of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods: Using the Mixed/Multiple Method Approach

Many questions have been raised by various scholars on the use of the two approaches in a single study and some researchers have strongly criticised methodological triangulation, which is the combination of different methods of data collection (Hammersley, 2008). According Sale *et al.,* (2002) qualitative and quantitative studies are grounded in two incompatible epistemological and ontological underpinnings and that both do not study the same phenomena.

Writers, including Guba and Lincoln (2005), Hughes (1999) and Blaikie (2009) have also argued against this type of triangulation. For example, Bryman (2012, p.629) noted, "the decision to employ, for example, participant observation is not simply about how to go about data collection but a commitment to an epistemological position that is inimical to positivism and that is consistent with interpretivism". This kind of view of research methods has led some writers such as Guba and Lincoln (2005), Blaikie (2009) and Hughes (1999) to argue that mixed methods research is not feasible or even desirable.

Critiques of methodological triangulation have argued that using any data collection technique within any of the strategies means a commitment to the approach with which it is linked with and this makes triangulation inappropriate and impossible. Thus to Guba and Lincoln (2005) methodological triangulation is inappropriate and therefore represents a failure to recognise the distinction between a paradigm and a method. Contrary, Denzin (2012) in his 'Moments, Mixed Methods, and Paradigm Dialogs' argues for a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods and methods within methods claiming that anyone can use any method, for methods are merely tools, not forms of performative, interpretative practice. Bryman (2012, p.629), however, adds that "when researchers combine participant observation with questionnaire, they are not only combining quantitative and qualitative research, since paradigms are incommensurable/incompatible".

Other writers including Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Mikkelsen (2005), Merriam (2009), Bryman (2012) and Grix (2004) have given more convincing reasons in support of methodological triangulation notwithstanding the epistemological underpinning of the two strategies. For instance, Mikkelsen (2005) noted that the varying characteristics of qualitative and quantitative methodological strategies make it feasible to combine them in a single study. In addition, Bryman (2012) share the view that the methods themselves should be seen as mere tools in the data collection process and not as methods that are automatically rooted in any epistemological and ontological principles since the connections between methodological strategies; epistemological and

ontological principles are not fixed and ineluctable. Thus, Bryman views the methods to be autonomous and therefore capable of being pressed into the service of another. Merriam (2009) on the other hand shares a similar view when she argues that the world is never fixed nor agreed upon and thus there are multiple constructions of reality and as such there is much to be gained in fusing qualitative and quantitative methods in a single research of social phenomena.

In addition, Robson (2002) further argues that there is no single rule that claims that only one method must be used in conducting social research and therefore suggests that using more methods in a single research has a considerable advantage although it may be time consuming. From a technical version, Bryman (2012) also adds that combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study gives prominence strength to the data collection and data analysis techniques with which both research are each associated and see them as capable of being fused in a single study.

To support the above arguments, Sale *et al.,* (2002) points out that the two approaches can be combined because they share the goal of understanding the world in which we live. They claim that both quantitative and qualitative researchers share a unified logic, and that the same rules of inferences apply to both. They further stress that the two approaches are also united by a shared commitment to understanding and improving the human condition, a common goal of disseminating knowledge for practical use, and a shared commitment for rigor, conscientiousness, and critique in the research process.

Grix (2004) further writes that as long as the researcher is aware of the way he or she is employing the use of a specific method and where the method is pointing towards and how it is related to the way he or she is using other methods it should not pose a problem. He further advice that, it is a good idea for social researchers to employ the use of several methods of enquiry to improve the chance of obtaining better, more reliable and minimise biases in final results. In light of the various arguments discussed in this chapter, methodological triangulation has provided a firm basis for most researchers in

social sciences to employ its usage and notwithstanding the criticisms, the mixed/multiple method approach of social research is gaining popularity. Most importantly, the mixed method/multiple approach enabled the researcher to report a more comprehensive understanding of teacher participation in school decision-making in the participants natural setting, while addressing the 'how and why' teachers participate in school decision-making. It is however based on these arguments that this study adopted the mixed/multiple method approach.

4.5. Justification for Methodological Triangulation

Following the quantitative-qualitative debate, there is a clear indication that both approaches can be combined in areas such as education administration and management because the complexity of decision-making requires data from a large number of perspectives to be studied and analysed. This therefore calls for a methodological approach that aims at achieving the 'logic of triangulation' Denzin (1989). According to Mikkelsen (2005), methodological triangulation involves "within method" triangulation in which the same methods within one approach are used in different occasions and "between methods" triangulations where different methods within the two approaches are used in the same study. Cohen *et al.,* (2011, p.195) also defined triangulation as "the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour".

As noted by Mikkelsen and Cohen *et al.,* the researcher used combined methods within both qualitative and quantitative approaches (between methods) to collect data to inform the study. The qualitative methods the researcher employed for this study included semi-structured interviews, micro-ethnography (participant observation) and documents analysis. The close ended questionnaire survey was also employed as a quantitative tool. The researcher's decision to use a combination of methods emanated from the fact that the on-going debate has shown that no single method will be totally sufficient to capture information especially the most important ones that will

inform a study of this nature, additionally, the researcher ensured that the data gathered for this study was reliable and valid in terms of its credibility, transferability, dependability and consistency as further discussed in section 4.8 (page 94). Therefore the researcher believes that the combination of various methods within the qualitative and quantitative approaches will improve the chances of getting a better, more reliable and enable him minimise the chance of biased results (Grix, 2004). Bryman (2012) however, indicates that the notion of triangulation is rooted in the belief in "multiple operationism" which posits that the validity of findings and the degree of confidence in them will be enhanced by the deployment of more than one approach to data collection.

The justification for employing methodological triangulation enabled the researcher to explore his research questions from different angles/perspective to obtain a better understanding of the reality of teacher participation in school decision-making. Moreover, the researchers' choice of both approaches was influenced by the dynamics of teacher participation in school decision-making in basic schools. The main purpose of the study was to find out the extent to which teachers participate in school decisions, specifically in relation to the four dimensions of school governance: goals, management, curriculum and instruction and staff development. Therefore, employing qualitative method such as the semi-structured interviews, participant observation and document analysis were considered the most appropriate tools for collecting in-depth and rich information from teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors in their natural setting than employing only quantitative methods. Thus combining these methods provided the opportunity to garner in-depth and rich data (Patton, 2002; Morse, 1991) from different categories of participants to answer the research questions of the study.

4.6. Research Design

Examining the existing literature, it was evident that teacher participation in decision-making is crucial for school improvement. It was also revealed that within the school organisation head teachers are burdened with who, how and to what extent teachers should be involved in school decision-making. However, the organisational literature further revealed that most studies conducted in the African context have lauded PDM as the best approach to school improvement and policy implementation (Lewis and Naidoo, 2004; Oduro, 2007; Dampson, 2011) in African schools. Yet, it has been argued among scholars that empirically based studies demonstrating that PDM actually improves schools and teacher outcomes remain inconclusive. Furthermore, the literature indicates that most research conducted in the developed countries reported moderately positive relationships between PDM and school improvement. However, studies in Ghana and other African countries are yet to substantiate such results. This study therefore seeks to find out the current trends of teacher PDM, factors that influence or affect teacher PDM and the relationship between PDM and school improvement in Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality in the Central Region of Ghana.

In order to address the research questions set out by this study, the study was designed in three phases (see figure 4.2, page 89). In each phase the researcher adopted specific research tool(s) to answer the research questions. Phase one of the study (see figure 4.2) was designed to collect data from respondents in a survey using a close-ended questionnaire. Phase two employed semi-structured interview to elicit responses from participants, while in phase three a case study approach was employed through the use of micro-ethnography/participant observation and analysis of documents to garner data to support the findings from the questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews in phases one and two.

Given the study's emphasis on teacher participation in school decision-making with reference to the four dimensions of school governance, the researcher adopted the sequential explanatory design which fits into the three phases of

data collection as shown in figure 4.2 (page 89). The mixed methods sequential explanatory design according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) consists of two distinct phases: quantitative followed by qualitative was embed in the study's design. In this design, the researcher first collected and analysed the quantitative (numeric) data. The qualitative (text) data were collected and analysed 5 months after obtaining the quantitative results. The analysis and results obtained from the questionnaire survey from phase one was used to develop and structure the interview guide for phase two. In phase three, the findings from phase one were used to select schools to be observed and the themes that emerged from phase two were subsequently used to construct the observation and analysis of document guide.

Indeed, the sequential explanatory design adopted for the study enabled the researcher shed light on the complex educational structures in Ghana where decision-making is crucial for school development. The design further enabled the researcher to develop qualitative instruments (semi-structured interview, participants' observation, document analysis) to support the quantitative findings of the study.

Consequently, since decision-making behaviour of head teachers and teachers (in their natural settings) was the focus of this study, both the quantitative and qualitative methods adopted for the study enabled the researcher to explore the participants' views in more in-depth (Creswell, 2003). However, Greene (2007) is of the view that the purpose for mixing methods in explanatory design is for value-based and ideological reasons more than for reasons related to methods and procedures.

In order to address Greene's point, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) proposed two distinct types of explanatory design: the follow-up explanations model and the participant's selection model. In the fellow-up explanations model, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) opine that the model is used when a researcher needs qualitative data to explain or expand on quantitative results. While in participant selection model, a researcher needs quantitative information to identify and purposefully select participants for a follow-up, in-depth,

qualitative study. The emphasis according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) is usually on the second qualitative phase of the study.

Figure 4.2 Design for the Study

PHASE	OBJECTIVES	METHOD	PARTICIPANTS	RESEARCH QUESTIONS
ONE	To find out the current trends of teacher PSDM. Investigate the extent of teacher PSDM in relation to the four dimensions of school governance.	Questionnaires (closed ended type)	Teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors (randomly sampled)	1.What are the current trends of teacher PSDM in Ghanaian Basic Schools? 3.In what ways does teacher PSDM affect school improvement in Cape Coast and Mfantseman basic Schools?
TWO	Investigate the extent of head teachers' and circuit supervisors' support for teacher PSDM. Identify factors that facilitate or prevent teacher PSDM. To find out the current levels of teacher PSDM in relation to the four dimensions of school governance. Views held by teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors on PSDM and school improvement.	Interview (semi-structured)	Teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors (randomly sampled)	1.What are the current trends of teacher PSDM in Cape Coast and Mfantseman basic schools? 1a.What views and experiences do teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors hold about PSDM 2. What factors facilitate or prevent teacher PSDM in Cape Coast and Mfantseman basic Schools? 2a.To what extent do head teachers and circuit supervisors support teacher PSDM?
THREE	Support findings with and suggest achievable suggestion for effective teacher PSDM in basic schools in Ghana.	Case Study (participant & non-participant observation, documents	Purposive random sample. Criterion sample	3. In what ways does teacher PSDM affect school improvement in Ghanaian Basic Schools?

As illustrated in figure 4.2 and explained in this chapter, this study needed the quantitative data to identify and purposefully select participants to be interviewed and observed. Hence, the researcher followed-up with the qualitative data collection.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) outlined the following as the strengths and challenges of the explanatory design.

Strengths:
- The two phase structure makes it straightforward to implement, because the researcher conducts the two methods in separate phases and collects only one type of data at a time. This means that a single researcher can conduct this design; a research team is not required to carry out the design.
- The final report can be written in two phases, making it straightforward to write and providing a clear delineation for readers.
- This design lends itself to multiphase investigations, as well as single mixed methods studies.

Challenges:
- This design requires a lengthy amount of time for implementing the two phases. Researchers should recognise that the qualitative phase (depending on the emphasis) will take more time than the quantitative phase, but that the qualitative phase can be limited to few participants.
- The researcher must decide whether to use the same individual for both phases, to use individual from the same sample for both phases, or to draw participants from the same population for the two phases.
- Investigators need to specify criteria for the selection of participants for the qualitative phase of the research. Options include the use of demographic characteristics, groups used in comparison during the qualitative phase, and the individual who vary on select predictors.

Based on the strengths of the explanatory design the researcher adopted the explanatory sequential mixed method for the study.

4.7. Ethical Consideration for the Study

The Code of Ethics for this study was informed and guided by the principles of the Code of Ethics of the University of Northampton and guidance document issued by the British Educational Research Association (BERA 2011) and the Data Protection Law of Ghana (2012).

The most important aspect of this study was the voluntary and informed participation. Seale, Gobo, Gubrium and Silverman (2004) claim that participants have the right to know that they are being researched, the right to be informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw at any time.

To demonstrate that all participants took part in the study voluntarily, all the participants agreed and signed consent forms and were given as much information as possible about the study, spelling out all the risks and benefits (see appendices 1, 2, 3, & 4). The benefits outweighed the risks as it was a study about them. The respondents held the destiny of the study as full and active participants who were creators and end users of the study (Bryman, 2012). Despite appending their signature to give their consent, the researcher further identified four key ethical issues to ensure that all participants were safe before, during and after their participation.

Firstly, the researcher ensured that all participants were safe from harm that may come as a result of the study. The researcher ensured that all the interviews were conducted in an agreed safe room which was convenient for both the participants and the researcher. Secondly, meetings were held with all groups of participants and the researcher made sure that they had enough information about the study and that their identity would not be disclosed. Lastly, the researcher ensured that all the data collected was by mutual consent and not by deception. Apart from all these measures, there were four areas addressed as part of the researcher's adherence to research ethics. These are discussed in the next sub-chapters.

4.7.1 Access and Consent

The principle underpinning the meaning of informed consent entails giving as much information as possible about the research so that prospective participants can make an informed decision about their possible involvement (Silverman, 2010). The researcher made sure all prospective participants received a letter of invitation to participate in the study and an information sheet, explaining the purpose, roles and significance of the study as indicated in appendices 2, 3, 4, & 5. Cohen *et al.,* (2011) suggest that researchers should consult and seek permission from those responsible for the prospective subject. This was a very important issue in this study as the researcher encountered some teachers who from past experiences had been deceived and coerced by some researchers. As required by law, these participants needed further consent to be sought from the Director of Education of the metropolis and the municipality respectively. The researcher also made sure that the study did not proceed without the consent of the Regional Director of Education, metropolitan and the municipal Directors of Education for Cape Coast and Mfantseman respectively as shown in appendices 15 & 16.

4.7.2 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Confidentiality and anonymity require the researcher to take steps to ensure that the research data and its sources remain confidential unless participants have consented to their disclosure, and in this latter case plans have been ensured for its storage and access (Silverman, 2010; Bryman, 2012). The researcher ensured that the data collected for this study was used for research purposes only. Participant's identity remained anonymous before, during and after the research. In accordance with the Data Protection Act of 1998, participants were assured that no part of the information collected will be shared with third parties, however, if needed for any other purposes such as publication and other academic purposes, the researcher and the participants agreed further consent needed to be sought. Furthermore all data collected and used were kept in a locked cabinet no further than the required time of the study. In cases where participants felt that they had been harmed or there was

potential cause for harm, they were free to withdraw without giving any reason.

4.7.3 Rights, Safety and Wellbeing of Participants and the Researcher

In all cases of research Silverman (2010) and Bryman (2012) remind us that research should be conducted in such a way that it minimises harm or risk to individuals. They cautioned that participants' interests or wellbeing should not be damaged as a result of their participation in the research. To ensure participants rights, the participants were informed by the researcher in writing that their participation was voluntary and they had the right to refuse to participate or withdraw from the study whenever and for whatever reason they wished without any explanation. Furthermore, all interviews took place in an agreed setting or location that was convenient for both the participant and the researcher, taking into consideration the safety, comfortability and privacy of the respondents and the researcher. In addition, all health and safety rules of the premises where interviews and observations took place were adhered to.

4.7.4 Independence and Impartiality of the Researcher

Who we are, our past experiences and interests determine our position in the research that we conduct (Punch, 2009). Silverman (2010) and Punch (2009) however, caution researchers to ensure that there is no undeclared conflict of interest which may be personal, academic or commercial in their proposed work and that the relation between the source of funding and researcher's control of results should be made clear, specifically in relation to ownership, publication and subsequent use of the data.

The researcher's position as a former basic school teacher in the Cape Coast metropolis is vulnerable to criticism. However, having left the teaching profession for over a decade and half ago, the researcher was in a position to have fairly easy access to information and through the lenses of the critics. It will be difficult to either criticise or be lenient to the schools within the metropolis the researcher had previously worked. However, it should also be

noted that this study was not a critical review of the school organisation or review of the educational system in Ghana, nor an analysis of the decision-making process that exist in basic schools. This study aimed at addressing issues regarding teacher participation in school decision-making in four dimensions of school governance. The study further identified the levels and barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making and suggested practical recommendations. In doing that, the researcher was actually constructively bringing to focus what needs to be done for teachers to fully participate in school decision-making. In addition, the researcher did not use any previous position as a basic school teacher to influence any decisions and findings in the study. Furthermore, all participants were made known the source of funding, and other parties interested in the findings of the study (see appendix 3).

4.8 Validity and Reliability

All research studies are concerned with producing valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical manner (Merriam, 2009). In establishing validity and reliability using mixed/multiple methods, Merriam (2009) argues that in using qualitative instruments, the researcher should provide the reader with a depiction in enough detail to show that the researcher's conclusion makes sense by describing people's actions in events. Merriam underlines the fact that in qualitative research, the criteria for trusting the study are going to be different than the discovery of law or testing a hypothesis.

Many writers such as Merriam (2009), Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Creswell (2003) who writes on validity and reliability in qualitative research argue that qualitative research, which is based on different assumptions about reality and a different world view, should consider validity and reliability from a perspective congruent with the philosophical assumptions underlying the paradigm. From the on-going suggestions, Lincoln and Guba (1985) listed credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability, to substitute internal validity, external validity and reliability.

The issue of validity and reliability as Merriam (2009) writes has been an ongoing debate. Creswell (2003) for example, applies somewhat different criteria for evaluating how "good" a narrative study is compared to phenomenological research, grounded theory research, ethnographic research, or case study research. However, Wolcott (1994) takes yet another direction arguing "the absurdity of validity" (p.364). Instead of validity what Wolcott seeks is "something else, a quality that points more to identifying critical elements and wringing plausible interpretations from them, something one can purpose without becoming obsessed without finding the right or ultimate answer, the correct, the truth" (p.366). For Wolcott, that "something else" is, understanding.

From the on-going discussions; this study sought the credibility, consistency/dependability and transferability of the instruments used for the study.

4.8.1 Credibility

Credibility, according to Merriam (2009) deals with the question of how research findings match reality. How congruent are the findings with reality? Do these findings capture what is really there? Are investigators observing or measuring what they think they are measuring. Ratcliff (1983), however, offers an interesting perspective when he argues that validity must be assessed in terms of something other than reality itself because reality can never be grasped. The "something" is Lincoln and Guba (1985) notion of credibility; that is, are the findings credible given the data presented. However, Maxwell (2005) noted that one can never really capture reality and that reality is relative.

Although it's been argued that using qualitative instruments one can never capture an objective "truth or reality", there are a number of strategies that can be used to increase the credibility of findings, or as Wolcott (2005, p.160) writes, "increase the correspondence between research and the real world". This study in an attempt to increase credibility used multiple methods to triangulate the findings.

In using multiple methods, the researcher checked participants' responses to the questionnaires with their views expressed during the semi-structured interviews against what was observed on site and the relevant documents that were analysed. Triangulation using multiple sources of data was done by comparing and cross-checking data collected through observations at different schools and times, interview data collected from participants with different perspectives and the findings from the questionnaire survey.

In using member checks/respondent validation the researcher solicited feedbacks on emerging findings from some of the participants being interviewed. Participants' voices were also replayed back to them to confirm their views on the emerging themes. This is a way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do, and the perspectives they have on the emerging themes, as well as being an important way of finding my own biases and misunderstanding of what is being observed (Maxwell, 2005). In addition, the researcher took the transcribed script back to respondents to inquire from them whether their interpretation "rings true". In many instances, participants did their own corrections when they recognised differences in their interpretations and suggested some fine-tuning to better capture their perspectives.

4.8.2 Consistency and Dependability

Qualitative research instruments are not used in research so that laws of human behaviour can be isolated (Merriam, 2009). Rather, researchers seek to describe and explain the world as those in the world would experience it. Wolcott (2005) underscores the inappropriateness of considering reliability in studying human behaviour. He argues that, in order to achieve reliability in that technical sense, a researcher has to manipulate conditions so that replicability can be assessed. Similarly, Merriam supports Wolcott's assertion that human behaviour is never static and many experiences are necessarily more reliable than what one person experiences. This means that all reports of personal experiences are not necessarily unreliable, any more than, all reports of events witnessed by a large number of people are reliable (Merriam, 2009). Merriam

argues that researchers using qualitative instruments should be more concern with whether the results are consistent with the data collected. In ensuring consistency and dependability, Merriam suggested triangulation, peer examination, investigators position and audit trail.

To ensure consistency and dependability for this study, the researcher used multiple methods of collecting data such as the use of questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, participant observation and document analysis to obtain consistency and dependability.

In using audit trial to ensure consistency and dependability, the researcher employed independent researchers to authenticate the findings of the study by following the trail of the study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Richards (2005) adds that a good quality research gets much of its claim to validity from the researcher's ability to show convincingly how they got there and how they built confidence that this was the best account possible. The study in chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 described in detailed how data was collected and analysed, the ethical consideration, and how themes emerged as the findings throughout the study. To keep abreast with the study, record memos, field notes and dairy on the process of conducting the research as it is being undertaken was kept.

4.8.3 Transferability

Transferability is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations. That is, how generalisable are the results of the study. Guba and Lincoln (1981) argue that for a study to be transferable, the study must first be internally valid. In using qualitative instruments, Merriam (2009) writes that a single case or small, non-random, purposeful sample is selected precisely because the researcher wishes to understand the particular in-depth, not to find out what is generally true of the many.

In this sense, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the notion of transferability in which the burden of proof lies with the original investigator than with the person seeking to make an application elsewhere. What they

argue is that the investigator needs to provide "sufficient descriptive data" to make transferability possible" (p.298). As Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.125) writes, "the best way to ensure the possibility of transferability is to create a "thick description of the study context so that someone in a potential receiving context may assess the similarity between them and the study". To ensure transferability, Merriam (2009) suggests that careful attention should be paid to selecting the study sample, whether be it the sites selected for the study or the participants interviewed. To enhance transferability for this, the researcher made sure the study sites selected reflected rural, semi-rural, urban and semi-urban towns. Schools were also randomly sampled from both sites of the study to reflect a fair representation of schools from rural-urban and urban areas of the study. The researcher also made sure that the participants who were randomly sampled (head teachers and teachers) had been in the current school for more than one academic year.

Denscombe (2003) also argues that the ability to generalize the findings of a study depends on how similar the other settings are to the setting of the study. Although the case studied in this research might be similar to others in Ghana, the researcher's aim was not to generalize the findings of the study but to make a 'fuzzy generalization' where applicable. Moreover, the researcher sought to suggest practicable recommendation and add to existing literature by enhancing the understanding of the current levels of teacher participation in school decision-making in Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality. However, if readers find sufficient similarities between their contexts and the context of the study, then it is reasonable for them to transfer some of the findings to their individual contexts.

As this study was a mixed/multiple method research project, it was difficult to generate objective results. The researcher was embedded in prejudices of his own knowledge, values, biases and convictions which may have had impact to some extent, on the findings of the study. However, the researcher endeavoured to ensure that the meanings and findings of this study were not changed by his knowledge, past and present experiences. The researcher fur-ther ensured that the results of the study was based on facts rather than the

feelings of the researcher (objective), it can also be traced back to the raw data of the research, that they are not merely a product of the observer's worldview, disciplinary assumptions, theoretical proclivities and research interests' (Charmaz, 2014). The researcher achieved this by using an audit trail as indicated earlier in the chapter, which provided a means of ensuring that themes could be seen to have emerged directly from the data, thereby confirming the research findings and grounding them in the evidence or raw data (Schwandt, 2007 and Denzin, 2012).

4.9 Summary of Chapter 4

In this chapter, the researcher detailed his research design with regards to the research process, choices of methods and the direction of the study. The researcher further discussed the study's approaches to data collection in three phases. Furthermore, ethical consideration for the study had been sufficiently discussed. In addition to that, claims about the validity and reliability of the data collected in the study have been dealt with. The next chapter presents the instruments used for the study, procedure for data collection and the piloting process.

CHAPTER 5

INSTRUMENTS, PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION AND PILOTING

5.0 Introduction

Questionnaires and interviews are common occurrences in social life, because there are many different forms of questionnaires and interviews such as job questionnaires and interviews, police questionnaires and interviews and appraisal ones. Although there are different forms of questionnaires and interviews, Bryman (2012) points out that these different kinds share some common features such as eliciting of information by the researcher and the operation of rules of varying degrees of formality or explicitness concerning the conduct of the questionnaire or the interview. In this study, the aim of the researcher was to elicit rich and in-depth information from respondents through close-ended questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, participant observations (micro-ethnography) and document analysis.

In this chapter, the main instruments that were used to collect data from participants, how data was collected, distributed and retrieved is discussed in detailed. Furthermore, the population and the sample for the study are also discussed. In addition, the challenges encountered during the piloting stage and measures used to address them are also discussed.

5.1 Data Collection Instruments

The main instruments that were employed to collect data for the study were closed-ended questionnaires survey, semi-structured interviews, participant observation (micro ethnography), and document analysis. These instruments were deemed appropriate for this study because they ensured and enabled the researcher to collect rich and in-depth information from representative participants. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) are of the view that data collection is a process that involves both interactive and non-interactive

strategies. The use of document analysis as non-interactive strategy by the researcher served as a form of triangulation to check for some consistency from data produced through semi-structured interviews as an interactive strategy. It must however be noted that data for this study was collected sequentially as indicated previously in figure 4.2 of chapter four.

5.2 The Questionnaire Survey (Closed-ended Questionnaires)

The study adopted a closed-ended questionnaire survey as the first instrument to collect data from three groups of respondents namely; head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors from the two sites of the study. The questionnaire survey for the study, as indicated in previous chapter, was adopted from Rice and Schneider (1994) Decision Involvement Analysis (DIA) and OECD Teaching & Learning International Survey (TALIS) (2001) which has been tested in 21 countries and has proved consistent and reliable. The TALIS and DIA were adopted and modifications were made to fit the Ghanaian educational culture and context. The original DIA instrument, for example, is a set of 20 items with Cronbach alpha coefficient ranging from 0.79 to 0.92.

The researcher used the questionnaire survey to collect demographic data, data on staff development, participation in management decision-making, participation in curriculum and instruction, participation in goals and school improvement from teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. The purpose of using the closed-ended questionnaire for this study was to gather data from sizeable number of respondents to support findings from the sample to the population of public basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and the Mfantseman municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. The researcher also used the themes that emerged from the analysis of the questionnaire survey to construct the interview guide for the study in phase 2.

After piloting, the questionnaire items were restructured and reworded. The restructuring and rewording of the questionnaire were important because although the DIA and TALIS were accepted instruments and have been used

widely for measuring decision-making and school improvement in Europe and USA, and researchers such as Wadesango (2011), Lewis and Naidoo (2004), and Dampson (2011) have adopted and used it successfully in Africa, the different environment for which it was used by the researcher called for restructuring and rewording of some of the items to fit the environment for which it was used. The first step the researcher took to restructure and reword the items in the questionnaire was to have in-depth discussions with some experienced teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors in the Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality. Secondly, informal interviews and discussions were held with the human resource personnel at the regional education office, the secretary of Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), the Inspectorate director of schools and other senior members at the GES offices at Cape Coast and Mfantseman. Thirdly, colleague lecturers and the director of research at the University of Education, Wineba (UEW) also contributed to the restructuring and rewording of the questionnaire items after a presentation at the University of Education, Winneba. Finally, the researcher's fellow PhD candidates at the University of Northampton, School of Education and supervisors also assisted in developing the questionnaire items.

In an attempt to provide validity and reliability for the questionnaire survey, the instrument was piloted in Ghana between August and October 2012. Participants were randomly sampled from a different study site (Effutu Municipality) which has similar characteristics as the actual study sites. Questionnaires were distributed personally to participants. The feedbacks from participants were further used to ensure the content and construct validity of the questionnaire survey. To ascertain the content validity, all the four domain of school governance were fairly and comprehensively covered in the questionnaire. Again, items on teacher participation in decision-making and school improvement were both fairly represented in the questionnaire. Finally, the main issues such as management decision, goals, staff development, curriculum and instruction and school improvement under investigation were addressed in depth and breadth with regard to the available literature.

In ensuring construct validity the researcher correlated the four dimensions of

school governance with the available literature from the Ghanaian and other African context to ascertain whether the questionnaires fit into the available literature within the Ghanaian context. After piloting, the researcher found out that some of the wordings and terminologies used in the construct were foreign to respondents. Further discussions were held with some experienced teachers, head teachers, circuit supervisors, and other officers at the Ghana Education Service (GES) and Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) to confirm the construct of the questionnaire items with current literature available within the Ghanaian context. Further corrections and amendments were made to the construct of the questionnaire to fit into the Ghanaian education context.

After validating the questionnaires, they were further subjected to reliability test. Reliability of the questionnaires were obtained by using the Statistical Package for Service Solution version 20 [SPSS]. This allowed the questionnaire to be used to develop the semi-interview guide .The questionnaire was administered to 35 teachers, 12 head teachers and 3 circuit supervisors who were randomly sampled from the Effutu Municipality for pre-testing. The Cronbach Alpha was used to determine the internal consistency. The overall Alpha reliability was 0.8093 for teachers, 0.8996 for head teachers and 0.8066 for circuit supervisors.

The closed-ended questionnaire instrument used for this study consisted of 6 sections (A to F). Section A consisted of 9 items for head teachers, 10 items for teachers and 5 items for circuit supervisors. These items gathered information on age, gender, employment status, level of formal education, and years spent on the job (see appendices 7, 8, & 9).

Section 'B' of the questionnaire was designed to elicit information on staff development such as attendance of workshop/in-service training in leadership management skills, education upgrade, and supervisory skills. The total items for head teachers consisted of 14 and 13 items for teachers and circuit supervisors. In section 'B' items were grouped into two parts. Items in the first part of section 'B' were measured on a five-point Likert scale.

1- strongly agree

2- agree

3- neutral

4- disagree

5- strongly disagree

Items in the second part of section of 'B' were also measured on a four-point Likert scale as shown below.

1- high level of need

2- moderate level of need

3- low level of need

4- no level need

Items in section 'C' of the questionnaire was also designed to collect information on school expenditure, teacher evaluation, allocation of TLM and students performance. Section 'C' consisted of respondent views on teaching methodology, determining type of student assessment and TLM, and grading and students promotion. Questionnaire items in section 'C' for head teachers consisted of 10 items, 7 items for teachers and 8 items for circuit supervisors respectively. Items in section 'C' were also measured on a five-point Likert scale consisted as shown below.

1- strongly agree

2- agree

3- neutral

4- disagree

5- strongly disagree

In section 'D', questionnaire items were structured to elicit responses on teacher participation in teaching and learning (curriculum and instruction) decisions made during staff meetings. Questionnaire items in this section included statements such as determining procedure for assessing students, teaching and learning content, methodologies to be used and rewarding and promotion of students. Questionnaire items in this section for head teachers

and circuit supervisors consisted of 7 items each and 6 items for teachers. Items in section 'D' for head teachers and teachers were also measured on a five-point Likert scale as shown below.

1- strongly agree

2- agree

3- neutral

4- disagree

5- strongly disagree

However, items for circuit supervisors were measured on a four-Likert scale point to find out the frequency level of circuit supervisors involvement of teachers in curriculum and instruction.

1- every time

2- quite often

3- often

4- sometimes

In section 'E', the questionnaire items were designed specifically to elicit information on the frequency of participation of teachers in determining the goals of the school. Items in this section were structured to elicit information on academic goals, school related problems, usage of finances, informed educational possibilities and school performance appraisal meeting report (SPAM). Questionnaire items in this section for head teachers and teachers consisted of 7 items and 6 items for circuit supervisors. To ascertain teacher's participation in these areas, a four-Likert scale point was used as a measuring tool.

1- every time

2- quite often

3- often

4- sometimes

In section 'F', the questionnaire items were structured to elicit information on

school improvement. Items such as improvement in academic standards, teaching and learning, enrolment, punctuality and commitment of teachers, workshops, and infrastructure were included. The total number of items for head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors consisted of 9 items each. The 9 items in section F were all measured on a five-point Likert scale as shown below.

1- very satisfied

2- satisfied

3- neutral

4- dissatisfied

5- very dissatisfied

5.2.1 Population of the Study

Keeping in mind issues arising with access to schools and given the geographical terrain of Ghana and related transport barriers, the study collected data from public basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. The population for the study comprised of all teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors in Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality. The Cape Coast metropolis has a population of 1161 teachers of which 978 are professionally trained and 183 untrained (Metro education office records 2012). The Mfantseman municipality on the other hand has a population of 608 teachers of which 495 are professionally trained and 133 untrained (Municipal education office records 2012). Basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolis are grouped under 6 circuits, while the Mfantseman municipality had 8 circuits respectively.

Cohen *et al.,* (2011) noted that the quality of a piece of research not only stands or falls by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted. Cohen *et al.,* (2005) further argue that a correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny. However, they suggested that if a researcher plans to use some form of statistical analysis in

data, the minimum required is 30 respondents. They further stressed that the number of variables the researcher set out to control in his/her analysis and the type of statistical tests that the researcher wish to involve must inform his/her decision about sample size prior to the actual research work. In this study the researcher's sample size was informed by the nature of the topic, methodology adopted and the type of analysis used for the study.

5.2.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure for the Questionnaire Survey

Sampling refers to the process of selection of observant to be studied with the following steps:

- Defining the population
- Selecting an appropriate sampling frame
- Selecting a method of sampling and
- Deciding on an appropriate sample size and selecting sample (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011)

However, Walter (2006) opines that sampling is done for two fold reasons:

- Surveying all members of a given population which is generally not practicable
- Selecting a sample using probability sampling enables a researcher to draw accurate inferences from the sample and generalise them to the entire population of interest.

The basis of sampling as suggested by Merriam (2009) can be either probability or non-probability. Creswell (2009) acknowledged that the selection process for individual, particularly, from large sample, through a random sample is more desirable than non-probability sample, and is an extremely powerful technique and a primary method because it ensures representativeness of a sample from a population.

Sampling technique can also be either single-stage or multistage (clustering). Creswell opine that single-stage sampling procedure is one which the

researcher has access to names in the population and can sample the people (or other elements) directly. However, in a multi-stage or clustering procedure, the researcher first identifies a cluster (groups or organisations), obtains names of individuals within those clusters and then sample within the clusters.

In this study, the researcher adopted the multi-stage sampling to select the location, the schools and the participants. This included three stages:

- Geographical areas/metropolis and municipals (primary units)
- Schools from each circuits (secondary units)
- Participants (tertiary units)

First, a sample of 1 metropolis and 1 municipality was conveniently drawn from a total of 1 metropolis, 6 municipalities and 10 district assemblies from the Central Region of Ghana based on geographical location, access to schools, time and funds, and duration of the study as illustrated in figure 5.1 (page 110).

At the second stage, samples of 23 schools were randomly drawn from Cape Coast metropolis (12 schools) and Mfantseman municipality (11 schools) as illustrated in figure 5.1. Two schools were randomly sampled from the 6 circuits each from Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality respectively, summing up to 24 schools. However, one was not accessible due to the nature of the road and time.

During the third stage, a criterion-based selection was drawn to access participants who fit in the following criterion:

- Teachers must have taught in present school for one or more academic year
- Teacher must be a full time/permanent
- Head teacher must have been a head teacher at present school for one or more academic year
- Circuit supervisor must have also been at present post for more than one or more academic year.

Upon having access to all respondents who fits into the above criterion, the researcher randomly sampled a minimum of 10 teachers each from the 23 schools (235) and questionnaires were subsequently distributed, however, in some schools more than 10 teachers were sampled to make up for unforeseen circumstances were not retrieved. All the head teachers (29) from the sampled schools became automatic participants because they represented the 23 schools. The 11 circuit supervisors also became automatic participants as each of them represent each of the 11 circuits in Cape Coast and Mfantseman respectively. Figure 5.1 (page 110) summarizes how sampling was done.

5.2.3 Administration and Retrieval of the Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaire survey was administered to participants by the researcher from 11th to 22nd March, 2013. The questionnaires were retrieved from participants by the researcher from 25th March to 19th April, 2013. All the questionnaires were however, administered and retrieved personally by the researcher to all the participants. Before the administration of the questionnaires, the researcher was issued with a letter from the Director of Education from both Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality (see appendices 15 & 16). Copies of the permission and access letters were then given to all the sampled schools to officially inform them about their participation. The researcher further made a minimum of 2 visits each to the 21 sampled schools to further gain access to head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors and also establish rapport with participants. In each school the researcher visited, copies of letter of introduction were given to the head teacher who in turn introduce the researcher to the teachers. On gaining access to the teachers, a brief introduction about the researcher and the purpose of the study was made known to participants. After the brief, consent forms and participant information sheets were also given to all the teachers and head teachers who fit into the category (serving more than a year in a school) and willing to respond to the questionnaire to read and append their signature. However, the consent forms and participants information sheets for

circuit supervisors were given to them in their offices where the researcher visited after gaining access through a letter by the Director of Education.

Figure 5.1 Sample and Sampling Procedure

STAGE 1 (Geographical Area)

1 metropolis, 6 municipalities and 10 district assemblies in the Central Region

Convenience Sampling/Random

Cape Coast Metropolitan and Mfantseman Municipality

STAGE 2 (School from each sites)
Random Sampling

12 schools were randomly sampled for Cape Coast
11 schools were randomly sampled from Mfantseman

Random Sampling of school

12 basic schools from Cape Coast
11 basic schools from Mfantseman

STAGE 3 (Participants)
Randomly Sampling/Automatic respondents (Questionnaire)

125 teachers, 15 head teachers & 6 circuit supervisors from Cape Coast
110 teachers, 14 head teachers & 5 circuit supervisors from Mfantseman

Purposeful Random and Criterion-Based Selection (Interviews and Observation)

2 head teachers, 6 teachers, & 2 circuit supervisors from Cape Coast
2 head teachers, 5 teachers, & 2 circuit supervisors from Mfantseman

2 schools, 1 with highest and 1with lowest level of teacher PDM were selected

After a week, the consent forms were retrieved by the researcher from teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors who consented to take part in the study. In order to work within the estimated sample of 250 teachers and 21 head teachers, a minimum of 10 participants each were randomly sampled and were given questionnaires to answer. The targeted respondents for each of the 21 schools were 10 teachers and one head teacher. However, as each circuit has one circuit supervisor, all of them became automatic respondents and those who consented were given questionnaires.

In most cases the researcher returned to the schools at an agreed date and time to collect the completed questionnaires. However, the researcher had to visit most of the schools more than once before the completed questionnaires were retrieved. Retrieval of the questionnaires from circuit supervisors were much easier as their team leaders volunteered to collect the questionnaires in a sealed envelope which was handed over to the researcher within two weeks of administration.

During the retrieval of the questionnaires, the researcher unofficially enquired from participants for their unofficial consent to be interviewed. This enabled the researcher to create a 'pool of participants' which were randomly sampled and interviewed for the actual study.

5.2.4 Data Analysis of the Questionnaire Survey

The purpose of analysis is to describe or explore data, to test a hypothesis, to seek correlations, to identify differences between two or more groups and to look for underlying groupings of data (Cohen *et al.,* 2011). In analysing quantitative data, Bryman (2012) and Cohen *et al.,* (2011) suggest that selecting a statistical test to be used depend on the scales of data being treated (nominal-ratio) and the task which the researcher wishes to perform – the purpose of the analysis.

Adhering to the above suggestions, and having in mind the research objectives, questions and descriptive picture of the data to be obtained on various themes

such as participation levels of teachers in DM across the four dimensions of school governance, and current participation levels, and factors that influence teacher PDM. The data were correlated using the SPSS version 20. The data were analysed and presented in tables and charts using simple percentages and frequency distributions. Simple percentages were used to draw tables and charts to show a pictorial representation of the responses between the two sites. Simple percentages were used for the analysis because the researcher found it appropriate and easy to express respondent's views as a portion of a whole which portrayed easy understanding of respondent's views. In addition, the study did not aim to test or support hypotheses but, rather the study investigated the current levels of teacher participation and barriers to decision-making among participants in their natural setting

5.3 The Semi-Structured Interview

Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) describe semi-structured interview (SSI) technique as "asking a series of structured questions and then probing more deeply using open-form questions to obtain additional information" (p.240). In face-to-face interviews Seidman (2006) suggests that each participant is asked the same set of pre-determined questions, which should be interspersed with impromptu follow-up queries, intended to clarify participant responses. Specifically, the interview guide (see appendices 10, 11, & 12) for this study consisted of descriptions of teacher participation in decision-making situations along with specific inquiries regarding:

- School decision-making which is descriptive
- Participation in decision-making and
- School improvement

Additionally, themes such as participation levels, training/workshops and decision-making that emerged from the analysis of the questionnaire survey were however used to develop the interview guide. As a new instrument, the researcher subjected it to the review of his supervisors, PhD colleagues, and

colleague lecturers from the University of Education, Winneba and piloted the instruments with members of the study's population not in the sample group. The piloting consisted of 2 head teachers, 6 teachers and 2 circuit supervisors within the same region from which the rest of the data was collected.

Secondly, the researcher employed a schedule of questions for conducting detailed semi-structured interviews with the teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors participating in this study (see appendices 10, 11 & 12). After piloting, the initial interview guide items were trimmed from 13 to 10 for teachers, 14 to 11 for head teachers and circuit supervisors. The semi-structured interview guide for the three respondents was grouped into three sections:

- Section A: Decision-Making (descriptive)
- Section B: Opinions and expectations on decision-making
- Section C: Participation in Decision-making

The semi-structured interview items in section 'A' were structured to elicit respondents understanding of decision-making and how meetings were orgainsed to arrive at a decision. To get deeper meaning and understanding from respondents probing questions were also constructed to find out more from respondents.

Items in section 'B' were meant to elicit deep and rich information about respondent's opinions and expectations on decision-making. Respondent's feelings and expectations were sought on school decision-making, how and the areas they want to participate as well as the role(s) they prefer to play in decision-making.

Section 'C' comprised of participation in decision-making. This section sought to find out respondents views on how head teachers and circuit supervisors involved teachers in decision-making, barriers, and whether their school has improved through participative decision-making. Each interview lasted between 25-35 minutes.

5.3.1 Sampling Procedure for the Semi-Structured Interview

Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) recommend that a researcher who wishes to study experience of different schools from different locations (rural and urban) should adopt the maximum variation sampling technique. This sampling technique according Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) involves selecting cases that illustrate a range of variation in the phenomena to be studied. For example, this study wishes to study teacher participation in school decision-making from two study sites (urban and rural-urban). This sampling technique served two purposes: it enabled the researcher to have equal participation levels among respondents from the two study sites, and also enabled the researcher to determine whether common themes, patterns, and outcomes cut across the two study sites. In using the maximum variation sampling strategy the researcher created a "pool of participants" (Seidman, 2006) from the two sites during the retrieval of the questionnaire survey as discussed earlier on in this chapter. The 'pool of participants' verbally agreed to be interviewed and their details were taken. Further communication with them went on through emails, via phone calls and text messaging to establish contact. Upon gaining their verbal consent, copies of consent forms and participants information sheets were mailed to them to read and familiarize themselves with the content of each document and to develop and sustain their interest in the study.

In all 42 respondents comprising of teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors from the two study sites responded to the researcher's emails and phone calls indicating their willingness to participate. The researcher then adopted purposeful random sampling which according to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) involves selecting at random. However, the purpose of the random sampling adopted by the researcher was not to represent the population which was the purpose in questionnaire survey, rather, the purpose was to establish the sampling procedure which is not biased. This was done by grouping respondents into 2 groups (Cape Coast & Mfantseman) and 3 categories (teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors). The researcher then placed their names in a bowl and picked one after the other. In order to deal with unforeseen disappointments, the researcher randomly sampled 10 teachers, 4

head teachers and 4 circuit supervisors each from the 2 sites summing up to 36 respondents. However, 6 teachers, 2 head teachers and 2 circuit supervisors each were interviewed from the Cape Coast metropolitan area (Site 1) and 5 teachers, 2 head teachers and 2 circuit supervisors were also interviewed from Mfantseman municipality (Site 2) due to time, location, and availability of respondents (Merriam, 2009). In all 11 teachers, 4 head teachers and 4 circuit supervisors were interviewed from the two study sites.

5.3.2 Conducting the Semi-Structured Interview

The researcher began collecting data by contacting all the 42 respondents who verbally gave their consent to be interviewed. Within three days all the 42 respondents were contacted via telephone. The researcher then visited all the 42 respondents and distributed participants information sheets and request for an interview to participants (see appendices 2 & 5). In each school the researcher visited, time was allocated by the participant to the researcher to brief them on the progress of the study and what is expected from them as participants. On each request for interview forms respondents were required to indicate the venue, time and date for the interview to be conducted (see appendix 2). The semi-structured interview lasted between 25-35 minutes per a participant. However, few of them exceeded the 35 minutes target.

It was on the morning of Monday 18th November, 2013 when the researcher had 2 phone calls from 2 respondents requesting to be interviewed. On my arrival at the first school the respondent requested we had the interview in her classroom while the pupils were on lunch break. In most cases the researcher phoned respondents to remind them of their interview date and time. Almost all the interviews took place on the school premises while school was in session, except few that took place after school hours and in the offices of the head teacher and the circuit supervisors.

Each interview began with an explanation of the informed consent form and time was provided for the participant to sign the document. All respondents were satisfied with the researcher's explanation on the form; they skimmed the

contents and signed the required page. Also, the researcher asked all respondents' permission to tape record their interview for later transcription and analysis as indicated in the consent forms. All respondents' gave their consent. This was followed by a brief introduction from the researcher which includes a brief summary about the researcher, the title and purpose of the study, the interview and a brief self introduction from the respondents. To establish trust and rapport with respondents the researcher presented himself as both a researcher and a teacher where need be (Gal, Borg and Borg, 2003). All the interviews were conducted in English except in some few instances where both the researcher and the respondents communicated in their native language (Twi and Fanti) to clarify some statements made in English. This was very useful in the sense that it allowed the respondents to clearly spell out in their mother tongue what they might found difficult in communicating and some were also more confident in using the native language.

At the end of each section of the interview, the researcher summarised the responses for verification by the respondent. This enabled the respondents to either add or reconstruct some of their statements. All the interviews were recorded and played back to respondents at their request after and during the interview. During the interviews, probes were also used to further delve into issues raised by participants. While few participants requested for some part of the interview not to be recorded, the majority allowed everything to be taped. Taking short and brief notes directly during the interviews also enabled the researcher to facilitate his subsequent interviews. However, the tape recording was used as the main recording instrument because it reduced the tendency of the researcher to make an unconscious selection of data favouring his biases.

At the end of each interview data recorded were listened and transferred to a file for safe keeping and subsequently transcribed on the same day or a day after. In all an average of two interviews were conducted in a day. Overall, the semi-structured interview enabled the researcher to collect a standardized data across respondents, while also providing a capacity for a greater in-depth of information than a structured interview could allow (Patton, 2002). As such, during the interview process, the researcher asked follow-up questions when

further clarification was needed. The follow-up questions provided additional insights and outlined a more complete understanding of the participants' responses (Merriam, 2009).

5.3.3 Analysing the Semi-Structured Interview

After data have been collected and saved in a file, the researcher listened and transcribed the data on the same day or a day after each interview. In general, the researcher's focus was to identify common ideas, themes, and/or patterns that emerged from participants responses (Bryman, 2012; Merriam, 2009; Seidman, 2006; Gal *et al.,* 2003; Silverman, 2010). Specifically, the researcher utilized the data collected to help inform the study's research questions as stated in chapter 1. The following seven steps were used by the researcher:

Step 1: The interview data was transcribed by the researcher immediately following the scheduled interviews on daily basis, however, in some cases a day.

Step 2: The researcher sent the transcripts back to the participants who checked the material for accuracy, noting any problems or concerns with the data on the transcripts. Then, in an envelope, the participants were to make changes to the text if need be and hand it over in a sealed envelope back to the researcher on an agreed date and time. All the 19 transcripts were returned back with minor corrections made on the transcripts, which included wrong wordings, tenses, constructions and spellings, and these changes were duly made to reflect the respondent's views. However, those that were not clear enough, the researcher had one-on-one discussions with such respondents for further clarifications to be done.

Step 3: The researcher read all the transcribed materials, noting important ideas/themes/patterns in the margins of the text. The researcher also noted the textual material that addressed the research questions guiding the study.

Step 4: Using Nvivo software version 10, all the transcripts were placed in a file which was later captured in the Nvivo. Files were further created for each group of participants (e.g. teachers, head teacher, and circuit supervisors)

under Cape Coast metropolitan and Mfantseman municipality.

Step 5: Codes were generated out of the transcripts for each group of participants. Codes were further grouped under three categories namely: Section A–Decision-making (Descriptive), Section B–Opinions and Expectations on Decision-making and Section C–Participation in Decision-making. Each section was colour coded for easy identification of emergent themes from the codes and their relevance to the study's research questions.

Step 6: The emergent ideas/themes/patterns and transcript text related to the study's research questions were communicated through the dissertation results in detail, along with direct interview quotes that supported these results.

Step 7: The ideas/themes/patterns and transcript materials relevant to the study's research questions were compared and contrasted with texts found within the extant literature in the field as well as the results from the questionnaire survey, observations and analysis of documents.

In analyzing data collected through qualitative research studies, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest that a researcher need to understand and identify his or her personal values, assumptions, and biases. They further argue that in order to counteract some of the biases the researcher may introduce, the investigator incorporated measures to guard against this possibility. To do this, the researcher's supervisors, scholars in the field of study and graduate peer reviewers were periodically briefed through seminars and presentations about the methods and findings with the hope that they would call attention to any problems that may have occurred in my writing, results, and/or interpretations. This happened multiple times throughout the course of the dissertation process.

5.4 Participant Observation/Micro Ethnography

Observation is believed to be more than just looking. It is looking (often systematically) and noting systematically (always) people, events, behaviour, setting, artefacts, routines and so on (Simpson and Tuson, 2003). According to

Cohen *et al.,* (2011) observation is the "distinct feature of research process that offers an investigator the opportunity to collect life data from naturally occurring social situations" (p.456). This tool was vital for the researcher, because it enabled him garner first hand, rather than second hand information by looking at what was taking place in the real situation.

Many definitions of ethnography and participant observation are very difficult to distinguish. Bryman (2012) for instance argues that both ethnography and participant observation draw attention to the fact that both immerses the observer in a group for an extended period of time, observing behaviour, listening to what is said in conversations both between others and with the observer, and asking questions.

However, Bryman (2012) argues that the term ethnography sometimes taken to refer to a study which has a specific focus on the culture of a group people for an extended period of time which involves regular observations. Bryman however, suggests that "in studies where it is unlikely to conduct a full scale ethnography involving long period of time on the field in an organisation, as part of a community, or a company of a group, such study can be referred to as a micro-ethnography" (p.433). Inferring from Bryman's argument, micro-ethnography fits the type of observation used to collect data for this study because:

- The observation lasted for 3 months
- The observation was not on regular basis
- And the observer did not live in the social community with the participants

The purpose of the participant observation (micro-ethnography) was to allow the researcher to formulate his own version of what was occurring independent of the participants. Furthermore, the inclusion of participant observation enabled the researcher to provide a more complete description of the phenomena than would be possible by just referring to interview statements or documents (Gall, *et al.,* 2003). Just as important, the participant observation

(micro-ethnography) provided the researcher an alternate source of data for verifying the information obtained through questionnaires, interviews, and analysis of documents (triangulation).

Cohen *et al.,* (2007) concur with Morrison (1993) that observations enable the researcher to gather data on:

- The physical setting (e.g. the physical environment and its organisation)
- The human setting (e.g. the organisation of the people, the characteristics and makeup of the groups or individuals being observed).
- The interactional setting (e.g. the interactions that are taking places, formal, informal, planned, unplanned, verbal, non-verbal etc).
- The programme setting (e.g. the resources and their organisation, pedagogic, curricula and their organisation).

Taking into consideration Cohen *et al.,* suggestions, the observation guide for this study was structured to capture the main themes that emerged from the interviews as well as taking into consideration the research questions of the study. Therefore, the observation focused on the following main items:

- Type of meeting
- Physical setting of the meeting
- Relationships/interactions/activities among participants
- Participation level of teachers
- Direction of conversation and
- Strategy used to arrive at a decision

The observation guide was piloted in two different schools in the Effutu municipality where the questionnaire survey and interview guide were piloted. Under strict guidance from the researcher's supervisors, some of the items were found to be either irrelevant or observing the same activities. Those items found to be irrelevant or observing same activities were deleted while those that were not specific were reconstructed. In addition, jotted field notes and the school's documents such as staff and PTA minutes book were also analysed by the researcher to substantiate and support the observations. The jotted filed

notes included events, people, conversation, impressions and feelings about the participants and the location.

The micro-ethnography study was conducted in two schools respectively in a case study approach. These two schools were selected based on their level of teacher participation in school decision-making. From the analysis of the questionnaire survey two schools that showed the highest and lowest levels of teacher participation in school decision-making from the study's sites were selected and observed.

In order to find out which school had the highest teacher participation in decision-making, the means of the four main decision-making items in the questionnaire survey namely: staff development, managerial issues, curriculum and instruction and goals, vision and mission were calculated using the SPSS for each school. The total mean was calculated by adding up means from the four domains of decision-making for each school (see table 8.1, page 217 & 8.2, page 226). However, the means of schools with one head teacher for both primary and JHS were summed up and divided by 2 to get the average mean for each school, while schools with two head teachers for Primary and JHS maintained their total means as shown in table 8.1 and 8.2 respectively .

To select a case for the study, the school with the highest average mean score assumed the highest level of teacher participation, while the school with the lowest average mean score assumed the lowest teacher participation in decision-making respectively.

5.4.1 Procedure for Data Collection for Participant Observation/Micro Ethnography

In this study, participant observation (micro-ethnography) was used as a tool to observe the interaction of staff during morning briefings and meetings to triangulate the themes that emerged from the questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. For example, how decisions were made, levels of teacher participation, how head teachers encourage or discourage teacher participation and the general atmosphere during meetings were all observed. All the related

events that took place during the observation were recorded and were subsequently used in this study as part of the 'rich insight' and respectable data (Denscombe, 2003). Moreover, because of advance arrangements made with head teachers, observations went on well in all the schools. In situations where the researcher has to be at both schools on the same day, head teachers agreed and changed their meetings to enable the researcher observe as staff meetings were rarely conducted.

Prior notices were given to the researcher by the head teacher when meetings are to be organised. On arrival in each school the researcher sat in meetings with the teachers and the head teacher and took notes while observing. In many instances the researcher asked and answered questions during the observation. To capture and record important scenes related to the study but which were not included in the researchers observational guide, jotted notes were taken by the researcher. In all a total of 3 observations each were made at both sites.

5.4.2 Procedure for Data Analysis of Observation

An ethnographic study focuses on the culture and social regularities of everyday life. Merriam (2009) argues that the rich and thick description obtained from participant observation is the defining characteristics of ethnographic studies. However, Wolcott (1994) is of the view that ethnographic data analysis presentation is often combined (e.g., descriptive analysis, interpretative data) or used interchangeably. Merriam (2009), however, points out that the anthropologist sometimes make use of pre-existing category schemes to organise and analysis their data. Lofland, Snow, Anderson and Lofland (2006) concur with Merriam (2009) when they suggested categories and subcategories for analysing observational data.

In this study data collected through participant's observation (micro-ethnography) were first coded using the Nvivo software version 10 into thematic categories and sub-themes. As the case study involved two different schools, the within–case analysis and the cross-case analysis (Merriam, 2009)

were used by the researcher to analyse the data. Within-case analysis, each case was first treat as a comprehensive case in and of itself. Data gathered from each case helped the researcher learn much about the contextual variables that might have a bearing on each case. Each case-study was then analysed by the researcher to bring out the sub-themes from the categories.

Once the analysis of each case was completed, the cross-case analysis began. With the cross-case analysis the researcher analysed and compared themes and came out with similarities and differences between the two sites.

5.5 Analysis of Documents

According to Bryman (2012) documents tells us something about what goes on in an organisation which helps researchers to uncover such things as its culture or ethos. Bryman added that documents are windows onto the social and organisational realities. However, instead of viewing documents as ways of gaining access to an underlying reality, writers like Atkinson and Coffey (2011) argue that documents should be viewed as a distinct level of 'reality' in their own right.

Atkinson and Coffey (2011) suggest that documents should be examined in terms of, on one hand, the context in which they were produced and, on the other hand, their implied readership. To them when documents are viewed in this way, they are significant for what they are supposed to accomplish and who they are written for.

In this study the staff and PTA minute books were considered the right source of information to uncover such things as the culture and ethos of school decision-making. The researcher had wanted to analyze other documents such as school diaries, journals, and policy papers, however, because of time and the bureaucratic procedures one has to go through, the researcher settled on the school minutes book which was readily available. The minute book was useful because it had the school's records such as: issues discussed at the meeting, the discussion of those issues, views of the participants, and actions

to be taken. Also the school's minute book was connected either explicitly or implicitly to other documents of the school, such as previous minutes, mission statements, job definitions, organisational regulations, and various documents external to the school.

Furthermore, following Atkinson and Coffey (2011) suggestion that the minute book should be examined in terms of the context in which it was produced, the researcher examined the minute books by the ways in which language was employed to convey the message that were contained. The researcher further employed the content analysis to interpret the school minute book. This was done by searching out of the underlying themes based on the researcher's document analysis guide and the research questions (see appendix 14). Themes were however, extracted with brief quotations from the minute books and were used for the analysis (Seale, 2008).

The analysis of document schedule had the following items:

- Type of document
- Physical setting
- Agenda/issues discussed
- Participation level/contributions/suggestions by participants
- Decision taken/how it was taken

To determine the authenticity and accuracy of the documents Guba and Lincoln (1981) suggest the researcher finds out about the origins and reasons for being written, its author, and the context in which it was written. Taking into consideration Guba and Lincoln suggestion, the researcher asked head teachers the following questions to verify the authenticity of the document being analysed:

- The history of the documents
- Its originality and genuinely
- Who the author was
- Under what circumstances and for what purpose it was produced and
- For whom the document was intended for

Answers to these questions by the head teachers (keepers of the documents) enabled the researcher assessed the authenticity of the documents. It further enabled the researcher established the author, the place and the date of writing all the documents analysed (McCulloch, 2004).

5.5.1 Procedure for Analysing the Documents

The researcher used the findings from the analysis of documents to complement data generated from the questionnaire survey, semi- structured interviews and observations. Henning *et al.,* (2004) argue that any document, whether old or new, whether in printed format, hand written or in electronic format and which relates to the research question may be of value. Merriam (2009) concurs when she states that documents are a major source of data in qualitative research and can help to uncover meaning, develop understanding and discover insight to the relevant research problem. Documents such as staff meetings minutes and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) minutes were content analysed as these were deemed related to the study.

In analysing documents Bryman (2012) suggests the use of ethnographic content analysis. In using ethnographic content analysis the researcher coded the raw data and constructed categories that captured relevant characteristics of the documents contents. After categorization, the researcher refined the categories through which themes were generated. Hence new themes that emerged were used for the analysis. In addition, the researcher used some direct quotations from the documents to support the emerged themes.

5.6 The Piloting Process (Questionnaire Survey)

The piloting of the questionnaire survey for phase one was undertaken during a pilot study between the months of August and October 2012 among 50 respondents in Effutu municipality. Six Primary and Junior High Schools (JHS) from Effutu municipality formed the target population for the pilot study. The sample included 35 teachers, 12 head teachers and 3 circuit supervisors. The initial questionnaire items for teachers and head teachers consisted of 65 items

and 60 items for circuit supervisors respectively.

Six basic schools were randomly sampled out of the 36 schools from the 3 circuits at random 2 schools each (Primary and JHS) from the 3 circuits in the Effutu municipality. Using the random sampling method, 35 teachers, 12 head teachers and 3 circuit supervisors who consented to answer questionnaires were sampled for the piloting.

On gaining access to the schools through a letter from the Director of Education, participant information sheets and informed consent forms were given to all teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors in the sampled schools to indicate their consent to participate. After a week the consent forms were collected. In all a total of 62 consent forms were given to participants, 47 teachers, 12 head teachers and 3 circuit supervisors consented to participate in the study, questionnaires were then administered personally by the researcher and respondents were given a week to complete and make it ready for collection.

On the third week of my visit to retrieve the questionnaires, 46 (74%) out of 62 questionnaires were retrieved. The absence of some teachers and head teachers were the reasons why 16 questionnaires were not retrieved. On my last visits (fourth and fifth) 4 out of the 16 remaining questionnaires were retrieved. In all a total of 50 (81%) questionnaires were retrieved. This includes 35 teachers, 12 head teachers and 3 circuit supervisors.

5.6.1 Challenges Encountered

Cohen *et al.,* (2007) and Van Teglingen and Hundley (2001) share the view that researchers' who do not pilot their instruments are at "risk" of repeating mistakes that should have been addressed. Van Teglingen and Hundley (2001) stressed that pilot study or feasibility study should be ideally conducted on a small scale in order to achieve its purpose.

One of the reasons for conducting this pilot study was to give the researcher an advance warning about where the main research project could fail or whether

the proposed questionnaire is inappropriate or too complicated. In the words of De Vaus (1993, p.54) "Do not take the risk, pilot test first", hence the piloting. Other reasons for undertaking the pilot study were:

- To assess the feasibility of a (full scale) study/survey
- To establish whether the sampling frame and technique are effective
- To gain feedback on the response of the questionnaire
- To check reliability levels of the questionnaire
- To identify logistical problems which might occur using the proposed methods and
- To convince my supervisors that the study's proposal for the main study was worth undertaken.

The major problems the researcher encountered during the piloting of the questionnaire survey were access to respondents, sampling procedure adopted, data collection procedure and ambiguities of the items.

Access to Respondents (teachers) by 'gate keepers'

The first and foremost problem the researcher encountered with the pilot study was having smooth access to the respondents (teachers) by 'gate keepers' (MacNab, Visser, Daniels, 2007). As courtesy and procedure demands, before having access to teachers, permission ought to be sought from the 'gate keepers' (head teachers) who were unwilling to allow the researcher to have direct contact with the teachers. Hence, the majority of the school the researcher visited, the 'gate keepers' because of fear of letting information go out to the public domain collected the questionnaires on behalf of those teachers who have consented to participate. This made the researcher doubted if the actual respondents (teachers) who consented to answer the questionnaires were the ones who actually responded to it. In some instances some of the teachers approached the researcher complaining that they consented but did not receive their questionnaire. The researcher's suspicion rose when after completion, the 'gate keepers' collected the questionnaires and handed over to him. In other instances, some of the head teachers did not

fairly distribute the consent forms and other information to all teachers. The issue of biasness towards respondents by gatekeepers might be the reason towards very positive findings of the analysis of the piloted of the questionnaire.

To address this problem, during the actual data collection, the researcher contacted the Regional Director of Education who gave a directive to the metropolitan and municipal directors of education who issued a letter of access which was then given to the head teachers. This letter (see appendices 15 & 16) enabled the researcher to address the challenge of access to participants.

Sampling procedure Adopted

It was revealed during the piloting that a new sampling technique needs to be adopted for sampling teachers. The reason being that some teachers who were randomly sampled had been transferred to the school; new teachers or had just been posted to the school. These groups of respondents were not able to answer some of the questionnaire items as the majority of the questionnaire items were meant for teachers who have been at post for more than a year in their current school. This created a major challenge during the analysis stage as some of the questionnaire items were not answered. In summary, some of the teachers randomly sampled did not fit into the category of teachers who have spent more than a year at their current post.

This challenge was addressed by adopting the purposeful random sampling approach where respondents were first sampled based on a category previously discussed and then later randomly sampled to get a fair representation of the population (Merriam, 2009).

The Data Collection Procedure

During the piloting, respondents were given a week to respond to the questionnaire and submit them personally to the researcher in a sealed envelope. On the day of collection, the researcher observed that the 'gate keepers' (head teachers) had collected some of the questionnaires and in some

cases some of the envelopes were opened on the suspicion that they might have been opened by the gate keepers. However, some teachers kept their questionnaires and handed them personally to the researcher. Furthermore, the researcher observed that most of the questionnaires were not ready for collection; the reasons were teacher absenteeism, misplaced questionnaire or uncompleted questionnaires and too many questionnaire items. This made the collection of the questionnaire longer than expected as the researcher had to travel to the school on several times for collection.

The researcher addressed this challenge by first editing and deleting some of the questionnaire items which were found to have asked the same questions. Furthermore, some of the items were reconstructed to give simple understanding to respondents. Respondents were also given two weeks to fill and returned the questionnaires in a sealed envelope to the researcher, which worked well during the actual field work.

Ambiguities and Wordings/Terms used in the Questionnaire

Oppenheim (1992, p.48) writes that "everything about the questionnaire should be piloted; nothing should be excluded, not even the type face or the quality of the paper". During piloting it came to light that some of the wordings and terms were foreign to Ghanaian teachers. This was mainly due to the cultural diversity and the type of educational system practiced in Ghana. As indicated earlier in this section, the questionnaire were adopted and modified to fit the Ghanaian context. Yet, some of the wordings and constructs (terms) were foreign to respondents which needed further clarifications from the researcher during the piloting. This made respondents used more time to respond to the questionnaire than expected. However, the few ambiguities and typo errors also contributed to the delay. Furthermore, the researcher observed that the questionnaires were too lengthy and each section should contain similar items. To address these problems, the Inspector of school supervision, HR of Ghana Education Service and other senior head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors were contacted by the researcher to share their views and suggestions for corrections and amendments on the

questionnaires with regard to the words/terms, context and structure. Furthermore, the questionnaires were trimmed down and rigorous checks were done by the researcher's supervisors and colleague lecturers at the UEW to reduce all typo errors and lengthy sentences.

In conclusion, it is worthy to note that the piloting exercise opened a safe passage for the researcher to conduct the actual data collection with confidence as most of the unforeseen problems were exposed to the researcher and dealt with during the pilot study. However, Van Teglingen and Hundly (2001) caution that completing a pilot study successfully is not a guarantee of the success of the full-scale survey. However, the main challenge encountered during the actual field work was the delay in retrieving few of the questionnaires which did not affect the study.

5.7 Piloting the Semi-Structured Interview

As a new instrument which evolved from the analysis of the questionnaire survey, the researcher subjected it to the review of researcher's supervisory team and piloted the instrument with members of the study's pilot population. Respondents for the pilot study consisted of head teachers, teachers, and circuit supervisors (sample) within the same population from which the questionnaire survey was piloted.

The researcher employed a schedule of questions consisting of three sections on school decision-making for conducting detailed semi- structured interviews with teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. Scholars such as Rubin and Rubin (2005), Gall *et al.,* (2003) and Merriam (2009) describe semi-structured interview technique as asking a series of structured questions and then probing more deeply using open-form questions to obtain additional information.

The face-to-face interview technique was deemed appropriate and was used. Each participant was asked the same set of pre-determined questions, which was interspersed with impromptu follow-up queries, intended to clarify

participant responses (Seidman, 2006). Specifically, these questions consisted of descriptions of teacher participation in school decision-making situations along with specific inquiries regarding:

- Participants understanding of decision-making within the school context
- Opinions and expectations on school decision-making and
- Views on teacher participation in school decision-making

Piloting of the questionnaire survey some of the participants consented to be interviewed. The researcher and the participants met for an informal meeting to discuss the time, venue and purpose of the interview.

The purpose for piloting the interview guide was allow the researcher "enter into participants perspective" as it will not be possible to observe and listen to human feelings, thoughts and intentions through questionnaires (Merriam, 2009, p.88). The piloting also enabled the researcher to restructure the interview guide based on the participant's views and how they responded to the questions.

Additionally, the piloting was conducted by the researcher to establish access with potential participants whom the researcher have never met (Seidman, 2006). This helped to overcome shyness and developed the interview skills of the researcher. However, it wasn't without some challenges such as seeking consent from participants, time frame and lack of interviewing skills.

Following the meeting with the 'pool of participants' who have consented to be interviewed, the researcher conveniently sampled them and began contacting them through telephone for their appointment confirmation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). However, convenient, the researcher sought to interview a teacher and a head teacher from the same school in order to get a clearer picture of what was happening in a particular school and for the purpose of data triangulation (Denzin, 2010; Hammersely, 2008). The semi-structured interview of the participants was designed to last between 20-30 minutes respectively. For ethical considerations participants were made to sign a consent form and to choose the time and venue for the interview, moreover, recorded interviews

were played back to respondent to confirm or make corrections to some of the statements made.

Using an interview guide aided the researcher to have a clear flow and sequence of questions while participants thought over how certain series of events unfolded in relation to the current situation, thus allowing for quality control across the collected data (Bryman, 2012; Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). Yet, while the constructs addressed in each question were identical, the specific wording of the questions were slightly different for each participants based upon the role that participant assumed within the school. Each interview began with an explanation of the informed consent form and time provided for the participant to sign the document and brief purpose of the interview. Also, each interview was audio-recorded for later transcription and analysis.

Following its collection, the researcher manually analyzed the data. The purpose of the audio-recorded interview was not only just to listen to what participants had said but also to capture it in the way that was said by the participants (Bryman, 2012). The data was analysed by playing the recoded tape over and over again till each answer was manually transcribed. In general, the researcher's focus was to identify common ideas, themes, and/or patterns that emerged from participants responses (Bryman, 2012; Merriam, 2009; Seidman, 2006). Specifically, the researcher utilized the data collected to help inform the project's research questions. In all a total of 5 teachers, 2 head teachers and 1 circuit supervisor were interviewed.

5.7.1 Challenges Encountered

As always expected from the field of piloting, there were numerous challenges that the researcher encountered on the field while piloting the interview guide. As numerous as they were and for convenience and time sake the following challenges were considered as the major ones:

- Seeking consent from participants
- Time frame/duration between the piloting of the questionnaire survey

and the interview

- Lack of interviewing skills

Seeking Consent form Participants

Seidman (2006) argues that interview requires the researcher to establish access to, and make contact with potential participants who the researcher may or may have never met. The researcher went back to the field only to find out that those who had previously given their consent to be interviewed had had a change of mind set. The reason was that most participants were scared to be interviewed and therefore try to exclude themselves. In another instance, participants had forgotten about the project entirely. This became a major challenge as the researcher had to start everything afresh. However, this challenge was addressed during the actual interview by regularly visiting the 'pool of participants', having oral and written conversation, and most importantly, participants were regularly kept updated with information about the study as well as a brief summary of the purpose of the interview was sent to them. This arose and sustained the interest of the participants throughout the study.

Time Frame/Duration between the Piloting of the Questionnaire Survey and the Interview

The second challenge was the time frame/duration. Time frame/duration refers to the time between the first contacts with participants. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) point out that a researcher collecting data sequentially normally encounter the problem of 'first contact' where interviews follow questionnaire survey. They argue that the lapse created may cause participants interest to die out if regular contacts are not established between the first contact and the follow-up. Depending on time and convenience, Merriam (2009) suggests that researchers collecting data sequentially should regularly visit participants' while he/she gets participants posted with updates of the research work. Furthermore, Seidman (2006) adds that researchers should create a 'pool of

participants' during their first contact where they can draw the sample from. Seidman stressed that this can be in a form of establishing participant's research network where individuals will receive a brief update of progress of the study.

The researcher during the actual data collection kept participants informed through emails, postings and telephone calls about the update of the study. The "pool of participants" was regularly updated about the progress of the study, the format of the interview and the role expected of them. This enabled the researcher to keep in contact and sustain the interest of participants in the study.

Lack of Interviewing Skills

"Interviewing provides access to the context of people's behaviour and thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the meaning of that behaviour" (Seidman, 2006, p.10). In putting participants behaviour in context and understanding their actions require the researcher to master and acquire certain knowledge and skills in interviewing. As a novice researcher, the challenge of conducting a perfect interview kept haunting till all the interviews were done. This in most cases affected the researcher's interactions with participants. In many instances the researcher lacked rapport and follow-up questions which were either forgotten or mixed up with others. However, Merriam (2009), Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) and Bryman (2012) suggest that novice researchers should before they go to the field, observe others on the field, keep practising on peers as well as do intensive literature reading to equip themselves. Gall *et al.,* (2003) adds that to do away with shyness as a novice interviewer, the researcher should during the interview remain natural, neutral and appear good. This according to Gall *et al.,* (2003) it helps in building and developing the confidence of a novice researcher.

Adhering to these suggestions, the researcher had the opportunity to observe other PhD colleagues and lecturers at the UEW who were piloting their instruments. Furthermore, the researcher did a lot of literature review on

interviewing which enabled him remain natural, neutral, appear good and gained confidence during the actual interview.

5.8 Challenges Encountered during Observation

After piloting the observational guide, the two main challenges encountered by the researcher were access to schools and recording of field notes.

Access to Schools

Bryman (2012) writes that one of the key and yet most difficult step in ethnography is gaining access to a social setting that is relevant to the research problem in which the researcher is interested. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) made a similar distinction when they refer to 'public' settings as opposed to ones that are not public. According Bryman, closed, non-public settings are likely to be organisations of various kinds, such as schools. Although the school is recognized by Bryman as some how easy to access, the researcher found it difficult to access a school for observation. Head teachers were adamant and unwilling to open their doors for the researcher to observe them. The reason might be that head teachers feared their daily administrative management will be exposed.

The challenge of gaining access to the school was addressed by the researcher by assuming an overt role as suggested by Bryman (2012). Through this role the researcher contacted the Municipal Director of Education who provided a letter of access to the school. Through the letter which was addressed to the head of the school, the researcher was able to observed schools.

Taking Field Notes and Observing

Writing down notes, however brief, as quickly as possible after seeing or hearing something interesting is field noting. Because of the frailties of human memory, Bryman (2012) and Cohen *et al.,* (2011) caution researcher's to take

notes during observations. They however, stressed that the notes taken should be fairly detailed summaries of events, behaviour and the researcher's behaviour and the initial reflections of whatever is observed or heard.

One of the major challenges the researcher encountered during observation was the skill to take notes and observe at the same time. This situation made the researcher in some instances missed some of the issues to be observed. In addressing this situation the researcher adopted the jotted notes style which was very brief and written notes recorded to describe only important situation that related to what the researcher intended to observe. Furthermore, the observational guide was modified to concentrate specifically on what was meant to be observed. This went a long way to ease the pressure of notes taking during observation.

5.9 Summary of Chapter 5

The researcher briefly described the main instruments used to collect data for this study. The chapter also delved into the structure of the questionnaire survey, semi-structured interview, participant observation (micro-ethnography), documents and how they were used to gather data for the study. Furthermore, chapter 5 discussed the piloting processes for the instruments and the challenges encountered during the pilot stage. The next chapter presents and analyse the questionnaire survey for actual field work.

CHAPTER 6

PARTICIPATION IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT, MANAGEMENT, TEACHING & LEARNING, AND GOALS OF THE SCHOOL

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 reviewed the instruments and procedures used for data collection for this study, the piloting process, population, and sample/sampling procedure adopted for the study. Chapter 6 is the first of the chapters reporting the findings of the mixed method study. It presents the data analysis of the questionnaire survey which was produced through Likert scale items obtained from 209 teachers, 26 head teachers and 11 circuit supervisors in the Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality.

The raw quantitative data were converted by scoring the data and assigning numeric values to each response given by the respondents (Bryman, 2012). Using the SPSS software version 20, variables were created for each item and were coded accordingly (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011).

Since the questionnaire survey comprised of six sections listed below, the data was also presented in six sections:

- Section A: demographic information
- Section B: staff development
- Section C: management decision-making
- Section D: curriculum and instruction (teaching and learning)
- Section E: determining goals/vision and
- Section F: school improvement

The data reporting starts with an overview of the demographic data of respondents.

In this study, descriptive statistics were employed to find frequencies and percentages of responses. Relative frequencies (percentage responses) were used to draw tables and bar charts to show pictorial representation of

responses. Percentages were used for the data analysis because the researcher found it easy to express respondents' information as a proportion of a whole (Taylor-Powell, 1989). In addition, percentages tend to be easy to interpret as they are a good way to show relationships and comparisons, either between categories of respondents or between categories of responses as this study sought to achieve. Furthermore, percentages and bar charts were deemed appropriate statistical tool for reporting the data because it enabled the researcher to present data in a group comparison for easy understanding among readers.

It is also noteworthy to indicate that too many digits with decimals may give a false impression of accuracy and make reading difficult. However, showing no decimal points may conceal the fact that difference exist. The percentages used in the tables and bar charts were therefore rounded up by using the 'rule of thumb' (ie 5 or greater is rounded off to the next higher number) to give readers easy meaning and understanding.

6.1 Demographic Data for Teachers

The questionnaire survey for teachers was administered to 235 teachers from the 2 study sites (Cape Coast and Mfantseman). Eighty-nine percent (89%) of the participants comprising of 209 teachers returned their questionnaires which were used for the analysis. Table 6.1 (page 139) shows that the majority of the teachers who took part in the study were females (54%) with (46%) being males. This result confirms the Basic District Profile (2011/12) result which revealed that as at 2011/12 academic year, female teachers outnumber male teachers in the central region of Ghana, of whom the majority were from schools within the Cape Coast metropolitan area as illustrate in table 6.1.

With regard to age, the overall picture from both sites shows that 53% of the teachers were aged between 30-39 years, specifically, 58% from Site 1 and 48% from Site 2. However, 34% of the teachers from Site 2 were aged between 25-29 years compared to only 10% from Site 1.

Table 6.1 Demographic Data for Teachers

Variables	Teachers (site 1)	Percentage (%)	Teachers (site 2)	Percentage (%)	Total (%)
		Number of Respondents			
Gender					
Male	44	39	52	55	96 **(46)**
Female	69	61	43	45	112 **(54)**
Age (years)					
18-24	8	7	3	3	11 **(5)**
25-29	10	9	32	34	42 **(20)**
30-39	66	58	45	48	111 **(53)**
40-49	21	19	10	11	31 **(15)**
50-59	9	8	5		
60+	-	-	-	-	-
Qualification					
PhD	-	-	-	-	-
Masters	5	4	2	2	7 **(3)**
Degree	78	68	39	41	117 **(56)**
HND	5	4	4	4	9 **(4)**
Diploma	21	19	38	40	59 **(29)**
3yr Post Sec	3	3	2	2	5 **(2)**
4yr Post Sec	1	0.9	3	3	4 **(2)**
SSCE	-	-	7	7	7 **(3)**
Length of service					
1-5yrs	18	16	39	41	57 **(28)**
6-10yrs	35	31	19	20	54 **(26)**
11-15yrs	34	30	26	28	60 **(30)**
16-20yrs	12	11	2	2	14 **(7)**
21+	12	11	6	6	18 **(9)**
Years served in current school					
1-5yrs	81	71	71	75	152 **(73)**
6-10yrs	24	21	18	19	42 **(20)**
11-15yrs	6	5	5	5	11 **(5)**
16-20yrs	2	2	1	1	3 **(1)**
21+	-	-	-	-	-

Site1: n= 114   Site 2: n= 95

Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

Furthermore, 21% of the teachers from Site 1 were aged between 40-49 years with 11% from Site 2. In addition, none of the sites had teachers who were aged 60 years and above. The analysis implies that the majority of the teachers from Site 2 were younger than those from Site 1. However, it is

noteworthy to infer that as older teachers might be the more experience they might have gained from the job.

Additionally, table 6.1 shows that almost all the teachers from the two study sites were qualified trained teachers except 3% who were untrained teachers. The majority (56%) had a Bachelor's Degree in education and 29% with basic teaching qualification (Diploma). Four percent (4%) had Higher National Diploma (HND), 3% had Master's Degree and 2% each had 3 Year Post Secondary Teaching Certificate ('A') and a Four-Year Post-Middle Teaching Certificate respectively. There was no PhD graduate from both sites. However, Site 1 had more Masters' Degree holders (4%) as compared to (2%) from Site 2. Furthermore, the table shows that 68% of the teachers from Site 1 were Bachelor Degree holders compared to 39% from Site 2. Nonetheless, 40% of the teachers from Site 2 had Diploma in Education as compared to 19% from Site 1. Although the government of Ghana is trying to upgrade the academic qualification of teachers, and at the same time minimising untrained teachers within basic schools, however, table 6.1 shows that there are still some untrained teachers in some of the basic schools in the study area.

The overall data with regard to length of service shows that on the average the majority of the teachers (30%) had spent between 11-15 years in the teaching profession. However, across the two sites, the study recorded some differences in the length of service. Table 6.1 further shows that the majority of the teachers (61%) from Site 2 had served between 1-10 years longer than the majority of the teachers (47%) from Site 1. Contrary, 52% of the teachers from Site 1 had also served between 11-20 years more than their colleagues (36%) from Site 2. It can, therefore, be inferred from the data that teacher in urban basic schools tend to serve longer years than teachers in rural-urban basic schools.

The study further sought evidence of the length of years served by teachers in their current school. As illustrated in table 6.1, the majority of the teachers from both sites of study, Site 1 (92%) and Site 2 (94%) had served in their current respective schools for a period between 1-10 years. However, only few

teachers from both Site 1 (7%) and Site 2 (6%) had served between 11-20 years in their current school. With regard to school decision-making, the result may imply that the more years spent in a school, the more a teacher becomes accustom to the traditions and culture of that school. In this situation, the researcher believes that some teachers may also become unwilling to change the existing traditions and culture in their school and this may, perhaps, affect school decision-making.

6.1.1 Demographic Data for Head Teachers

The questionnaire, administered to 29 head teachers from the two study sites was returned by 90% (26) head teachers.

With regards to gender, 16 out of the 26 head teachers representing (62%) were females. Table 6.2 (page 142) further shows that the majority of the head teacher's from Site 1 (82%) were female compared to Site 2, where the majority of the respondents were males (53%). This result may imply that female teachers at the basic school have the chance of becoming head teachers than men in the study area. This is because the national data on head teachers reported by USIAD in 2009 found that female head teachers outnumber males in the urban areas, while male head teachers outnumber females in the rural areas. In addition, the report claims that female teachers tend to stay much longer in the teaching profession than men which puts them in an advantage position to become head teachers in basic schools.

The data with regard to the age of head teachers indicate that the majority (52%) were aged between 50-59 years. The data further revealed that while there were no head teacher within the age of 25-39 in Site 1, Site 2 had 20% of head teachers within the same age category. The implication may be that rural-urban schools tend to have younger head teachers than urban basic schools. The data on academic qualification shows that 73% of the head teachers in the study had had a first degree qualification in Education. However, the study did not record any PhD qualification among head teachers from the

two study sites. The results indicate that the majority of the respondents from Site 1 (91%) and Site 2 (60%) had Bachelor Degrees as their highest educational qualification. Furthermore, Site 2 recorded (7%) diploma and (20%) 3 Years Post Secondary Certification.

Table 6.2: Demographic Data for Head Teachers

Variables	Head tr (site 1)	Number of Respondents Percentage (%)	Head tr (site 2)	Percentage (%)	Total
Gender					
Male	2	18	8	53	10 (38)
Female	9	82	7	47	16 (62)
Age (years)					
18-24	-	-	-	-	- (-)
25-29	-	-	1	7	1 (4)
30-39	-	-	2	13	2 (8)
40-49	4	36	5	33	9 (36)
50-59	7	64	6	40	13 (52)
60+	-	-	-	-	-
Qualification					
PhD	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Masters	1	9	2	13	3 (12)
Degree	10	91	9	60	19 (73)
HND	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Diploma	-	-	1	7	1 (3)
3yr Post Sec	-	-	3	20	3 (12)
4yr Post Sec	-	-	-	-	- (-)
SSCE	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Length of service					
1-5yrs	7	64	10	67	17 (71)
6-10yrs	-	-	-	-	- (-)
11-15yrs	3	27	2	13	5 (21)
16-20yrs	-	-	-	-	- (-)
21+	1	9	1	7	2 (8)
Years served in current school					
1-5yrs	9	82	10	67	19 (79)
6-10yrs	2	18	2	13	4 (17)
11-15yrs	-	-	-	-	- (-)
16-20yrs	-	-	1	7	1 (4)
21+	-	-	-	-	- (-)

Site 1: n= 11   Site 2: n= 15
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

This evidence may imply that may be academic qualification for the appointment of head teachers in the rural-urban schools are sometimes substituted with long service and experiences instead of qualification. Studies such as Affull-Broni and Dampson (2008), Oduro (2003), and Esia-Donkoh (2014) claim that while the minimum teacher requirement is 3 Years Post Secondary Certificate, the majority of the basic school head teachers are selected and appointed based on long service and experience and that many of them lead school through their past experiences and trail-and-error approach.

Head teacher's length of service and years served at current school did not differ much. However, the data revealed that the majority of the head teachers (71%) from the two Sites have spend between 1-5 years within the teaching profession, while (79%) have also spend between 1-5 years in their current school as head teachers. These findings are consistent with Baffour-Awuah (2011) who found among other things that the majority of head teachers in public basic school in Ghana tend to spend less than 5 years as head teachers in a school.

6.1.2 Demographic Data for Circuit Supervisors

Table 6.3 (page 144) shows the demographic data for circuit supervisors for Site 1 and 2 of the study which were based on selected variables such as gender, age group, employment status, highest qualification, and length of service as were the variables for other population sample.

The questionnaire for circuit supervisors (CS) was administered to 14 circuit supervisors from the two study sites. Seventy-nine percent (79%) representing 11 CSs' returned their questionnaires and were used for the analysis.

As shown in table 6.3 (page 144), the majority of the respondents (80%) were males and (20%) were females for Site 1, while there was a split of (50%) each between gender among CS's in Site 2. However, there were differences between ages of CS's from the two sites. Table 6.3 further shows that the majority of the CS's (80%) from Site 1 were aged between 40-49 years, while

in Site 2 the majority of the CS's (83%) were aged 50-59 years. There is an indication that the majority of the CS's from Site 2 were older and getting close to the retirement age of 60 years. It is also noteworthy to infer that as older the respondents might be the more experience they might have acquired from their job.

Table 6.3: Demographic Data of Circuit Supervisors

| Variables | Number of Respondents | | | | |
	CS (site 1)	Percentage (%)	CS (site 2)	Percentage (%)	Total
Gender					
Male	4	80	3	50	7 (64)
Female	1	20	3	50	4 (36)
Age (years)					
25-29	-	-	-	-	- (-)
30-39	-	-	1	17	1 (9)
40-49	4	80	-	-	4 (36)
50-59	1	20	5	83	6 (55)
60+	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Qualification					
PhD	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Masters	5	100	-	-	5 (45)
Degree	-	-	5	83	5 (45)
HND	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Diploma	-	-	1	17	1 (9)
3yr Post Sec	-	-	-	-	- (-)
4yr Post Sec	-	-	-	-	- (-)
SSCE	-	-	-	-	- (-)
Length of service as CS					
1-5yrs	3	60	3	50	6 (55)
6-10yrs	2	40	2	33	4 (36)
11-15yrs	-	-	1	17	1 (9)
16-20yrs	-	-	-	-	- (-)
21+	-	-	-	-	- (-)

Site 1: n= 5   Site 2: n= 6
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

The study further recorded a difference in qualification across the circuit supervisors from the two study sites. While all the CS's (100%) in Site 1 had Master's degree, almost all the circuits (83%) in Site 2 had Bachelor Degree

except (17%) that had only a Diploma in Education. The reason for such high number of Master's Degree holders in Site 1 might be the high percentage of degree holders among teachers in Site 1(see table 6.3), this is because CS's are selected and appointed from the teachers in the various circuits. Additionally, the location of the Sites (urban and rural-urban) might also be a contributing factor to the qualification achievement of CSs' from both sites of the study because Site 1 is closer to higher institutions than Site 2.

Regardless of the differences in academic qualification, there was not much variation with regard to length of service of CSs' across the two sites. However, the study revealed that overall, 55% of the CSs, from both sites of the study had spent between 1-5 years in their current position as compared to only 36% who had also spent 6-10 years in the same capacity.

6.2. Staff Development Data for Teachers

The data on staff development was collected from all respondents to find out the training they have received on the job over a year and it is useful for the study because it enabled the researcher to find out the kind of training given to teachers. In table 6.4 (page 146), six items sought teachers' views about their participation in staff development. To find out if any differences or similarities exist between the two sites, views of teachers from the two sites are presented in table 6.4.

Table 6.4 shows that teacher's across both sites broadly agreed to their participation level in staff development practices. However, 31% (Site 1) and 39% (Site 2) indicated they had never participated in educational research. Furthermore, 44% (Site 1) and 53% (Site 2) added that they had never participated in networking of teachers.

It can however, be inferred from the analysis that, with regards to staff development, basic school teachers in Site 1 had experienced more participation than their colleagues in Site 2. The entire participation level captured in table 6.4 indicates a positive direction in staff developing across

basic school teachers in the study area. However, the researcher believes that the disparities and the type of development given to basic school teachers needed to be restructured to suit the needs and demands of the school and the teachers rather the 'one size fits all' teacher development.

Table 6.4 Staff Development Data for Teachers

Items	Teachers (site 1)			Teachers (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
I have attended courses/workshops on good classroom practices	85 (75)	6 (5)	20 (18)	71 (75)	3 (3)	15 (16)
I have attended in service training on new educational syllabus/ school leadership and management	94 (83)	2 (2)	17 (15)	57 (60)	3 (3)	30 (32)
I have upgraded myself with a degree course / certificate in education	98 (86)	5 (4)	9 (8)	60 (63)	9 (9)	20 (21)
I have participated in an educational research issues	67 (59)	10 (9)	35 (31)	41 (43)	12 (13)	37 (39)
I have attended in-service/workshop on teaching and learning methods	102 (90)	4 (4)	7 (6)	80 (84)	1 (1)	9 (10)
I have participated in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional dpt of teachers	40 (35)	21(18)	50 (44)	27 (29)	12 (13)	50 (53)

Site 1: n= 114   Site 2: n= 95
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

6.2.1 Professional Development Needs of Teachers

Figure 6.1 Professional Development Needs of Teachers
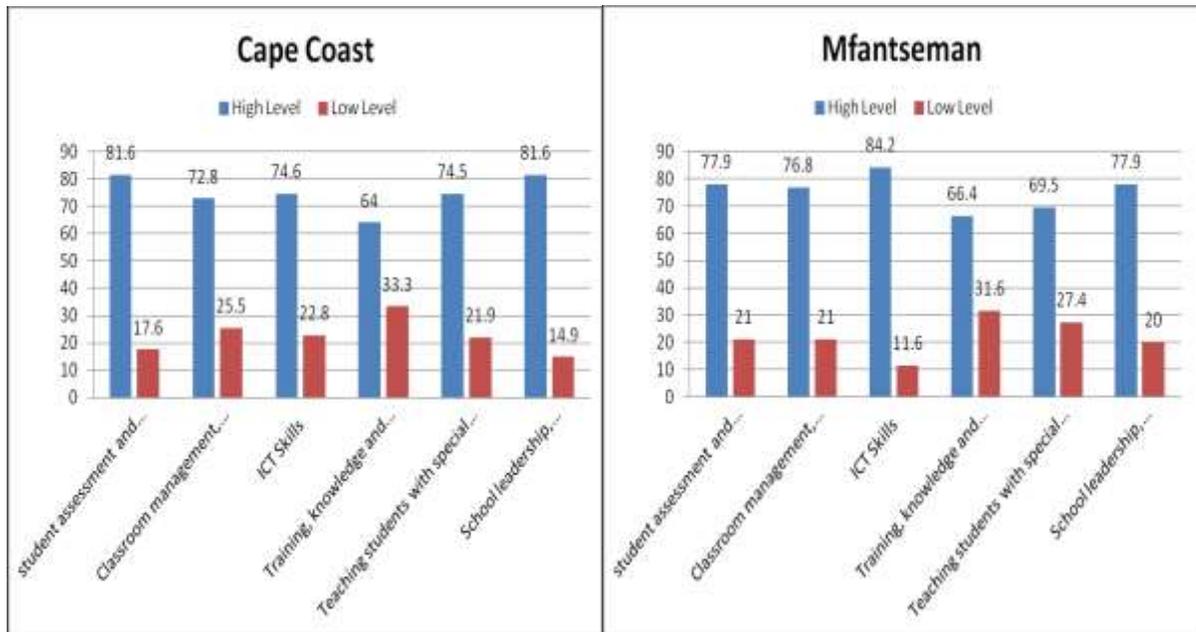
Note: Percentages are rounded up to the nearest highest in the descriptive analysis

Key:

- Student assessment and evaluation practices
- Classroom management and student discipline
- ICT skills
- Training, knowledge and understanding of subject area
- Teaching students with special needs
- School leadership, management and administration

Respondents were required to indicate their level of needs with regard to six items as shown in figure 6.1. Their needs were assessed on a four Likert scale; "high level of need" "moderate level of need" "low level of need" and "no level of need". Responses were further collapsed into high level of need and low level of need respectively. As a rule of thumb, percentages in the descriptive analysis were also rounded up to the nearest highest number.

The bar charts in figure 6.1 to some extent depict almost similar responses with regard to professional development needs across the two study sites

except a slight difference in ICT skills where the majority of the teachers (84%) in Site 2 indicated as a high level of need compared to Site 1 (75%). It is noteworthy to indicate that the majority of the respondents from both sites recorded high percentage values between 70%-84% for almost all the items in figure 6.1 as a high level of need except on training, knowledge and understanding in their subject area where percentages decreased to 64%-66% with low level of need increasing from 31%-33%. Although teachers from both sides seem somehow confident in their subject area, there is an indication that they still perceive professional needs such as training in school leadership and organising workshops as high level of need.

6.2.2 Group Comparison of Staff Development for Head Teachers

In this section, the researcher was interested in uncovering whether any differences existed in staff development across geographical location of head teachers. To do this, the researcher constructed a frequency distribution to portray the percentages of head teachers who responded to the items on staff development. However, these frequency distributions apparently showed little differences across the items examined.

The major differences between head teachers across the two study sites were found in the attendance of workshops, Site 1 (100%), Site 2 (80%); supervision and writing of report, Site 1 (91%), Site 2 (79%) and educational upgrading, Site 1 (100%), Site 2 (87%).

Inferring from table 6.5, it is important to indicate that the majority of the head teachers from both sides of the study agreed that they had participated in staff development opportunities. However, the differences between the two sites indicate that the majority of the head teachers from the urban schools (Site 1) had had more development opportunities with regards to staff development than their colleagues in the rural-urban schools (Site 2).

Table 6.5 Staff Development Data for Head teachers

Items	head teacher (site 1)			head teacher (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
I have attended courses/workshops in need assessment for trs	11 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	12 (80)	2 (13)	1 (7)
I have attended in service training in school leadership administration and management	11 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	14 (93)	- (-)	1 (7)
I have upgraded myself with a degree course / certificate in education	11 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	13 (87)	- (-)	2 (13)
I have participated in Financial and human Resource issues	8 (73)	1 (9)	2 (18)	12 (80)	- (-)	3 (20)
I have attended in-service/workshop in supervisory and report writing skills	10 (91)	- (-)	1 (9)	11 (79)	2 (13)	2 (13)
I have participated in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional dpt of teachers	6 (55)	1(9)	3 (27)	8 (53)	2 (13)	5 (33)

Site 1: n= 5   Site 2: n=6

Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

Perhaps the reason might be with the training given to head teachers in the urban schools by NGO'S such as USAID and the Leadership for Learning Programme (LfL) which had had positive impact with regard to how head teachers manage basic schools in Ghana (Jull *et al.,* 2012).

6.2.3 Professional Development Needs of Head Teachers.

Figure 6.2 Professional Development Needs of Head Teachers.
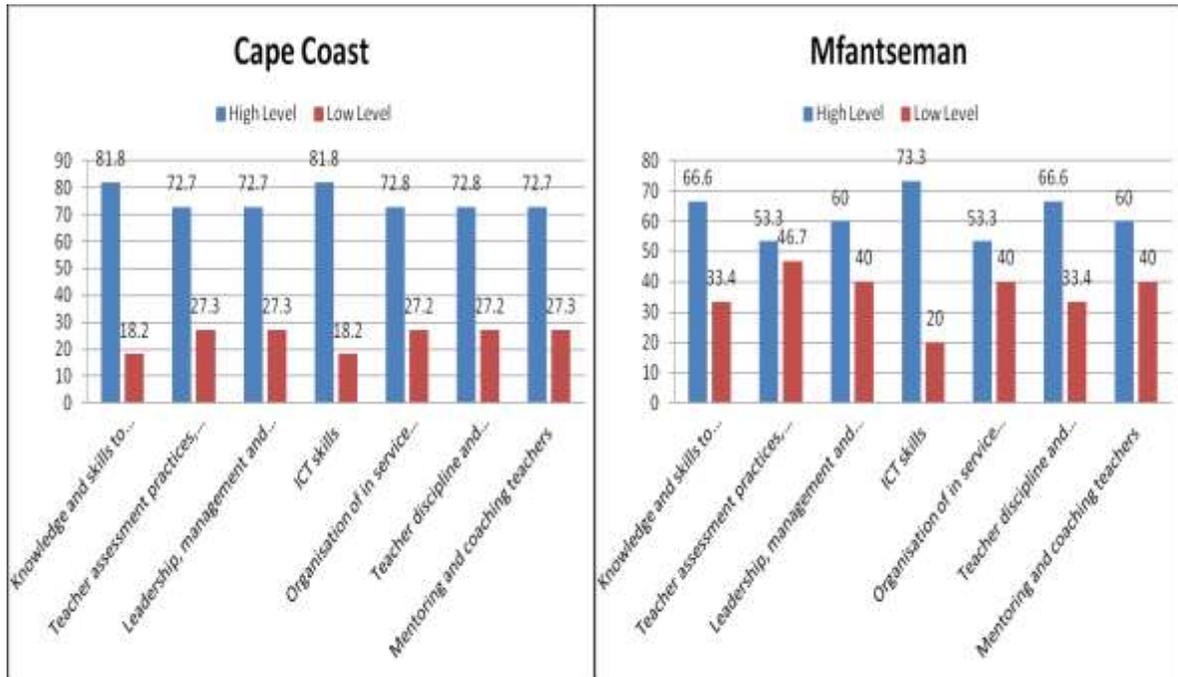
Note: Percentages are rounded up to the nearest highest in the descriptive analysis

Key:

- Knowledge and skills to supervise and monitor teachers
- Teacher assessment practises, vetting of lesson plan and teaching
- Leadership management and administrative skills
- ICT skills
- Organisation of in-services training and workshops
- Teacher discipline and behaviour problems
- Mentoring and coaching of teachers

As shown in figure 6.2, the distribution of responses across the head teachers from the two study sites shows that head teachers from urban schools (Site 1) have higher professional needs than head teachers from rural-urban schools (Site 2). Such differences, the researcher believes might be attributed to the desire or enthusiasm that exists across urban schools, which according to Oduro and MacBeath (2003), is much higher than that of rural schools. However, Bush and Oduro (2006) and Baffour-Awuah (2011) claim that head teachers, especially those in rural schools, are left unsupported once they are

offered a headship appointment, and most newly appointed head teachers gain awareness of the nature of their leadership tasks through their own efforts.

It is also worthwhile to note that the high level of needs of head teachers from the two study sites demonstrate the critical role played by basic school head teachers in facilitating the implementation of quality of education in Ghana. To accomplish their tasks, however, Oduro (2009) argues that basic school head teachers encounter a number of challenges including dealing with low motivation to coping with inadequate training and professional support which makes it difficult to manage schools effectively. Perhaps these challenges might be one of the reasons for high level of professional needs among basic school head teachers in the two study sites.

6.2.4 Group Comparison of Staff Development for Circuit Supervisors'

Items in table 6.6 (page 152) sought to find out the level of staff development among CSs' from the two study sites. The only difference recorded between the two sites was networking of CS's, where 80% from Site 1 agreed to the statement compared to all the CS's from Site 2. The table shows that all the CSs' from the two sites had had in-service training and various workshops in school monitoring, supervision, leadership, administration and management. Furthermore, all the CSs' had upgraded themselves with a degree as shown in table 6.6.

In addition, the table shows that almost all the CS's had attend in-service training on how to organize workshops as well as participated in networks formed specifically for the professional development of circuit supervisors. Inferring from table 6.6, the researcher believes that perhaps for one to become a circuit supervisor he/she must have had experiences in monitoring and supervision and a minimum qualification of a bachelor's degree or above because it is one of the major duties of CS's in Ghana

However, although experience might also be a considerable factor, the

differences in academic qualification across the two sites might also play a very important role for a teacher/head teacher to be appointed as a CS.

Table 6.6 Staff Development Data for Circuit Supervisors (CS's)

Items	Circuit Supervisor (site 1)			Circuit Supervisor (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
I have attended courses/workshops in school Monitory & supervision	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
I have attended in service training in school leadership administration and management	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
I have upgraded myself with a degree course / certificate in education	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
I have participated in Educational Research issues	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
I have attended in-service/workshop in report writing skills organisation of INSERT	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
I have participated in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional dpt of Circuit supervisors	4 (80)	- (-)	1 (20)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)

Site 1: n= 5   Site 2: n=6
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

It must however be noted that staff development among CS's from the two study sites showed almost no varied difference in location.

6.2.5 Professional Development Needs of Circuit Supervisors

Figure 6.3 Professional Development Needs of Circuit Supervisors
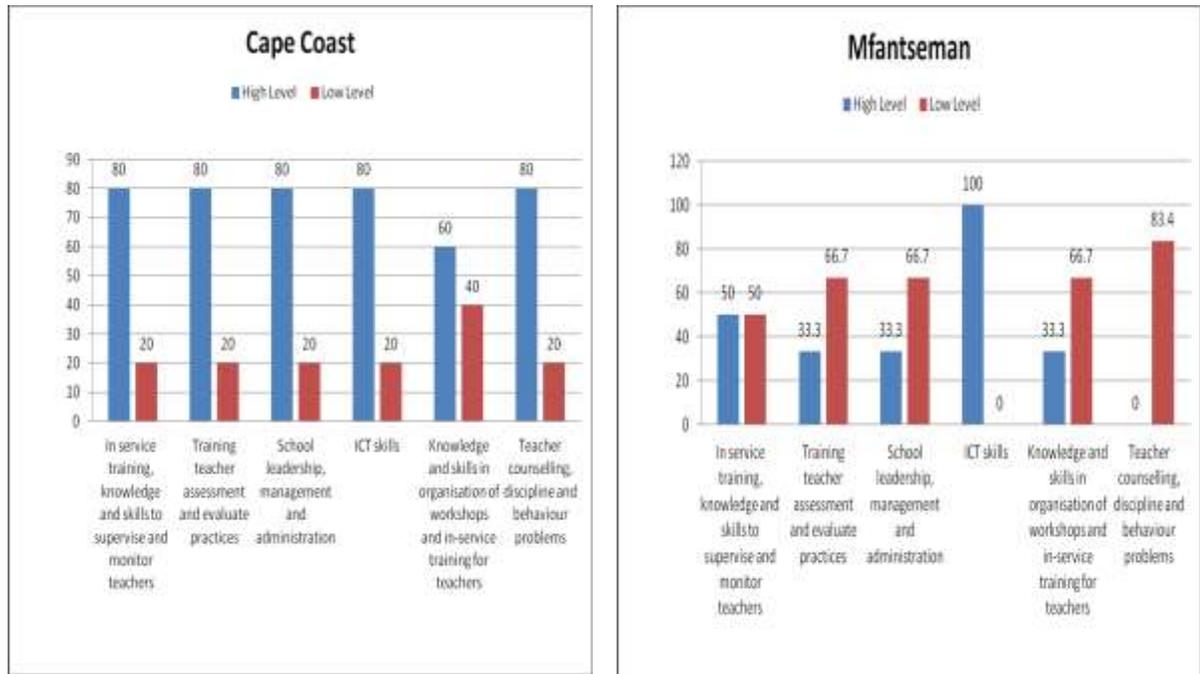
Note: Percentages are rounded up to the nearest highest in the descriptive analysis

Key:
- In-service training, Knowledge and skills to supervise and mentor teachers
- Training, teacher assessment and evaluative practices
- School leadership, management and administration
- ICT skills
- Knowledge and skills in organising workshops and in-service training for teachers
- Teacher counselling, discipline and behaviour problems

Figure 6.3 shows a bar chart distribution of circuit supervisors' professional needs. The figure shows a visible difference in professional needs between the two study sites. While the majority (80%) of the CS's from Site 1 viewed in-service training, knowledge and skills to supervise and monitor, teacher assessment and evaluative practices, school leadership, management and administration, and teacher counselling, discipline and behaviour problems as a high level of need, 67% of the CS's from Site 2 recorded in-service training, school leadership and Knowledge and skills to supervise and monitor as low level of need.

However, both circuit supervisors from Site 1 and 2 recorded ICT skills as a high level of need. Perhaps, the reason for the difference between the two sites might be the age differences and experiences gained on the field by the circuit supervisors from Site 2 than those in Site 1 as shown in table 6.3 that 17% of the CS from Site 1 had spent between 11-15 years with none from Site 1.

6.3 Management Decision-Making Data for Teachers

Table 6.7 (page 155) shows teachers views on participation in management decision-making on a 5 Likert scale. However, for easy understanding and clarification, responses were collapsed into "agree" "neutral" and "disagree".

Results from table 6.7 show a high level of teacher participation in management decision-making in Site 2 compared to Site 1. It is noteworthy to indicate that although there were differences across respondents from the two sites, the overall participation in management decision-making were high in both sites.

In determining school expenditure priorities, selecting team leaders and planning school budget, school feeding and capitation grants, and allocation of Teaching Learning Materials (TLMs), responses in Site 2 (77%, 80%, 75% & 75%) were slightly higher than that of Site 1 (60%, 62%, 60% & 59%). However, 59% of the teachers from Site 1 and 41% from Site 2 disagreed in participating in recruiting new teachers. It can however be inferred from the analysis that there was a high level of teacher participation in staff recruitment in rural-urban schools than urban schools.

With regard to allocating duties to teachers and determining the rights of students and teacher welfare both respondents from Site 1 (63% & 71%) and Site 2 (65% & 77%) shared almost a balanced level of participation.

Table 6.7 Management Decision-Making Data for Teachers

Items	Teacher (site 1)			Teacher (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
Determining school Expenditure priorities	68 (60)	14 (12)	30 (26)	73 (77)	4 (4)	17 (18)
Selecting team leaders	71 (62)	13 (11)	26 (23)	76 (80)	6 (6)	9 (10)
Planning school Budget and school Feeding/capitation Grants	68 (60)	14 (12)	31 (27)	72 (75)	10 (10)	12 (13)
Recruiting new teachers in the school	18 (16)	27 (24)	67 (59)	33 (35)	19 (20)	39 (41)
Allocation of duties to teachers	72 (63)	13 (11)	28 (24)	62 (65)	16 (17)	15 (16)
Allocating TLM and other equipment to teachers	68 (59)	15 (13)	30 (26)	71 (75)	7 (7)	14 (15)
Determining students and teachers rights and welfare	81 (71)	11 (10)	21 (18)	73 (77)	10 (11)	10 (11)

Site 1: n= 114   Site 2: n= 95
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

This result is consistent with Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012), Dampson (2010), Drah (2011) and Agebure (2013) who found that the majority of the basic school teachers in Ghana participate in school decision-making at the classroom level where teaching and learning takes place; however, they argued that in reality the majority of the teachers were not fully involved in all the decision-making process.

6.3.1 Management Decision-Making Data for Head teachers

The data on management decision-making shows that almost all the head teachers from the two study sites agreed to all the statements in table 6.8

(page 156) except teacher recruitment where (45%) of the head teachers from Site 1 agreed with (9%) neutral and (27%) disagreeing, while 19% did not respond. However, the picture was not different from Site 2, where (47%) agreed, (20%) neutral and (27%) disagreeing, while 6% did not respond to the item.

Table 6.8 Management Decision-Making Data for Head teachers

| Items	Head teacher (site 1)			Head teacher (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
Determining school Expenditure priorities	10 (91)	- (-)	- (-)	15 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
Selecting team leaders	10 (91)	- (-)	- (-)	15 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
Planning school Budget and school Feeding/capitation Grants	11 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	14 (93)	1 (7)	- (-)
Recruiting new teachers in the school	5 (45)	1 (9)	3 (27)	7 (47)	3 (20)	4 (27)
Determining the procedures used to Evaluate trs performance	9 (81)	1 (9)	- (-)	12 (80)	1 (7)	1 (7)
Allocation of duties to teachers	10 (91)	- (-)	1 (9)	15 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
Allocating TLM and Other equipment to teachers	10 (91)	1 (9)	- (-)	14 (93)	1 (7)	- (-)
Determining students and teachers rights and welfare	10 (91)	- (-)	- (-)	14 (93)	1 (7)	- (-)

Site 1 n= 11   Site 2 n= 15
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

It can, however, be inferred from the table that with regard to teacher recruitment, teachers from both sides of the study were limited in terms of

their participation as confirmed in table 6.7 and 6.8. The lack of participation in staff recruitment might be the result of the centralisation of decision-making at higher authority (Ghana Education Service) who are authorised by law to recruit teachers in Ghana.

In this regard, Anamuah-Mensah and Benneh (2007) recommended that teacher recruitment in Ghana should be based on demographic changes and increasing enrolment, replacement demand and policies that will see schools recruiting teachers.

6.3.2 Management Decision-Making Data for Circuit Supervisors

Table 6.9 (page 158) shows circuit supervisors response to the levels of teacher participation in management decision-making. The results from table 6.9 shows a high percentage of teacher participation in school expenditure priorities (83%), selection of team leaders (83%), allocation of duties to teachers (83%) and determining students and teachers right and welfare (83%) in Site 2, While Site 1 recoded (60%), (40%), (40%) and (100%) respectively for the same items in table 6.9 by circuit supervisors.

With issues regarding teacher recruitment, both CS's from Site 1 and 2 shared a dispersed response as also illustrated in table 6.9. Forty percent (40%) of the CSs' from Site 1 disagreed, another (40%) were neutral with (20%) agreeing to the statement. Responses from Site 2 were of no varied difference from Site 1 as (33%) disagreed, another (33%) agreed with (17%) remaining neutral and other 17% did not respond. The above analysis supports the results obtained by teachers and head teachers on the same item. This finding implies that with regard to teacher recruitment, teachers in the study have minimal participation.

Table 6.9 Management Decision-Making Data for Circuit Supervisors

Items	Circuit supervisor (site 1)			Circuit supervisor (site 2)		
	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
Determining school Expenditure priorities	3 (60)	2 (40)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)
Selecting team leaders	2 (40)	2 (40)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)
Planning school Budget and school Feeding/capitation Grants	4 (80)	1 (20)	- (-)	3 (50)	- (-)	2 (33)
Recruiting new teachers in the school	1 (20)	2 (40)	2 (40)	2 (33)	1 (17)	2 (33)
Allocation of duties to teachers	2 (40)	2 (40)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)
Allocating TLM and Other equipment to teachers	2 (40)	3 (60)	- (-)	2 (33)	- (-)	- (-)
Determining students and teachers rights and welfare	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)

Site 1: n= 5   Site 2: n= 6
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

However, in their recent report the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) in 2011 argued that the then recent shortage of teachers in Ghana is not confined to numbers but also concern for quality as well as the recruitment process. GNAT (2011) claims that teachers are the cornerstone of educational development and the crucial role teachers plays in determining quality, effectiveness and relevance of education has been recognized as a prerequisite to achieving poverty eradication, sustainable human development, and equity, and for that matter teacher participation in the recruitment and retention of teachers should be a necessity to address the perceived shortage of teachers in Ghana.

6.4 Participation in Curriculum and Instruction Data (Teaching and Learning) for Teachers & Head teachers

Table 6.10 shows responses from teachers and head teachers from the two study sites. For group comparability purpose responses from teachers and head teachers were grouped together under Site 1 and 2 respectively. The reason for grouping these respondents together was to find out if any differences or similarities exist between the two sites and between responses from teachers and head teachers respectively.

Table 6.10 Participation in Curriculum & Instruction Data (Teaching and Learning) for Teachers & Head teachers

Items		Teacher/Head teacher (site 1)			Teacher/Head teacher (site 2)		
		Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)
Determining teaching & learning methodologies to be used in the classroom	Tr	77 (68)	11 (10)	26 (23)	65 (72)	10 (11)	13 (14)
	Htr	8 (73)	3 (27)	- (-)	9 (60)	3 (20)	2 (13)
Determining teaching content, textbooks & materials to be used	Tr	79 (69)	14 (12)	20 (18)	72 (76)	8 (8)	12 (13)
	Htr	9 (82)	1 (9)	1 (9)	12 (80)	3 (20)	- (-)
Grading and promoting of students in your class	Tr	92 (81)	7 (12)	14 (12)	81 (85)	6 (6)	5 (3)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	- (-)	14 (93)	1 (7)	- (-)
Determining the type of assessments for students	Tr	77 (68)	17 (15)	19 (17)	71 (75)	9 (10)	10 (11)
	Htr	10 (91)	- (-)	1 (9)	13 (87)	1 (7)	1 (7)
Determining procedures for assessing end of year student achievement in your subject area/class	Tr	87 (76)	14 (12)	13 (11)	78 (82)	8 (8)	7 (5)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	- (-)	14 (93)	- (-)	1 (7)
Determining students and teachers rights and welfare	Tr	101 (89)	10 (9)	3 (2)	79 (83)	7 (7)	7 (7)
	Htr	11 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	14 (93)	- (-)	- (-)

Site 1: n = 114 for (Tr- Teachers) & n= 11 for (Htr- Head teachers) Site 2: n= 95 (Tr) & n= 15 (Htr)
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

For clarification and understanding the 5 Likert scale were collapsed to 3 Likert scale (agree, neutral and disagree).

The overall picture shows a positive indication that teachers in the two study sites were fully participating in teaching and learning. The analysis however, shows a slightly higher participation in teaching and learning in Site 2 than in Site 1. It is however, noteworthy to point out that Site 1 recorded a mean participation of 75%, while Site 2 also recorded a mean of 79% in all the six items. Moreover, while the highest participation of teachers (89%) was recorded in determining punishment/corrective measures for students in Site 1, grading and promotion of students was the highest (85%) recorded in Site 2. This finding again is consistent with Agebure (2013) and Drah (2011) who claim that the highest level of teacher participation among teachers in Ghana lies at the teaching and learning domain.

The data further shows that the majority of the teachers (Site 1, 75% and Site 2, 79%) in the study area determine how and when teaching and learning should be done in their schools. In this regard, Blasé and Blasé (2001) argue that at such level of participation, teachers should be empowered by head teachers to take part in higher levels of schools decision-making. The researcher shares similar view Blasé and Blasé that teachers will be empowered to take part in high levels of decision-making only when head teachers invest in them the right to participate. This can be achieved only when head teachers trust and are transparent to teachers.

6.4.1 Participation in Curriculum and Instruction (Teaching and Learning) (Circuit Supervisors)

Figure 6.4 (page 161) shows the responses from circuit supervisors from the two study sites. For group comparability purpose responses were grouped together under Site 1 (Cape Coast) and 2 (Mfantseman) respectively. The reason for grouping these respondents together was to find out if any varied differences exist between the two sites and between responses. For easy clarification and understanding the 4 Likert scale used was collapsed to 2

(every time and sometimes).

Figure 6.4: Participation in Curriculum and Instruction (Teaching and Learning) (Circuit Supervisors)
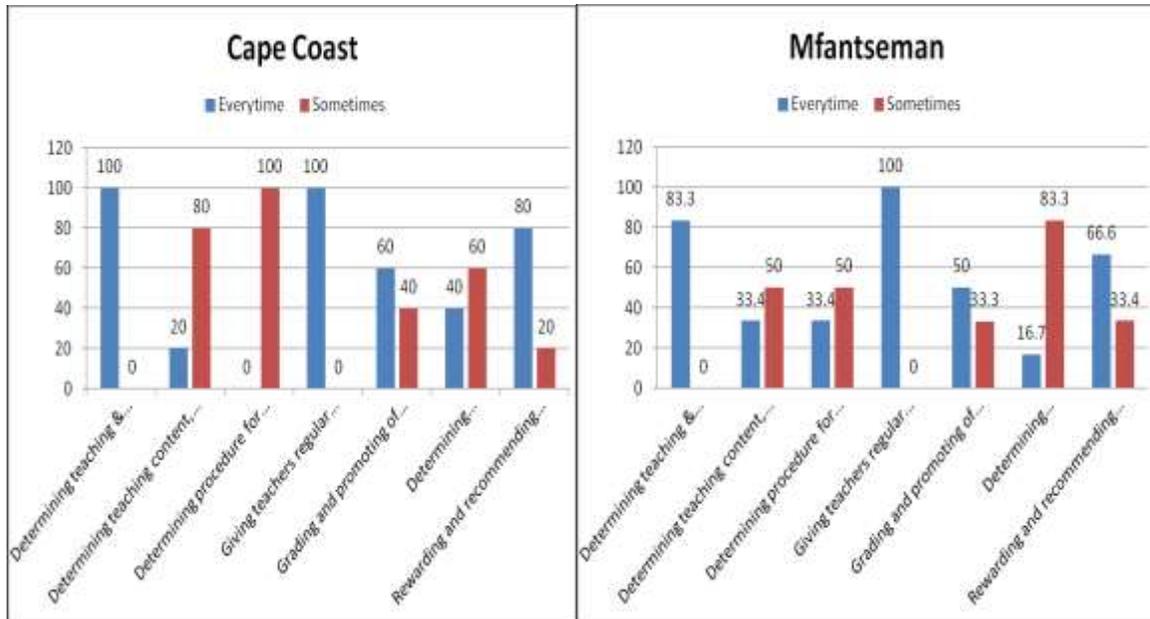
Note: Percentages are rounded up to the nearest highest in the descriptive analysis

Key:
- Determining teaching and learning methodologies to be used in the classroom
- Determining teaching content, textbooks and materials to be used
- Determining procedure for assessing student end of year exams
- Giving teachers regular feedback on their performance
- Grading and promoting of teachers
- Determining punishment for student misbehaviour
- Rewarding and recommending teachers for prize

The data shows circuit supervisors responses to how often they involve teachers in teaching and learning. The data shows that with regard to determining teaching and learning methodologies, all the CSs, from Site 1 indicated they 'every time' involve teachers as compared to Site 2 (83%). However, all the CS's from Site 1 and 2 attested that they 'every time' give regular feedback to teachers about their teaching and learning. Figure 6.4 further shows that the majority of the CSs' (80%) from Site 1 indicated they 'sometimes' involve teachers in determining teaching content and materials to be used as compared to (50%) from Site 2. In determining procedure for assessing students end of year exams all the CS's (100%) from Site 1

indicated they 'sometimes' involve teachers while, 33% from Site 2, indicated they involve teachers 'every time' and (50%) 'sometimes'.

In determining punishment/corrective measures for student misbehaviour, 40% of the CS's from Site 1 indicated they 'every time' involve teachers, while 80% expressed that they 'every time' involve teachers in rewarding and recommending teachers for award. Teacher involvement for the same items in Site 2 were restricted to 'sometimes' (83%) and 'every time' (67%) respectively. Inferring from the analysis there is an indication that some differences exist with how circuit supervisors involve teachers in curriculum and instruction. The overall analysis shows that circuit supervisors from Site 1 do involve teachers in teaching and learning more than circuit supervisors in Site 2.

From the analysis, the researcher believes that while a much more qualified (academic) and somehow young circuit supervisors in Site 1 preferred 'sometimes' involving teachers in determining teaching content and student assessment, a much more older and less qualified (academic) but experienced circuit supervisors from Site 2 preferred a sizeable 'every time' and 'sometimes' involvement of teachers in almost all the teaching and learning issues.

6.5. Determining of Goals (Data for Teachers and Head Teachers)

In table 6.11 (page 163) comparisons were made between Site 1 and 2 among teachers and head teachers in relation to a number of items related to goal setting. This was done to find out and compare the frequency level of responses among teachers and head teachers in determining goals from the two sites of the study. Four (4) frequency levels were used ('every time' 'quite often' 'often' and 'sometimes') however, for easy description and understanding of the data, frequency responses were collapsed into 'every time' and 'sometimes'.

The analysis shows that teachers from both sites of the study share almost

same participation levels in academic goals to be achieved by teachers (Site 1=72% & Site 2=79%), staff participation in meetings (Site 1=94% & Site 2=93%), possibilities for up-grading their knowledge (Site 1: 58% & Site 2: 57%) and school management and related issues (Site 1=77% & Site 2=73%).

Table 6.11 Determining of Goals Data for Teachers and Head Teachers

Items		(Site 1)		(Site 2)	
		Every time (%)	Sometimes (%)	Every time (%)	Sometimes (%)
During meetings Head teacher discusses Academic goals to be Achieved by teachers	Tr	82 (72)	32 (28)	75 (79)	19 (20)
	Htr	11 (100)	- (-)	12 (80)	2 (13)
During meetings HT Discusses sch performance Appraisal Meeting report & Other academic results	Tr	82 (72)	31 (27)	64 (67)	30 (31)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	11 (73)	3 (20)
During meeting HT Allow staff to participate in discussions and give recommendations	Tr	107 (94)	5 (6)	86 (90)	8 (9)
	Htr	11 (100)	- (-)	14 (93)	- (-)
HT discusses state of Sch management, sch related problems, infrastructure & TLM	Tr	88 (77)	22 (23)	73 (77)	21 (22)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	14 (93)	- (-)
HT ensures that trs are informed about possibilities for up grading their knowledge and skills	Tr	66 (58)	46 (40)	57 (60)	37 (39)
	Htr	8 (73)	2 (18)	10 (67)	4 (27)
HT involves teachers in determining the usage of all finances, grants & developmental projects	Tr	66 (58)	47 (41)	62 (65)	32 (34)
	Htr	8 (73)	3 (27)	12 (80)	2 (13)

Site 1: n= 114 (Tr) & n= 11 (Htr)   Site 2: n= 95 (Trs) & n= 15 (Htr)
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

However, some differences were recorded between the two study sites. The results further revealed that 41% of the teachers from Site 1 and 34% from Site 2 indicated their lack of involvement in determining how school finances and grants are used for developmental projects. With possibilities for upgrading their knowledge and skills, 40% of the teachers from Site 1 and 39% from Site 2 indicated that they were sometimes involved. The lack of teacher participation in all financial issues were also recorded by both head teachers from Site 1 (27%) and Site 2 (13%) when they indicated they 'sometimes' involved teachers in finances, while the majority indicated they always involved teachers. This shows a sharp contradiction between teachers and head teachers responses with regard to teacher participation in school finances.

The above results show that there is an indication of teacher participation in all the items in table 6.11 except finance and teacher upgrading where teachers lack participation. The lack of teacher participation was highlighted by Bogaert *et al.,* (2012) who in their report on transparency in primary schools in Ghana revealed that the majority of the teachers in most basic school are denied participation in issues regarding school finances because the majority of the head teachers were not transparent.

6.5.1 Determining of Goals Data for Circuit Supervisors

In table 6.12 (page 165) comparisons were made between circuit supervisors across the two sites with regard the items presented in table 6.12. The purpose was to find out and compare the frequency level of responses among circuit supervisors in determining goals from the two sides of the study. Four (4) frequency levels were used ('every time' 'quite often' 'often' and 'sometimes'). However, for easy description and understanding of the data, frequency responses were collapsed into 'every time' and 'sometimes'.

Table 6.12 recorded a varied frequency response between circuit supervisors from the two sites. However, the same frequency responses were recorded by both circuit supervisors (100%) with regard to giving suggestions and

recommendations about teaching and students performance.

Table 6.12 Determining of Goals Data for Circuit Supervisors)

Items	(Site 1)		(Site 2)	
	Every time (%)	Sometimes (%)	Every time (%)	Sometimes (%)
Teachers are involved in school development plans	5 (100)	- (-)	4 (67)	2 (33)
Teachers are involved in giving suggestions and recommendation about their teaching and students performances	5 (100)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)
Teachers are involved in solving all school related problems	3 (60)	2 (40)	6 (100)	- (-)
I ensure that teachers are informed about possibilities for upgrading their knowledge and skills	5 (100)	- (-)	5 (83)	1 (17)
Teachers are involved in determining the usage of all finances & grants	2 (40)	37 (60)	5 (83)	1 (17)
Teachers in involved planning and executing developmental projects in the school	1 (20)	4 (80)	6 (100)	- (-)

Site 1: n= 5 (Circuit Supervisors)   Site 2: n= 6 (Circuit Supervisors)
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

The high percentages in responses might perhaps be that circuit supervisors from the study perform and execute one of their major duties of giving suggestions and recommendations to teacher's teaching and learning.

The differences, however, was observed with regard to teacher participation in solving school related problems, where Site 2 recorded (100%) indicating they 'every time' involve teachers compared to (60%) from Site 1. However, all the CS's from site 1 (100%) indicated that they 'every time' ensure that teachers are informed about possibilities for up-grading their knowledge and skills compared to (83%) from Site 2. It is also noteworthy to indicate that 60% of

the CS's from Site 1 indicated they 'sometimes' involve teachers in the usage of finances and grants while 83% from Site 2 indicated they 'every time' involves teachers in finances and grants. This implies that circuit supervisors in Site 2 involve teachers in issues concerning finance more than those in Site 1, while those in Site 1 involve teacher in issues concerning possibilities for up-grading their knowledge and skills than those in Site 2.

Furthermore, the majority of the respondents (80%) from Site 1 indicated they 'sometimes' involve teachers in planning and executing developmental projects while all the CS's (100%) from Site 2 indicated they 'every time' involve teachers. This result implies that more CS's in Site 2 involve teachers in goals of the schools than those in Site 1.

6.6 School Improvement Data for Teachers, Head Teachers & Circuit Supervisor

Table 6.13 (page 167) sought to find out the satisfaction levels among teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors with regard to school improvement through teacher participation in school decision-making. A 5 Likert scale comprising of 'very satisfied' 'satisfied' 'neutral' 'dissatisfied' and 'very dissatisfied' was used. However, they were collapsed to 'satisfied' 'neutral' and 'dissatisfied' for easy description and construction of the analysis.

Table 6.13 shows quite a balanced satisfaction level among teachers between the two sites except in two items which showed a varied difference across the two study sites. Differences in satisfaction were recorded for increase in academic standards, improvement in teaching methods and students behaviour and class management. However, with enrolment of students, 62% of the teachers from Site 1 were satisfied with increased in enrolment compared to 49% from site 2. Furthermore, 48% of the teachers from Site 1 were satisfied with their participation in finances and capitation grants, while 25% remained neutral with another 25% dissatisfied, 2% did not answer the item. Contrary, 70% of the teachers from Site 2 indicated they were satisfied, 10% remained neutral and 19% were dissatisfied, with 1% not answering the item.

Table 6.13 School Improvement Data for Teachers, Head Teachers and Circuit Supervisors

Items		Teacher/Head teacher/CS (Site 1)			Teacher/Head teacher/CS (Site 2)		
		SAT (%)	NEUT (%)	DISAT (%)	SAT (%)	NEUT (%)	DISAT (%)
Academic standards have increased within the past 18 months	**Tr**	64 (56)	25 (22)	23 (20)	56 (59)	15 (16)	23 (24)
	Htr	9 (82)	- (-)	- (-)	10 (67)	1 (7)	3 (20)
	Cs	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	1 (17)
Improvement in school building and other infrastructure	**Tr**	57 (50)	18 (16)	39 (44)	45 (47)	14 (15)	26 (27)
	Htr	3 (27)	1 (9)	6 (55)	6 (40)	1 (7)	6 (40)
	Cs	2 (40)	2 (40)	1 (20)	4 (67)	- (-)	2 (33)
Improvement in teacher punctuality and commitment to work	**Tr**	92 (80)	10 (9)	12 (10)	84 (88)	6 (6)	2 (2)
	Htr	10 (91)	- (-)	1 (9)	13 (87)	1 (7)	- (-)
	Cs	4 (80)	- (-)	1 (20)	5 (83)	- (-)	1(17)
Improvement in teaching methods	**Tr**	98 (86)	12 (11)	3 (3)	84 (6)	6 (6)	2 (2)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	- (-)	10 (67)	4 (27)	- (-)
	Cs	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	6 (100)	- (-)	- (-)
Improvement in students behaviour and class management	**Tr**	72 (63)	14 (12)	27 (24)	54 (57)	16 (17)	6 (6)
	Htr	7 (64)	2 (18)	2 (18)	10 (67)	4 (27)	- (-)
	Cs	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)
Capitation and other Grants have been used for pre-planned or Agreed projects	**Tr**	55 (48)	29 (25)	28 (25)	67 (70)	9 (10)	18 (19)
	Htr	9 (82)	1 (9)	1 (9)	12 (80)	1 (7)	1 (7)
	Cs	3 (60)	- (-)	2 (40)	4 (67)	- (-)	2 (33)
Improvements in workshops and other opportunities for professional development	**Tr**	67 (59)	25 (22)	21 (18)	48 (50)	16 (17)	29 (30)
	Htr	10 (91)	1 (9)	- (-)	10 (67)	3 (20)	1 (7)
	Cs	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	1 (7)
Increase in enrolment with the past 18months	**Tr**	71 (62)	21 (18)	20 (18)	56 (49)	22 (23)	13 (14)
	Htr	8 (73)	2 (18)	1 (9)	10 (67)	2 (13)	2 (13)
	Cs	4 (80)	1 (20)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	- (-)
Overall view about School improvement	**Tr**	74 (65)	16 (14)	23 (20)	67 (71)	16 (17)	11 (12)
	Htr	9 (82)	2 (18)	- (-)	13 (77)	1 (7)	- (-)
	Cs	5 (100)	- (-)	- (-)	5 (83)	- (-)	1 (7)

Site 1: n= 114 (Tr) Teachers, n= 11 (Htr) Head teachers & n= 5 (Cs)- Circuit Supervisors
Site 2: n= 95 (Tr) Teachers, n= 15 (Htr) Head teachers & n= 6 (Cs)- Circuit Supervisors
Percentages may not add up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

With regard to improvement in school building and other infrastructure, responses varied among teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. While

50% of the teachers from Site 1 were satisfied and (44%) dissatisfied, (16%) remained neutral, 55% of the head teachers from the same site were dissatisfied with 27% satisfied and 9% remained neutral. Forty percent (40%) of the circuit supervisors from the same site remained neutral, with another 40% being satisfied. One the other hand, 47% of the teachers from Site 2 were satisfied on the same issue, while 27% were dissatisfied with 15% remaining neutral while 11% did not answer the item. Forty percent of the Circuit supervisors from the same site were satisfied, with another 40% being dissatisfied. However, 67% of the head teachers from Site 2 were satisfied with 33% being dissatisfied on the same issue. These varied responses from respondents imply that although some of the respondents seem to be satisfied with how their school has school improved. On the other hand, others believe that much more needs to be done with regard to school building and other infrastructure.

Regardless of these differences, it is noteworthy to indicate that from the researchers' informal observation, the majority of the schools lacked infrastructure and other teaching and learning materials. However, the few schools that were found to be adequately resourced were either supported by NGO's or were pilot/academy schools.

6.7 Summary of Analysis

The overall picture portrays a positive development in teacher's, head teacher's and circuit supervisor's qualification across the two sites of the study. However, the findings of the study established that teachers in Site 1 (Cape Coast) were more qualified in terms of certification than their colleagues in Site 2 (Mfantseman). Additionally, the study revealed that female teachers outnumber male teachers in the study site.

Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that teachers in the study were currently involved at the 3 levels of participation in decision-making, namely; the classroom level, committee/group level and the school level (Somech,

2010).

At the first level of decision-making, the findings of the study established that the majority of the teachers were currently participating in issues such as determining of teaching methodologies and materials, content and student assessment. At the second level, the findings established that some of the teachers were participating in issues regarding corrective measures for students, allocating of teaching and learning material, selecting of team leaders and allocation of duties. Contrary, at the third level which Somech referred to as school level, only few teachers were found participating in issues such as planning the school budget and expenditure, teacher recruitment, and the usage of all school finances and developments.

Additionally, the study found that because basic school head teachers are perceived to be ill-prepared before they take up their leadership position, almost all of them indicated the need for regular training and workshops in school leadership and administration.

Regardless of these levels of participation and professional needs of head teachers, the findings of the study indicated that some of the schools had improved academically and infrastructure wise, while others lacked discipline, academic and infrastructure. In conclusion, therefore, regardless of the participation levels, teachers seem not satisfied with their overall participation in school decision-making, especially in school finances and the usage of the schools' capitation grant. To find out and substantiate the findings from the questionnaire survey the researcher followed-up with a semi-structured interview to probe further the levels of teachers participation revealed from the questionnaire and sought answers to respondents mixed and varied differences in participation in school decision-making.

6.8. Summary of Chapter 6

Chapter 6 presented the analysis of the questionnaire survey using simple percentages to establish teacher's participation in four domains of school decision-making. The analysis shows that the majority of the teachers are currently participating at classroom level, while some participate at the committee/group level, with only a few participating at the school level. However, there were contradicting and mixed responses from head teachers and teachers. To find answers to these contradicting responses, the researcher developed a semi-structured interview guide based on the results from the questionnaire survey to probe further on the levels of teachers participation, factors that prevent or facilitate teachers participation, head teacher's and CS's support for teacher participation in school decision-making are all discussed in detailed in the next chapter (7).

CHAPTER 7

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING: VIEWS AND EXPECTATIONS FROM TEACHERS, HEAD TEACHERS, AND CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS

7.0 Introduction

From the analysis of the questionnaire survey and the available literature on teacher participation in school decision-making it was revealed that there are 3 levels of teacher participation in school decision-making namely; classroom level, group/committee level and the school level. Regardless of these levels of participation, the findings from the questionnaire survey revealed that teachers lack participation at the school level where decisions concerning finance, goals of the school and teachers recruitment are made. In this regard the semi-structured interview guide was therefore developed based on the following four categories that evolved from the findings of the questionnaire survey namely; participation levels, challenges, views and expectations, and school improvement (see figure 7.1, page 175).

Chapter 7 presents and analyse data from semi-structured interviews with teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors from Cape Coast metropolis (CCM) and Mfantseman municipality (MM) respectively. A total of 19 participants were interviewed; 6 teachers, 2 head teachers and 2 circuit supervisors were random-purposively sampled from the Cape Coast metropolitan area (Site 1), while 5 teachers, 2 head teachers and 2 circuit supervisors were also random-purposively sampled from the Mfantseman municipality (Site 2). The purpose for conducting the semi-structured interview was to follow-up the results obtained from the questionnaire survey to validate the findings with rich and in-depth information from participants from their natural setting to address the research questions stated in Chapter 1.

The audio-recorded interviews were manually transcribed and then coded using Nvivo 10. The thematic analysis approach suggested by Bryman (2012), Gal *et al.,* (2003), Silverman (2010), Cohen *et al.,* (2011) and Merriam (2009) was used to analyse the interview data. According Bryman the thematic analysis

approach is where "themes and sub themes are essentially recurring motifs in the text" (p.579). These sub themes and themes according to Bryman are the product of a thorough reading and rereading of a transcript or field notes that make up the data. This approach was used because it enabled the researcher to generate themes as he read through the transcripts line by line noting down themes that emerged from each category mentioned earlier on in this chapter. The themes that emerged from the transcripts were further grouped under each of the four categories that represented the overall segment of the interviews. Finally, the researcher used the Nvivo to piece together data which represented each theme and developed a qualitative analysis through analysing in detail what teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors said about the emerged themes and what they might signify in relation to the following research questions:

- What views and expectations do teachers, head teachers and CS's hold about Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making (PSDM)?
- What are the current trends of teacher PSDM?
- What factors facilitate or prevent teacher PSDM in Cape Coast and Mfantseman basic schools?
- To what extent do head teachers and CS's support teacher PSDM?

In addition, the verbatim quotes from respondents were also used to support and supplement the themes that emerged from the interviews.

The Nvivo software was the preferred choice of instrument used to analyse the interview data because it enabled the researcher to organise and keep track of all recorded and transcribed data (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). It also enabled the researcher to organise and provide rapid access to conceptualise and gain theoretical knowledge generated in the course of the analysis, as well as visualising the content or structure of cases, ideas, and concepts at various stages of the interpretive process.

The first section of this chapter presents participants demographic data. The second section presents the themes that emerged from the four categories.

The third, fourth, fifth and sixth sections also present each of the four categories with its emerged themes.

7.1 Participants' Demographic Data

Seidman (2006) suggests that knowing about participants' demographic data gives a clearer picture to the reader about participants' knowledge level in relation to a particular study. Additionally, Merriam (2009) shares the view that for a researcher to obtain rich information, participants sampled must have in-depth knowledge about their environment and the topic to be studied. In view of these suggestions this section presents and discusses the demographical data of all the participants interviewed. Table 7.1 shows the demographical data of all the 19 participants interviewed for the study.

Table 7.1 Demographical Data of Participants

ITEMS	TEACHERS	HEAD TEACHERS	CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS	TOTAL
Gender				
Male	4	3	3	**10**
Female	7	1	1	**9**
Qualification				
Master	1	0	2	**3**
First Degree	6	4	2	**12**
Diploma	4	0	0	**4**
Length of service (Number of year's participants has spent in current school/position)				
1-2 years	2	2	2	**6**
3-4 years	6	2	1	**9**
5-6 years	2	0	0	**2**
7+	1	0	1	**2**

N= teachers (11); N= head teachers (4) N= Circuit supervisors (4)

Source: Field interview data (2013/14)

Gender across the sites was almost balanced (9 females and 10 males).

However, there were more female teachers than male teachers.

With qualification, the demographic data shows that the majority of the respondents (12) had Bachelor Degree with the few (3) having Masters' and (4) Diploma Degrees respectively. Participants' length of service in current school varied from 1-7 years with the majority (9) serving between 3-4 years in their current school. This rich qualification background of respondents coupled with varied length of service added an in-depth knowledge full of rich first hand information to the data collected (Merriam, 2009).

7.2 Themes Emerging from the Interviews

The following sub-themes emerged from the transcript and were subsequently grouped under the 4 main overlapping thematic categories that evolved from the questionnaire survey and the research questions of the study (Bryman, 2012). The four main thematic categories and the 11 sub-themes are illustrated in figure 7.1 (page 175).

7.3 Participation (Thematic category 1)

Thematic category 1 is the current levels of teacher participation in School Decision-Making (SDM). The sub-themes that emerged under thematic category 1 were; participation levels, consultation and sharing of views and unilateral decisions. Thematic category 1 addressed research questions 1 and 2a.

Participation in this study refers to the extent to which all teachers who are the implementers of educational policies are consulted and involved in school decision-making. Participation is not only about involving teachers in decision-making but it's about how their views are valued and considered in the decision-making process.

Figure 7.1 Thematic Categories and Emerging Themes
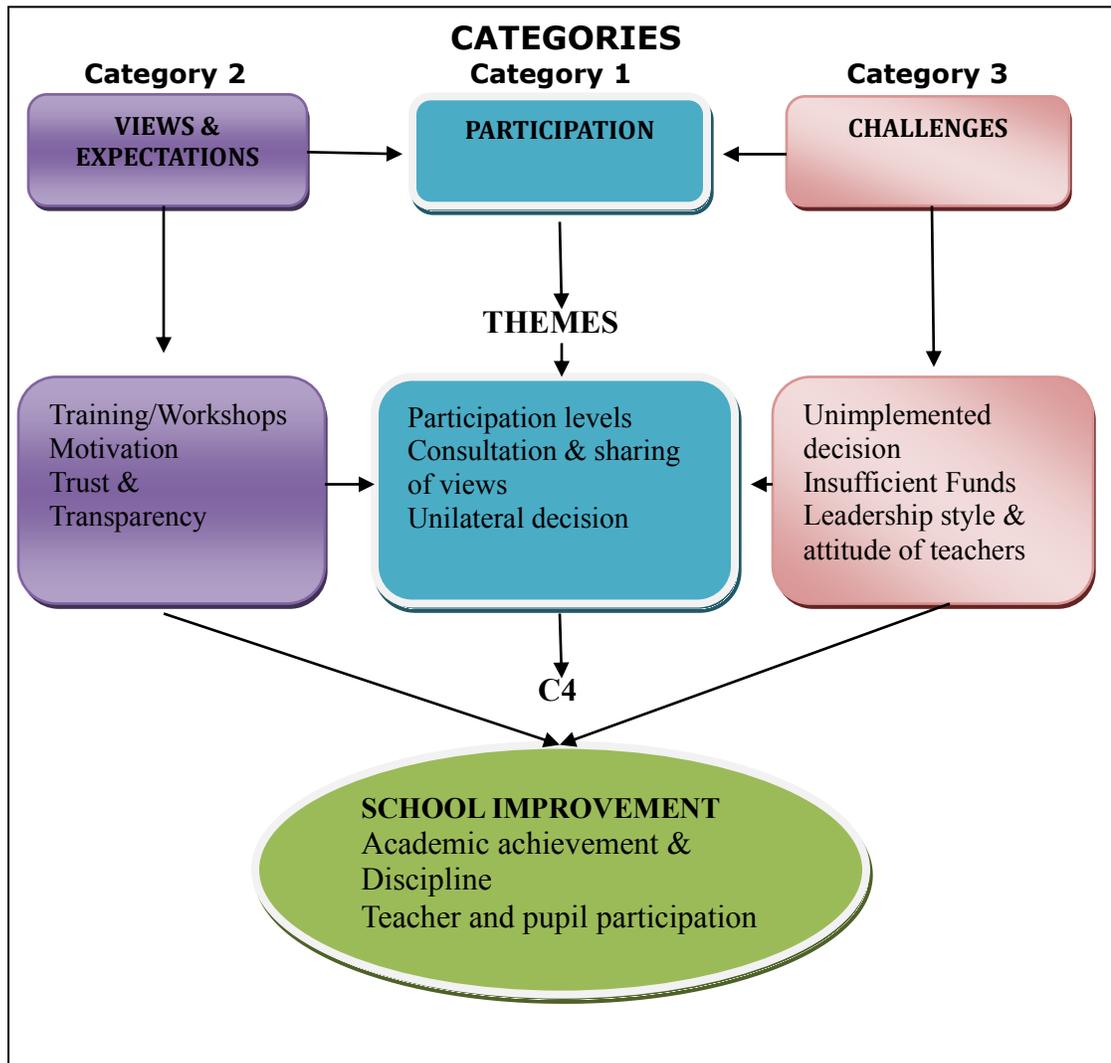
7.3.1 Participation Levels

Teacher involvement was one the themes voiced out by all the teachers to show their displeasure of lack of participation in some aspect of School Decision-Making (SDM) such as finance, school budget and expenditure, and planning (school level decision-making) as affirmed by the findings of the questionnaire survey. Almost all the statements made by the teacher's indicate that only few of them were involved to some extent at the school level of decision-making. However, 8 out of the 11 teachers interviewed expressed their desire to be involved in all the levels and aspects of school decision-

making from identification of the problem to the implementation of the decision, and from classroom level to school level. This finding from the interview is consistent with that of the questionnaire survey that currently the majority of the teachers in the study are participating at the classroom level while some are participating at committee level serving as delegates and representatives. It also came to light that almost all the teachers (9 out of 11) were serving as representatives on various committees. For example, one of the female teacher's (FM3) from Site 1 in Cape Coast stated:

"*I belong to the discipline and examination committee, in this school every teachers is forced to join one or two committee, and it's a must*"

Another male teacher (M10) from Site 2 in Mfantseman added:

"*Sometimes it is based on individual interest but many times the head assigns teachers such roles*"

The study further found that school committees were made up of small groups of teachers comprising of 3-5 members. Teachers were either chosen by the head teacher, elected by teachers or delegate themselves to do a particular job or to make decision about issues concerning the school. Although there seems to be a democratic way of appointing teachers to the committee, some of them volunteered, while others were forced by the head teachers.

Common among the committees were academic, discipline, welfare and sports. Almost all the 11 teachers interviewed belonged to one or two of these committees. However, with their actual current level of participation, teachers expressed that they were still marginalised in terms of decision-making at the school level. According to the majority of the teachers, their marginalisation stemmed from being very often forced to join the committees to their dislike. This coercion result in limited or non-existent contribution on their part during committee meetings which made them contribute little and even sometimes none during committee meetings.

Furthermore, in expressing their frustration, 9 out of the 11 teachers noted that they still felt left out in most aspect of the school decision-making since

most decisions made by the committees were always brushed aside by the head teacher when they did not fit with his/her ideas or plans.

Asked whether these committees were functioning well, a female teacher (7) from Mfantseman noted;

"*Yes it's just hanging. The committees are not active, and no resources to function well. Even sometimes we make decisions and it's rejected by the head. It ceases to exist when there are no issues to be discussed*"

Another male teacher (10) from Mfantseman added:

"*Well, the committees seems to be ad hoc in the sense that they only operate when the need arises and after they had performed, they cease to function*"

School committees are normally used as a channel through which teachers' views and suggestions are consulted in school decision-making. However, the study revealed that almost all the school committees ceases to function when there is no problem to be solved.

Apart from the functions of the committees, the study revealed that teachers within the study were participating at the 3 levels of school decision-making. The levels of participation of the teachers interviewed for this study can be explained by using Somech's (2010) 3 levels of participation framework.

Level 1- Individual participation: The first level of participation is what Somech (2002 & 2010) calls *individual/classroom participation*. Participation at this level relates to individual teachers' performance within their classroom, such as the choice of teaching materials, teaching schedule and student performance. Evidence from the interviews excerpt from the quotes shows that all the teachers (11) seem to be satisfied with their participation in teaching and learning (classroom level) as the following comments testify:

Female teacher (2) from Cape Coast said:

"As for my teaching and learning I always prepare my lesson notes and teach my subject well, I also decide on what methods and materials to use in teaching the children. I think am already participating"

Another male teacher (11) from Mfantseman added:

"Although we have to stick to the teaching and learning procedures, however, I decide on how to teach and the teaching aids I want to use in teaching through improvisation".

To add up to the above quotations, head teacher (1) from Cape Coast said:

"We are here as teachers first to teach the children to learn and all the rest will follow suit, so in this school I give teachers room to make their own decisions about what and how they want to teach, only if it will benefit the children"

Level 2- Group/committee participation: The second level of participation identified by Somech (2002 & 2010) is the *group/committee level of decision-making*. According to Somech, decisions made at this level are those that relate to the subject panel, co-curriculum activity groups and discipline. Participation at this level revealed that 7 out of the 11 teachers were involved in issues that concern school discipline and the general welfare of the students. However, 8 out of the 11 teachers interviewed complained that their views and suggestions were often not accepted and considered by the head teacher as shown in the following quotes:

Female teacher (9) from Mfantseman said:

"Yes, I am on the welfare committee and the school treasure; however, sometimes not all my views are taken by the head. He makes most of the decisions"

Another male teacher (6) from Cape Coast added:

"I am on the disciplinary committee but because sometimes our views are not taken it makes it not worth it, however, I do share and learn from other teachers and this open new challenges and opportunities for me"

However, views from the head teachers indicate that sometimes suggestions from committees do not 'fit in' with their goals and that of the school. This is what head teacher (1) from Cape Coast said:

"When they bring out their suggestions I see to it that it goes with what I want to [sic] be done before we conclude on an issue"

Level 3- The school: At this level, participation in decisions relates to the whole school such as setting the school goals, school budget, admission policy, and development and training. At this level the results from the questionnaire survey revealed that only few teachers participate in school decision-making. At this level, the results from the interview revealed that 8 out of 11 teachers interviewed indicated that they were barely involved. The following statements made by teachers from the study area affirms that the majority of the teachers are not involved in the goals, vision, mission, school budget and expenditure, finance, development and training of the school as also revealed in the findings of the questionnaire survey.

Female teacher (9) from Mfantseman said:

"Yes some of the head teachers have their core people that are involved in certain decisions as finances, expenditure and the development of the school before they consider all the teachers"

Another female teacher (4) from Cape Coast added:

"Because the head teacher always pre-finance school budget she intentionally refuses to get us involve in planning the budget. For instance when the school capitation comes all that we hear is that the money is in, and that is it, no accountability and transparency"

Although the majority (10 out of 11) of the teachers were willing to participate in goals, vision and mission of the school, there were as many as 6 teachers who confirmed that they did not know the goals, vision and mission of the school they teach. This was reflected by female teacher (8) from Mfantseman when she said:

"I don't know the goals or vision and mission of this school"

The lack of knowledge of teachers in the school's goals and mission might perhaps be one of the reasons why they are not involved in some of the schools decision. However, if it so, then head teachers have the duty to educate teachers about the goals and mission of the school.

In addition, teachers responses shows that currently the majority of them are participating at the classroom and some at the committee levels, while only few are participating at the school level. However, it seems the committees are not effective. This finding concurs with Wadesango (2011) who revealed that teachers in Zimbabwe were participating on different committees although the committees were ineffective.

To make school committees effective, Van Rensburg (2001) suggested the establishment of certain structures such as advisory councils and curriculum committees to work with head teachers in making school committees effective. In Ghana, where head teachers are selected and appointed by authorities to which they owe much allegiance and accountability, establishing certain independent structures like PTA committee select team, or independent select finance team who are well equipped with resources will go a long way to bridge the gap between autocratic school leaders and democratic schools.

7.3.2 Consultation and Sharing of Views

As shown in previous sections, the evidence point to the fact that all the teachers from the study area wanted to be consulted and their views heard on all issues concerning the school before decisions are made because teachers believe "they are the implementers of all educational decisions" (Male teacher

6 from Cape Coast). Vroom *et al.,* (1998) suggested five decision-making strategies from which school leaders can choose. One of which encourages school leaders to share problems with others as a group. They opine that school leaders and other stakeholders should together generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. They, however, caution school leaders not to try to influence the group to adopt their preferred solution, and encouraged them to accept and implement any solution that has the support of the entire group. Consultation in this study refers to having discussions and seeking the views of all stakeholders on issues concerning the school.

Yukl (2013) echoed the need for more consultation from subordinates who have relevant knowledge and creative ideas about how to perform a task. Yukl further argued that the quality of decision and decision process is likely to be improved when leaders consults with people who have relevant expertise and strong commitment to achieve task objectives. Teachers are undoubtedly the best subordinates that head teachers can tap relevant and creative ideas about how the school should be managed. Unfortunately, 9 out of the 11 teachers interviewed claimed they are not consulted on issues concerning finance, budgeting and goals of the school.

Female teacher (1) from Cape Coast said:

"Oh, definitely I want to be first involved in the consultation, making the decision and after the decision has been taken which all of us have to make sure that the decisions [sic] *we have taken is implemented. You don't just take a decision and hang it somewhere"*

Another male teacher (10) from Mfantseman also added:

"Personally I believe that in every human institution each and every person has something valuable to share, in that regard if there is the need for decision to be made then it's my wish that everybody concerned should be consulted because eventually the decision will affect whoever concern [sic] so those

parties must be considered, their inputs must be added and if there is a need to review, the same people ought to contacted"

These quotes supports the results from the questionnaire survey that school decisions can be taken with or without consultation with teachers. However, it appears that head teachers implement what they want. Research findings have shown that explicitly or implicitly, consulting teachers and sharing their views carries an expectation of school improvement and outcomes (Lam, Chen, and Schaubroeck, 2002). In addition, teacher consultation is considered by *Lam et al.,* as instrumental in achieving productivity, efficiency, innovation or other valued school results.

Theoretically, Somech (2010) argues that teacher consultation promotes teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly, Somech share the view that it is thought to improve the quality of educational decision-making by giving administrators access to critical information close to the source of the problems of schooling, namely the classroom. In addition, the participation process helps to ensure that unanticipated problems that arise during work can be tackled directly and immediately by those affected by the problem. Furthermore, because teachers have an opportunity to be involved in and to exert influence on decision-making process, Hoy and Tarter (2004 & 2010) claim that teacher participation increases the willingness to implement school policies, hence promoting school improvement. Indirect benefits have generally according to De Dreu (2006) been higher levels of teacher morale and job satisfaction, manifested in less absence and tardiness as well as reduced interpersonal conflicts, which in turn may raise the level of performance.

Fertig (2012), for example stressed that the major barrier to change in Ghanaian schools has been head teachers' confidence to initiate change without wider consensus or endorsement at the level of government policy. Perhaps, Oduro and MacBeath's (2003) findings that Ghanaian school head teachers seem to please authorities still holds as a male head teacher (2) from Cape Coast said; "*You know we are spending officers and in most cases we are not accountable to the teachers but to authorities*". He further explained that

policies are always channelled through them from authorities above and their duty is to make sure they are implemented with or without their consultations.

The claims established by Oduro and MacBeath (2003) and Fertig (2012) that basic school head teachers' flatter authorities and lack confidence to initiate change was also evident in the head teachers' interviews. Perhaps, their lack of confidence and flattering of authorities might be due to their level of academic qualification, training and the way they were appointed to lead schools. The findings from the interviews further shows that all the head teachers had never attended any training or workshop in school decision-making for the past 18 months as it was consistent with the findings of questionnaire survey. Moreover, none of them had a Master's Degree qualification or any other qualification in school leadership and administration. The fact that some head teachers lead schools by trial and error, and have limited knowledge acquired through informal training could probably be one of the reasons for head teachers' inability to involve teachers in all the school decision-making issues.

The finding study further shows that out of the 11 teachers interviewed, 7 believed that most head teachers do not consult teachers because of fear of their status or they might lose respect from teachers, "*Yes, at times qualification and experience counts. Because I think he is afraid since he thinks involving some of us will expose his weakness and he might lose our respect*" said female teacher (7) from Mfantseman. This findings is consistent with Drah (2011) and Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012) who asserted that some head teachers in Ghana confessed they do not regularly consult their staff because they believe that over involvement of teachers in the decision-making process can be a sign of their inability to manage schools and that they prefer consulting the assist head teacher or a senior member on staff for advice and assistance. This attitude might be one of the causes in the decline in staff morale and school improvement in most of the basic schools in the study. However, regardless of this believe and attitude, the literature on school decision-making attest to the fact that consultations in decision-making improves the quality of the decision taken and through that school have improved.

7.3.3 Unilateral Decision by Head Teachers

In school organisations, head teachers' are dependent on teachers to implement decisions, without consultation decisions will either not be implemented or ill-implemented. This implies that a school head teacher must have skills not only for problem solving but also for "selling" the decision to those affected by consulting them (Babbage, 1998; Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008; Lunenburg, 2011). However, the emerging themes from this study suggest that the majority (3 out of 4) of the head teachers in the study still act and lead schools as a 'lone wolf' thereby making decisions alone as indicated by male circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast, *"Yes some head teachers in my circuit make decisions alone, especially those concerning money without the knowledge of their teachers"*.

Regardless of this finding, the available literature is convincing in its evidence that the role and responsibilities of head teachers changed when participative decision-making (PDM) approach was introduced (Mokoena, 2011; Jull, *et al.*, 2014; Riesgraf 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000, Hoy and Tarter, 2010). However, current research findings on PDM in most African countries confirms the finding of this study that the majority of the head teachers in most African school still make decisions without the involvement of their teachers (Wadesango, 2011; Dampson, 2010; Olorusola and Olayeme, 2011; Abahunmna, 2010). In Ghana for example; Afful-Broni and Dampson (2008) found that 78.2% of the head teachers in Mfantseman District complained they lack cooperation among their staffs. According to Afful-Broni and Dampson, this lack of cooperation emanates from the traditions and tensions in leadership in Ghanaian basic schools which is a major challenge because their findings further established that 22.7% of the head teachers in Mfantseman became school leaders by virtue of their religious affiliation, while 59.1% were appointed based on long service and experience. In effect these ill-equipped and ill-trained school head teachers tend to be only accountable to authorities who appointed them rather than their staff members and the school as a whole.

The study's findings that the majority of the head teachers in the study make

unilateral decisions is consistent with Dampson (2011) who found that some head teachers in basic schools in Cape Coast do not involve the majority of the teachers in financial and admission of new students. In addition, Dampson (2011) claims that head teachers confessed they prefer consulting their assistants to staff members. Interestingly, some of the head teachers believe that involving teachers in decision-making process will diminish their power and authority (Dampson 2010). This attitude Dampson (2010) noted, had led to a decline in teacher participation in the affairs of the school. The following are some of the common views expressed by teachers in this study:

Female teacher (1) from Cape Coast said:

"In this school there are certain decisions that are taken by the head alone and others too with the teachers, sometimes too the head takes the decisions first before bringing teachers on board [sic]*"*

Another female teacher (4) from Cape Coast also added:

"I think at times the authority (head) thinks she is the overall boss so she thinks at times her decision is final so she doesn't listen to us, sometimes she impose her own decision and we have to comply"

On the other hand, head teachers explained their strategy differently. For example, female head teacher (1) from Cape Coast said:

"As far as I know as a leader I need not go to a meeting without having a decision in mind. I always put it to them so when they bring out their suggestions and I see that it goes with what I want to do before we conclude on an issue"

Another male head teacher (2) from Cape Coast added:

"Not really that, they are policies from above that needs to be implemented or adhered to so it's my duty to make sure it's been implemented. At times it's debateable. But we must accept it, but that doesn't mean that I'm imposing it on them. Once it comes from above we have to accept it. It presupposes that it

has already been decided on and it's for us to implement"

Inferring from the head teachers' quotes, it appears that there are two sides of the same coin. While the majority of the teachers believe that head teachers' make unilateral decisions; head teachers on the other hand argue that the best strategy for implementing policies from authority is for them to accept without questioning. In either way, the researcher believes that head teachers need to consult teachers in all issues and should not use policy implementation as an excuse to make unilateral decisions.

7.4. Views and Expectations (Thematic Category 2)

Harris (2012) reminds us that in schools where teachers' views and expectations fall within the goals, vision and mission of the school, there has always been elements of school improvement. In this regard, teachers who are the stakeholders' in school decisions need not only to participate but also their views and expectations about the decision need to be considered. In this study, teachers' views are their opinion and way of thinking about everything that happens within and outside the school. The 3 themes that emerged from thematic category 2 include; motivation, trust and transparency, training and workshops. Thematic category 2 (see figure 7.1) sought to find out the views and expectations of teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors with regard to school decision-making.

7.4.1 Teacher Motivation

Internationally, a plethora of research on motivation (Agezo, 2010; Cogneau, 2003; Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2011; Lambert, 2004; Ololube, 2006; Rebore, 2001; Sargent and Hannum, 2005) have found that teacher motivation is associated with student learning outcomes. In a cross-country analysis of the relationship between teacher motivation and pupils performance, Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez (2011) observed that countries with poor records of

teacher motivation have low teacher performance leading to poor educational outcomes.

Motivation may mean different things to different people depending on the field of application. Snowman, Mcown and Biehler (2008) define motivation as the forces that lead to the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behaviour. In their view, teacher motivation is a concept that assists us in understanding why teachers behave the way they do. To Bennell (2004), teacher motivation are all the psychological processes that influence their behaviour towards the achievement of educational goals and yet these psychological processes cannot be observed directly due to many organisational and environmental challenges that affect the achievement of educational goals. Measuring the determinants and consequences of teachers' motivation to work is therefore difficult. For example, a study conduct by Dampson and Mensah (2010) in schools in Takoradi, Ghana, revealed that schools where teachers were motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically were those schools with high teacher-job-satisfaction and school improvement.

Consequently, this study revealed that almost all the teachers (10 out of 11) wanted to be motivated by the head teacher for taking part in school decision-making. This finding from the study agrees with Mokoena (2011) who found that principals in South Africa considered the need for encouragement, motivation and skill development for teachers to be able to take on their enhanced roles in the decision-making process in light of the fact that their participation had been only minimal in the past. In addition, the EdQual policy brief in 2010 reported that some head teachers in Ghana had recognised the need for school improvement through motivation and enthusiasm. Furthermore, Salifu and Agbenyea (2013) also claim that in Ghana, good working conditions such as good environment, classroom space, furniture, school building and teacher's ability to participate in all school decision-making serves as a motivative factor.

Consequently, it is evident that teachers yearned to be motivated. The common views and expressions shared by respondents from this study

affirmed how teachers are willing and ready to participate in all the levels of school decision-making regardless of the daunting challenges they might encounter. From the majority of the teachers, head teachers deliberately ignore their capabilities to participate in school decision-making. Such deliberate acts by some head teachers serve as a de-motivating factor to the majority of the teachers. Again this finding is consistent with the finding Salifu and Agbenyea (2013) who established that denying teachers the opportunities to participate in school decision-making de-motivate them.

When teachers were asked the type motivation they needed, the following were the common views expressed by them:

Female teacher (2) from Cape Coast said:

"I think teachers should be motivated during meeting by refreshing us and also head teachers should encourage teachers as well"

Another female teacher (3) from Cape Coast added:

"Teachers should be motivated and the head teachers should accept the views of the teachers, while also teachers desist from their lukewarm attitude to meetings [sic]. I mean better allowance and incentives during meetings"

A male teacher (10) from Mfantseman explained:

"I think for any good administrator to be successful you need to involve your followers or subordinates, your teachers need to be full participants in decision-making and can only do this by consulting them and letting them know your vision and mission for the organisation or the school and then you must also appreciate whatever your teachers do. You know motivation is also very important, so be it cash or kind as a head you need to motivate, encourage your teachers and you must also trust them"

Clearly, the above excerpts indicate the desire of teachers to be motivated by head teachers in order to fully participate in all levels of school decision-making. In the same vein head teachers and circuit supervisors share teachers' views on motivation. Intrinsically, teachers wanted their views taken into

consideration and implemented. Extrinsically, teachers wanted good working environment and remuneration for work done. These two types of motivation were also expressed by a female circuit supervisor (3) from Mfantseman when she said:

"First teachers need to be motivated and encouraged not necessarily financial. This can be done at their normal speech and prize giving-day. It's also good to refresh them during and after meetings only if the funds are available"

Another male head teacher (2) from Cape Coast also added:

"You see, people always want to see action not words. We as head teachers must be able to implement whatever decision being taken or agreed on; by so doing we are encouraging them. Teachers want to see it done but if they don't see it then it becomes a useless venture. As leaders we also need to find ways of encouraging and motivating them in terms of reward and acknowledgement"

From these quotes it is clear that teachers from both sides of the study wanted to be motivated intrinsically; views to be heard and considered, become full participant in all school decision-making, and to be valued and respected for the work they do. Extrinsically, teachers wanted good working environments (furniture, refreshment, teaching and learning equipments), rewarded and remuneration for work done. Whatever the kind of motivation and encouragement teachers need, it is important that school head teachers work hand-in-hand with teachers while finding the appropriate encouragement and motivational tools to ignite their desire to fully participate in school decision-making for basic schools to improve.

7.4.2 Trust and Transparency

The available literature indicates that trust is a phenomenon developed through harmonious behaviour based on mutual respect and courtesy, and is realized over time (Taylor, 1989). Giddens (1999) noted that trust is conceived in two categories: trust among individuals, and trust in abstract systems. In its broadest meaning, organisational trust is the dispositional beliefs that

employees have for their organisations (Zaheer, 1998). Organisational trust therefore reflects the perceptions of an employee related to the support provided by the organisation (Mishra and Morrrissey, 1990).

Johnson and Kruse (2009), on the other hand, remind us that in school organisation conflict occurs where decisions are not based on trust, unity and transparency. They further suggest that schools need cohesive and collaborative relationships to accomplish organisational goals. Tschannen-Moran (2001) concurs with Johnson and Kruse's opinion by echoing that trust, unity and transparency connects leaders to followers and act as organisational glue allowing organisational members to hold confidence in a leader's ideas, actions and words.

In their final report for Transparency International, Bogaert *et al.,* (2012) established that some head teachers in some basic schools in Ghana are not transparent with regard to financial issues. Additionally, results from studies in Ghana and other African countries shows that the majority of the school leaders do not trust and are not transparent to their teacher because they believe they don't posses such skills and knowledge in financial management (Dampson, 2010; Abahunmna, 2010; Wadesango, 2011). These findings are consistent with this study's finding that head teachers regard the majority of the teachers as not possessing the required skills to participate in school decision-making.

A male teacher (10) from Mfantseman said: "*I think the head teacher does not trust some of us because may be he thinks we are not qualified to handle finances in the school*".

Another female teacher (1) from Cape Coast added:

"*I was on the examination and the finance committee but I have stopped because there wasn't transparency and trust among the head teacher and the committee members*"

Consequently, the study established that the majority of the basic school head

teachers are not transparent because they do not trust that teachers have the required skills and knowledge to be involved in some of the school's decision-making. Perhaps, the belief held by the researcher that head teachers themselves are not well trained and qualified to manage basic schools still holds. Blasé and Blasé (2001) attributed the lack of trust and transparency among teachers and head teachers to teacher's resistance, inadequate or inappropriate resource and fear of losing power.

The following views from participants depict the lack of trust, unity and transparency that exist between head teachers and teachers in the study:

A female teacher (2) from Cape Coast said:

"School leaders need to be frank, open and sincere in all issues concerning the school"

The findings of this study further established that there was disunity and envyness amongst teachers in some of the schools. The disunity among teachers emanate from seniority with regard to long service, status and academic qualification as expressed by female teacher (9) from Mfantseman:

"Yes, very well, when I first came here there was a staff meeting and I stood up to talk and a certain teacher who has been in the school for long [sic] said 'sit down you are new in this school and you don't know what's happening in this school"

Another female teacher (8) from Mfantseman also said:

"I believe that there should be unity and trust in the school among teachers and head teachers where teachers are motivated and encouraged by leaders. I think amongst ourselves, as teachers, we need to respect ourselves and tolerate each other's views to create conducive atmosphere for effective decisions to be made, I mean unity"

The study further revealed that there is also another group of teachers who are

close allies to the head teacher and tend to support every decision whether good or bad suggested by the head. These teachers according to the findings of this study tend to intimidate other teachers who oppose any decision made by the head teachers as expressed by female teacher (9) from Mfantseman. According to some of the teachers, the intimidations by other teachers make them feel uncomfortable to participate in school decision-making. They prefer to be quite at all meetings because they fear they might be victimised.

This was captured in female teacher (4) from Cape Coast who noted:

"We should see ourselves as equals with common vision and mission. Teachers should be allowed to talk and shouldn't be victimize or sabotaged by the leader with transfer and to be looked as those who don't' like the head teacher"

In addition, a female circuit supervisor (3) from Mfantseman affirmed the above views by stressing that lack of trust, unity and transparency among head teachers, teachers and higher authorities has created tension, fear, and panic within the Ghana Education Service (GES). She attributed the current situation to the 'old fashioned' leadership style adopted by some of the basic school head teachers and the bureaucratic system that exist within the Ghana educational system. She confirmed that the majority of the teachers are afraid to share their views during meetings because teachers fear they will be victimised and transferred to a remote village school as a sort of punishment.

This is an excerpt of what she said:

"Yes with Ghana Education Service (schools) the moment you try to be vocal or come out with your views it's like they try to victimize you, so teachers don't talk because of fear of victimisation and transfer and at the end of the meeting some decisions have to be imposed on them. We need leaders who are competent and bold to lead if our schools are to improve"

The common views expressed by the participants clearly show the opinions and expectations held about their leaders with regard to school decision-making. It is worthy to note that, however, the majority of the teachers expect their head

teachers to trust them, be transparent and be able to unify staff members with regard to school decision-making. It is unfortunate that in this 21st century where collaboration, delegation and shared decision-making are tools used to improve schools (Jull, Swaffield, MacBeath, 2014) the same tools are used in negative ways by some school head teachers to create tension and conflict among teachers in some basic schools in the study area.

7.4.3 Training and Workshops

Workshops and in-service training emerged as one of the recommendations shared by all the participants during the interviews. According to available literature on school leadership in Ghana, one of the mandates of Ghana Education Service is to organise regular in-service/workshops for teachers and school leaders to upgrade their skills and knowledge to keep them abreast with modern trends of teaching, learning and school leadership (Jull *et al.,* 2014). Evidence from available literature also indicate that the Government of Ghana and the Ministry of Education in collaboration with Ghana Education Service and Non-Governmental Organisation have been organising various workshops, in-service trainings and conferences on different themes to update its members including head teachers, circuit supervisors and teachers (Ghana Education Service, 2011). However, Dampson (2011) argues that the relevancy and regularity of these workshops to school head teachers and teachers in Ghanaian basic schools has been the major concern.

Similarly, Steyn and Squelch (1998) remind us that lack of requisite skills that will enable school leaders and teachers to effectively participate in school decision-making is a major hindrance. White (1992) however, concurs with Steyn and Squelch view when he noted that teachers lack the specific training in shared decision-making, school budget, curriculum, as well as, staffing decisions. The lack of these skills according to Tschannen-Moran (2001) makes the basic school head teacher feel reluctant to extend genuine influence to teachers, perhaps assuming that teachers do not have expertise to make valuable contributions or make decisions in the best interest of the school. In

this situation the researcher believes that the effective and efficient remedy is to regularly train and organise workshops for teachers, head teachers and all stakeholders in school leadership, management and specifically, in school decision-making

In Ghana, evidence from current literature (Jull *et al*., 2012 & 2014) claim that the Leadership for Learning Programme had had positive impact on how head teachers lead schools. However, they recommended that a regular in-service training and workshops be organised for head teachers and circuit supervisors to keep them abreast with current trends of school leadership. This implies that perhaps a considerable proportion of head teachers and circuit supervisors in Ghana are not sufficiently competent, qualified, trained or have the required skills and knowledge to lead schools without regular in-service training and workshops in school leadership and management. Nonetheless, the demographical data obtained from the questionnaire survey shows that none of the head teachers from both sides of the study had a Masters degree in Leadership, Administration and Management or its equivalent. Furthermore, it was established from the questionnaire survey data that none of the school head teachers and circuit supervisors had had training or any related workshop in school decision-making. This finding was captured in the following excerpt.

Male Circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast noted:

"No I haven't attended any workshop or in-service training on decision-making as long as I can remember"

Another female head teacher (1) from Cape Coast added:

"It is very necessary that teachers and head teachers become aware of how decisions are made by providing insert or workshops for teachers, head teachers and all stakeholders to update them in their day-to-day administration of the school"

A female teacher (7) from Mfantseman also affirmed the previous quotes by saying:

"I don't know whether head teachers go through training in DM before being appointed. Some don't know anything about DM so they don't see the need to involve teachers. Further I think it is important head teachers go through training in DM because in any institution if decisions are not properly made the institution will fail"

Although, current research has shown that there has been significant increase in training of head teachers and circuit supervisors in leadership and school management in Ghana (Jull, Sawffield, and MacBeath, 2012 & 2014; EdQual, 2012) the researcher believes that head teachers are yet to demonstrate their leadership skills by allowing teachers to fully participate at all the levels of school decision-making, hence the need for regular and intensive workshops in school decision-making to update their skills and knowledge in school leadership and management and specifically in school decision-making.

The findings shows that, perhaps, without the quality and regular workshops or in-service training for head teachers and teachers, it will be difficult for teachers who are overworked and seen as unqualified by head teachers to accept and embrace the tenets and demands of participating in school decision-making processes. In this vein most Ghanaian basic school teachers will turn away from decision-making because first, they won't be involved and even if they are, their contributions will not taken into consideration by head teachers.

7.5. Challenges/Barriers (Thematic Category 3)

Oduro (2009) reminds us that basic schools in Ghana are faced with daunting challenges ranging from improving supervision skills of head teachers, enhancing female capacity for participation in school leadership to improving teaching and learning in the classroom. Oduro further noted that the head teacher's role is critical in facilitating the implementation of quality education

initiatives. In accomplishing their tasks, however, he claims that head teachers encounter a number of challenges including dealing with low motivation; managing class sizes; dealing with inadequate and delayed textbook supplies; handling the misuse of teaching time resulting from lateness and absenteeism of teachers and pupils; combining administrative work with teaching; adapting to frequent educational policy changes; managing school funds; handling interference from educational authorities; and coping with inadequate training and professional support. With all these daunting challenges facing basic school head teachers in Ghana, perhaps one might be tempted to believe that their inability to involve all teachers in school decision-making may be justified.

Thematic category 3 emerged with three main themes (see figure 7.1) namely: unimplemented decisions, insufficient funds, leadership style and attitude of teachers.

7.5.1 Unimplemented Decisions

As previously discussed in this chapter, teachers believe that when they are involved in all the levels of school decision-making, decisions will be implemented because they are the implementers of all school policies. In a study among Zimbabwean schools, Wadesango (2011) established that the end product of decision-making among Zimbabwean teachers lies in its implementation. Similarly, Drah (2011) revealed that teachers in Sunyani in the Eastern Region of Ghana were willing to implement all school decisions as long as they participate in it. Both Drah and Wadesango cautioned school leaders not to impose decisions on staff members as problems may arise during its implementation stage. At its implementation stage, Wadesango (2011) noted that teachers may reject the ideas for the simple reason that they were never part of its development. Juru (2002) further added that imposed decisions are not fully implemented by teachers due to a number of factors which includes misinterpretation of the requirements and rejection of ideas by teachers.

In this study, almost all the teachers (10 out of 11) interviewed share the view that the majority of the decisions made were not implemented due to insufficient funds and non-involvement of teachers in the school decision-making process. Teachers were, however, quick to indicate that on a number of occasions head teachers intentionally refuse to involve them in most of the decisions concerning finance and other administrative work as previously discussed. This deliberate refusal by some of the head teachers to involve teachers in school decision-making, according to the majority of the teachers' made them feel alienated from the decision taken thereby refusing to play any role in its implementation. The following are some of the views from participants:

A male head teacher (2) from Cape Coast said:

"I still keep to the lack of implementation of decisions, finance and leadership styles are some of the challenges but lack of implementation is first. Teachers feel that whenever you make decisions they must see something. Apart from the ordinary decisions like discipline and others, the most challenges are based on how to finance the decision made and you know some schools generate internal funds which is not enough to implement all decisions. The capitation grant is also nothing to write home about [sic]. Sometimes it takes months before we receive it"

A female teacher (1) from Cape Coast also added:

"When they (head teachers) take decisions they should make sure that the decisions are implemented; you don't take decision and leave it just like that. If a person sees that an idea brought up has been implemented, definitely next time he/she will fully get him/herself involved anytime you want him/her"

These views were affirmed by a female circuit supervisor (3) from Mfantseman when she said:

"Yes, lack of implementation of decision, finance and leadership style is some of the major challenges. However, some teachers don't participate because

their views are not taken and those taken are not implemented, this makes
them feel rejected and keep silence and not involve at all"

It appears that both head teachers and circuit supervisors, on the other hand, believe that while teacher participation in school decision-making plays an important role, the major challenge in implementing decisions is inadequate funding. They also share the view that with available funds, school head teachers will be in a good position to implement most of their decisions. The study's finding that the majority of the schools' decisions are not implemented concur with Abahunmna (2010) who claims that the majority of the head teachers in Nigeria would confine teacher's participation to merely expressing their reaction to a tentative decision already made by the head teacher which in effect leads to decisions not being implemented. Similarly, a study by Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012) in Ghana showed that the lack of implementation of decisions was mostly due to the unavailability of funds and lack of teacher participation as revealed by the findings of this study. They argued that in reality there is still minimal teacher participation in decision-making process in most basic schools in Ghana which has resulted in unimplemented decisions.

On the contrary, this study's finding disagree with Olorusola and Olayemi (2011) who found high teacher participation in decision-making in some selected secondary schools in Ekiti state in Nigeria. They attributed such high participation to quality leadership style adopted and availability of structures, resources and funds to implement decisions. Making inferences from the findings of Olorusola and Olayemi, perhaps, with the availability of structures, resources, funds and good leadership in place, most decisions made in Ghanaian basic schools could be implemented.

7.5.2 Insufficient Funds

In Ghana, most school improvement initiatives have been undertaken by Non-Governmental Organisations such as Consortium for Research on Education, Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE) funded by DFID, Whole School

Development (WSD) funded by the World Bank, and the School Improvement Fund (SIF) funded by UK government (Essuman and Akyempong, 2011). Available literature on school improvement in Ghana appears to show that the Whole School Development project had had the kind of impact expected from school improvement initiative focusing its efforts on decentralised decision-making to enhance local community participation in school improvement (Essuman and Akyempong, 2011). Contrary, the researcher believes that such benefits and impact are yet to be experienced in the majority of the basic schools in Ghana as it emerged from this study that almost all the schools from both sides of the study were faced with financial problem, bureaucratic leadership system, and lack of local community participation to implement decisions made. The current educational reform in Ghana gave a mandate to local communities to own, participate and support schools financially. However, Essuman and Akyempong claim that the mandate given to communities is yet to be fully utilised as head teachers and teachers complain about the lack of community support and participation in school activities.

The field notes gathered by the researcher affirmed that in the majority of the schools visited the researcher observed some of the uncompleted projects and those that never began (see the following chapters). The study also revealed that the only source of funding for basic schools is the capitation grant and internal generated funds. The capitation grants are sums of money given to each basic school by the government to run the school. However scanty this money is, head teachers complained about its delay in reaching the school as indicated by female head teacher (1) from Cape Coast.

"Yes there are so many factors such as lack of implementation but finance is the major one. Decisions made need to be put into reality. Teachers become motivated when their views become reality. This can only happen when we have money to implement such decisions. Some heads are not open in terms of finance and this raise suspicion among staff member. Here sometimes I have to use my own money to support the implementation of decisions because the capitation grant always delays"

In addition, all the head teachers claim that they sometimes have to pre-finance the school budget with their own money to keep the school functioning. This system of pre-financing to a large extent, according to some of the teachers enable head teacher's to choose who to involve and who not to involve in some aspect of school decision-making. The study further established that head teachers also rely on internal generated funds from small tokens collected from pupils during schools worship as well as small revenues collected from women who sell on the school compound. According to the head teachers these monies do not help in any way as they sometimes have to use their own money to pre-finance school activities, hence the delay in implementing decisions. This is what head teacher 3 from Mfantseman said:

"You see, apart from the capitation grant we collect revenues from those who sell on the schools' compound to support our projects, however, these monies are small and can do anything".

The study also found that the pre-financing of the schools' budget by the head teacher has enabled some head teachers to implement some of the decisions taken, regardless of their financial challenges. All the head teachers interviewed seem to agree that finding money to implement decisions was a major challenge. However, the situation of pre-financing the schools' budget seems to deter teachers from participating in school decision-making because after wasting instructional hours at meetings their views will not be considered and decisions will not be implemented. This is what circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast said:

"Yes, sometimes teachers feel like wasting teaching hours to sit in a meeting that will not yield any benefit or that its decision won't be implemented"

Nonetheless, few schools have experienced minimal school improvement in discipline and academic standards where finance did not play a major role as per leadership style adopted by the school head teacher and positive attitudes exhibited by teachers. This finding implies that regardless of the decision made, funds play a major role in the implementation of school decisions. However, the researcher also believes that good leadership style and positive attitudes by

teachers perhaps, might also be the additional key to implementation of school decisions.

7.5.3 Leadership Style and Attitude of Teachers

Although inadequate funds was considered by all the head teachers as the major challenge in implementing school decisions, leadership style and attitude of teachers were also recognised by head teachers and teachers as also a challenge to teacher participation in school decision-making. According to Northouse (2013), leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Leadership style consists of the behaviour pattern of a person who attempts to influence others. Current literature in leadership indicates that leadership styles include both directive (task) behaviours and supportive (relationship) behaviours (Northouse, 2013). Northouse claims that directive behaviours helps group members to accomplish a goal by giving directions, establishing goals and showing how goals and methods are to be achieved, whereas, supportive behaviours help group members to feel comfortable about themselves, their co-workers and the situation. This implies that basic school head teachers need to develop both their directive and supportive styles if they are to achieve the end product of decision-making which is implementation.

The analysis of the interviews established that head teachers' leadership style and attitude of teachers towards staff meetings also hinder teacher participation in school decision-making. The study further revealed that some of the head teachers were not practicing democratic style of leadership in their schools. As captured by male head teacher (2) from Cape Coast said:

"Yes, you know we are spending officers and in most cases we are not accountable to the teachers, it is the auditors and the authorities above that we are accountable to"

As indicated in the above quote and frequently in other quotes during the interviews, it is clear that some of the head teachers believe that they are not accountable to their staff members but rather to the education office or higher

authorities who appointed them as school head teachers. In order to flatter authorities who appointed them and maintain their position, the study found that some head teachers sometimes impose on teacher's decisions that please authorities as already discussed under unilateral decision in this chapter. This finding from the study is consistent with Bush and Oduro (2006) who found that the traditional top-down bureaucratic educational systems that place authority at the apex, which to them is a common feature in most African countries, including Ghana is an obstacle to shared decision-making. In addition, the study revealed that in many instances the majority (3 out of the 4) of the head teacher's decisions and decision styles were affected by their experience and religious affiliation. However, the majority of the teachers believe that head teachers lack quality leadership skills, competency and foresight to lead their school into the 21st century. This is what a female teacher (4) from Cape Coast said:

"I think at times the authority 'head teacher' thinks she is the overall boss so she thinks her decision is final so she doesn't listen to us, she sometimes impose her own decision and we have to comply. To me I see it as her leadership style so I don't complain"

Another female teacher (5) from Cape Coast added:

"I believe that the leadership style of our head is being affected by his religious affiliation because his style of making decisions is like that of his church members"

To support the above views, a male circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast affirmed by saying:

"Yes, leadership style does play a role and teacher's attitude; sometimes the leadership of the head, age difference among staff, and length of service hinder participation. Some heads deicide alone while some do consult few close members of staff, some are also bossy and autocratic"

In a blame game, head teachers on one hand attributed teacher's inability to

participate in school decision-making to their attitude while teachers on the other hand believe that lack of implementation and head teachers leadership style are the obstacles to teacher participation. This blame game has developed tension amongst teachers and head teachers. These tensions emanate from age difference, academic qualification and length of service in a particular school as captured in a quote by circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast. It also came to light that teachers were their own enemies as some go to the extent of intimidating others during staff meetings. Furthermore, teachers who have higher academic qualification feel their views are more important than those without their qualification. In addition, teachers who have served in a school for a number of years also feel they know the traditions of the school better than the new ones, while those who are older in terms of age believe they have more experience than the young ones and that their views should be taken into consideration than the less experienced. All these tensions as noted by a head teacher (4) from Mfantseman emanate from the type of leadership that exist in a school. He believes a good and effective leadership will not breed such tensions. The following are some reflections made by some teachers and a head teacher:

A female teacher (4) from Cape Coast said:

"There are lot of teachers here and we have different ideas but at times when someone comes out with a decision or views the way the others shout the person down and those things [sic]. Some also think their views are always the best especially those who talk a lot"

She further explained that:

"I think it's normally associated with teachers who think they have lots of experience under their sleeves. Teachers who normally do that are the old ones who think they've been in the school for longer years"

Another female teacher (7) from Mfantseman added:

"I have realised that during staff meetings when in the process of making

decisions and those who bring their inputs which at times contradict with what the leader thinks then [sic] you are marked as somebody who dislike or a rebel"

The above views on teacher's attitudes were affirmed by a male head teacher (3) from Mfantseman who explained:

"As I said earlier on, some teachers are not interested in the affairs of the school and they want to always sit back and sometimes all that they want to do is to criticise but they won't take responsibilities"

In schools where head teachers seem to be reluctant to extend genuine influence to teachers by assuming that teachers do not have the expertise to make valuable contributions or because they do not trust them to make decisions in the best interest of the school, Tschamen-Moran (2001) believes that teachers may be resentful of the investment of time asked of them when they perceive that their actual influence is limited. This implies that in order for full teacher participation in school decision-making to be achieved, school head teachers need to adopt good leadership styles such as distributed and shared leadership to enable them affect positively the attitude of their teacher's while encouraging and practising participative/shared decision-making in schools.

7.6. School Improvement (Thematic Category 4)

From the on-going discussions it is evident that when teachers participate fully in all school decision-making and when head teachers genuinely empower teachers to implement decisions, schools will improve regardless of the challenges outlined earlier in this chapter. Hopkins (1996) viewed school improvement as the efforts to make schools a better place for students to learn and a strategy for educational change that enhances student outcomes as well as strengthening the school's capacity for managing change. Harris (2002) concurred with Hopkins' definition highlighting the importance of school improvement as a process of changing the school culture. Somech (2010), however, believes that PDM carries an expectation of school improvement and teacher outcomes. Furthermore, PDM is considered instrumental in achieving

productivity, efficiency, innovation or other valued school results (Lam, Chen, and Schaubroeck, 2002).

The two themes that emerged from school improvement were academic performance and discipline, and teacher/pupil participation in decision-making. Thematic category 4 sought to find the relationships that exist between teacher participation in school decision-making and school improvement.

7.6.1 Academic Performance and Discipline

Cotton (2003) defines school discipline as a form of school life appropriate to the regulation of children and the maintenance of order in the school. Marshall and White (2000) described performance as an action of a person or a group when given a learning task. In education, performance is often presented as synonymous with academic performance, in carrying out a task, course or assignment. In Ghana, schools are seen as improved based on the student's academic performance and level of discipline (Osafo-Acquah and Asamoah-Gyimah, 2009). Bedi and Marshall (2000) argue that academic performance is the measured ability and achievement level of a learner in a school, subject or particular skills. Therefore academic performance has to do with a learner's scholastic ability and attainment, as regard to his or her work and this is often measured through tests, exams, course works and assignments.

Academic performance in this study is perceived as the degree of achievement by students in their class assessment tests, beginning of term exams, mid-term exams, end of year and national examinations. Existing literature on school improvement indicates several factors of which academic and discipline plays dynamic role. In Ghana, research (Irwin *et al.,* 2005; Osafo-Acquah and Asamoah-Gyimah, 2009) in school improvement revealed that a school is said to be improved when its students performed well academically and are well disciplined. Osafo-Acquah and Asamoah-Gyimah believes that high achievement in literacy, numeracy and discipline levels are the characteristics of an improved school in Ghana. They further claim that a discipline school has the characteristics of achieving high academic performances because teachers

are empowered to participate and share the goals of the school. These views on academic performance and discipline were shared by a female head teacher (1) from Cape Coast when she made the following statement:

"Mostly school improvement has to do with children learning habit, lateness to school and sometimes about teacher punctuality. Basically school improvement is measured by academic excellence and state of discipline in your school"

The majority of the participants, however, believe that an improved school needs to achieve high academic standards and students' discipline. Both teachers and head teachers interviewed agreed that the quality of academic standards and student discipline can improve through teacher and pupil participation in school decision-making. All the respondents further agreed that issues concerning school discipline emanate from students punctuality or lateness, students' misbehaviours, obedience to school authority and rules and respect to fellow pupils. However, Salifu and Agbenyega (2012) claim that in Ghana, inconsistent application of school rules by basic school teachers and environmental factors also contribute to school indiscipline which tends to affect school improvement. In this regard Dampson (2010) argues that basic schools will improve when teachers are granted full participation in all the levels of school decision-making. The following are some of the views shared by participants:

Female teacher (1) from Cape Coast explained:

"Issues that are normally discussed are academic performance of the pupils Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE results) especially when they are going to write their final exams. We also discuss discipline. You know these two are the yardstick we are measured against to see if your school has improved or not"

Another male teacher (5) also from Cape Coast added:

I think improvement of the school is mostly based on the output of teachers and the final exam results (BECE). If your school is last on the school league

you find out that your school is not improving. Apart from academic results discipline is the next indicator of an improved school"

The study also established that academic performance and discipline were the common issues frequently discussed during both staff and PTA meetings in almost all the schools. Seventeen (17) out of the 19 participants agreed that discipline and high academic achievement are the main features of school improvement, while maintaining quality of leadership style as an added feature. The following are some of the views from participants when they were asked whether their school had improved within the last 18 months.

A female circuit supervisor (3) from Mfantseman said:

"Yes, some of the schools have improved, others too haven't. In terms of academic performance I will say it's okay but with discipline we still have a long way to go"

A male teacher (5) from Cape Coast also said:

"To some extent 'yes' but I think what needs to be done is to find a way of solving problems together for the school to improve, because I believe that the end product of participation in DM is school improvement"

Regardless of what was captured from participants, the study revealed that only few schools (4 out of 10) had experienced some improvement in academic and discipline due to the quality of leadership style and the involvement of teachers in school decision-making. However, the majority of the teachers still believe that in minimising indiscipline in schools, the head teacher and teachers should set the examples for the pupils to follow.

7.6.2 Teacher and Pupil Participation in Decision-Making

It is interesting to note that the fever of participation in school decision-making has already caught up with Ghanaian basic school teachers. Perhaps one will attribute this feeling of willingness shown by teachers to fully participate in all school decision-making to the awareness and interventions created by the

scanty literature within the last decade made available by various researchers (Jull *et al*., 2014; Oduro and MacBeath, 2006; Oduro, 2003 & 2009; Dampson, 2011) and agencies and NGO"s like the World Bank, Whole School Development, EdQual, and Leadership for Learning Programme in Ghana.

With regard to educational setting, Somech (2010) argues that the literature suggests that PDM promotes school and teacher outcomes through two motivational mechanisms: organisational commitment and teacher empowerment. The findings from this study revealed that first, the motivational factor derived from PDM provides teachers the opportunity to be involved in and exert influence in decision-making processes. Somech adds that teacher participation promotes commitment to the decisions that are made and increase willingness to execute them in their work. Subsequently, the finding of the study revealed that all the teachers interviewed expressed that if they actively participate in all the levels of school decision-making, it will enhance their involvement and commitment to the goals of the school because individual teachers will tend to place greater trust in the leadership style, and accept more readily decisions and duties assigned to them. This finding of this study supports Evers (1991) claim that the success of teacher participation might lie in the sense of ownership they enjoy through the initiation of ideas, as opposed to responding to the proposals of others. The following are some of the views shared by some of the teachers:

Female teacher (4) from Cape Coast said:

> *"To me my school is always improving because before we implement something we all come together and share ideas before we implement it and I feel proud and motivated in its implementation"*

A female circuit supervisor (3) from Mfantseman added:

> *"Yes some of the school have improved others haven't. Some have improved because teachers were involved in decision-making and because they feel that they are involved in whatever goes on in the school so they give out their best"*

In addition to the above findings, it also emerged that all the participants agreed except one to the participation of students/pupils in school decision-making. Eighteen (18) out of the 19 participants were of the view that involving students/pupils in school decision-making that concerns them will help improve discipline and academic standards in schools. Some of the participants were however quick to indicate that pupils participation should be limited to only issues concerning pupils and in most cases should involve only the school prefectorial body. Nonetheless, the majority of the participants believe that allowing students/pupils to participate in school decision-making is a way of equipping and training them to become responsible leaders in their adult life. This is what a male circuit supervisor (1) from Cape Coast said:

"I think during decision-making all stakeholders' views must be considered, even the pupils who teaching and learning revolves around should be considered. They shouldn't be look down as kids"

A female teacher (1) from Cape Coast also added:

"Oh yes, even not only the school prefects but the whole school pupils. Sometimes when we are making decisions that concern them it will be very good to include them because they are the ones whom it concern and they know their problems and understand them better than us"

Another female teacher (9) supported the above quotes by saying:

"Yes that is why I told you from the beginning that the pupils should also be involved in any decisions that concern them"

The study's findings that all participants perceive students/pupils participation in school decision-making is consistent with Duze (2011) who indicated that some teachers in Nigeria want students/pupils to participate in school decision-making because they believe it leads to increase in academic performance and decrease in indiscipline among students. However, the challenges that exist in basic schools will barely make student/pupil participation flourish. It is however, worthwhile to note that some school head teachers still monopolize decision-

making despite available literature that replete with known and huge benefits to be derived from participatory decision-making. It is worrisome that school head teachers who ought to know better about the best leadership styles for achieving optimal teacher participation for goal attainment are still excluding teachers from some aspects of school decision-making.

On the other hand, the findings of this study to some extent disagree with Duze (2011) who claims that among some Nigerian school leaders, students/pupils were seen as little boys/girls with no knowledge to participate in decision-making.

From the on-going discussions, perhaps, in order for Ghana to achieve its vision 2020 educational programme which contains an education policy with the objectives to ensuring that all citizens regardless of gender or social status, are functionally literate and productive at the minimum, school head teachers at the basic schools need to involve all stakeholders and avoid making sole, arbitrary, and emotional decisions that are detrimental to optimum goal attainment. To do this, there is the need to gather all available data or information concerning school related issues to be decided upon and make most effective use of available data by sharing with teachers and all concerned stakeholders. This becomes easier and possible when the head teacher taps from the ideas, knowledge, opinions, and suggestions of both teachers and students/pupils, and make them understand that their inputs count in making administrative decisions. It is therefore imperative that school head teachers, more than ever now, involve students/pupils and teachers in decision-making at all levels if Ghana's vision 2020 on education is to be achieved and if schools are to improve.

7.7. Summary of Findings

The findings from the interviews affirmed the findings of the questionnaire survey that teachers in the study are currently participating at the 3 levels of school decision-making. In addition, the finding that the majority of the teachers in the study are participating at the classroom/individual level where

decisions such as choice of teaching methods, materials and student assessment is also consistent with the findings of the questionnaire survey. At the group/committee level of participation, the findings from the interview established that some of the teachers were participating in decision issues such as discipline, student welfare, subject panel and co-curriculum activities such as sports and games. Although committees were found in almost all the schools, they however, seem not functioning well in the majority of the schools. In addition, the suggestions raised by the committee members were not always considered by the head teacher for implementation. At the school level, the findings of the study established that only a handful of teachers were found participating in issues such as school finance, teacher recruitment, goals of the school and other administrative activities. This is because the majority of the head teachers in the study perceive teachers as unskilled to participate at such level of school decision-making.

With the lack of participation at the committee and school levels, the study revealed that teachers expect head teachers to motivate them both intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsically, the study revealed that teachers wanted head teachers to consult them, consider their views and involve them in the implementation of the decision. Extrinsically, teachers wanted good working environment, recognition, reward and remuneration for work done. In addition to motivation, teachers believe that regular in-service training and workshops in school leadership, especially, in school decision-making should be frequently organised for all stakeholders including teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors to develop their skills and update their knowledge in school decision-making.

Furthermore, the study established that there is lack of trust and transparency among teachers and head teachers. The majority of the head teachers believe that they are not accountable to teachers, but rather to higher authorities; hence they are not transparent with issues regarding school finance, budgeting, and goals and vision of the school. The study also revealed that there is tension among teachers. This tension emanates from differences in age, qualification and experience among teachers. While head teachers blame

teachers for their attitude towards staff meetings and other extra curriculum activities teachers on the other hand attributed their inability to participate in school decision-making to the deliberate refusal of head teachers to involve them. Due to this situation the majority of the head teachers were frequently found making unilateral decisions.

However, regardless of this blame game, the study found that unimplemented decisions, unilateral decisions and lack of funds and resource were the major challenges to teacher participation in school decision-making in the study. Teachers believed that when decisions are implemented they will be motivated to take part in all school decisions. However, head teachers claim that decisions will be implemented when there is adequate funding. Contrary, teachers argue that although funds play a role in implementing school decisions, however, the majority of the decision are not implemented due to poor leadership and unilateral decisions made by head teachers.

In conclusion, therefore, the researcher believes that teachers will participate in school decision-making when head teachers invest in them the right to participate at all the levels of school decision-making while motivating, trusting and being transparent in all financial issues. This is what the researcher believes is true teacher empowerment.

7.8 Summary of Chapter 7

In this chapter, the data provided by the respondents from interviews have been thematically discussed in relation to literature, especially those reviewed in chapter 2 and 3. The chapter presented and analysed the findings of the interviews conducted with teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. The findings revealed that majority of the teachers were participating on the classroom level while some were participating on the committee level, with few at the school level. Unimplemented decisions, unilateral decisions and insufficient funds were found to be the barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making. The next chapter present and analyse the findings of

the observations and documents of this study. In particular, it will show how themes raised in chapter 7 are being supported by what is being practised in the schools.

CHAPTER 8

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING: AN OBSERVATION AND ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS

8.0. Introduction

Chapter 7 discussed the findings from semi-structured interviews obtained from 11 teachers, 4 head teachers and 4 circuit supervisors. Chapter 8 presents and discusses data collected through participant observation/micro-ethnography and analysis of documents which were obtained from two schools which showed the highest and lowest teacher participation in school decision-making (see table 8.1, page 217 and 8.2, page 226) in Cape Coast and Mfantseman respectively. A total number of 3 observations each were conducted in Cape Coast and Mfantseman. The observations included staff and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. Documents analysed for the study were PTA and staff minutes books. In general, the observation took a form of micro-ethnographic approach because of insufficient time and the nature of the observation; moreover, the researcher could not spend enough time with participants in their natural setting because staff and PTA meetings are not daily occurrences (Bryman, 2012).

The main purpose for conducting the observations and document analysis was to garner evidence to triangulate the findings from the questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. In this regard, the methodological triangulation which involves the use of multiple methods was adopted to check the validity of research findings by cross-checking with the findings of the interviews and the questionnaire survey (Bryman, 2012). Each observation was done with the aim of obtaining a clearer picture or record from the participants' personal experiences and perceptions with regard to participation in school decision-making during school meetings. The staff and PTA minutes book were the only reliable documents as all minutes from meetings were recorded in it.

The observation guide used for this study consisted of 5 categories (see appendix 13) which were based on the emerging themes from the semi-

structured interviews and the study's research questions. Each observation guide had a brief introduction which included pseudonym name of the school and the observer, date, time and day. Items focused for observation included the following:

- Physical setting of meetings
- Relationships/interactions among participants
- Participation level of teachers/participants
- Direction of conversation/communication
- Strategy used to arrive at a decision

The document analysis schedule also consisted of 5 categories (see appendix 14) which evolved from the semi-structured interview and the observation guide. The items analysed from the staff and PTA minutes book included the following:

- How meetings were organised
- Participants present
- Agenda/issues discussed
- Participation level
- How/type of decision taken

The hand written data for both observations and documents analysis were transcribed and summarised. Using the Nvivo 10 software, the transcribed data were loaded and coded. The coded transcripts where then converted into useful codes. The generated codes were then assigned to main categories and themes (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). Data for observation and document analysis are presented in the next sections in two cases; Case study 1 (school with the highest level of teacher participation in school decision-making) and Case study 2 (school with the lowest level of teacher participation in school decision-making) respectively.

8.1 Emerging Themes

Simpson and Tuson (2003) suggested several strategies for analysing observation such as reviewing and coding early, putting codes into data and identifying themes and patterns. The emerged themes and patterns from this study were grouped under three categories and corresponding themes namely:

- Physical setting - The school environment
- Decision-making - Issues and decisions made
- Participation - Attitude and direction of conversation

8.2 Case Study 1 (St 'K' JHS)

Case study 1 represents the school with the highest level of teacher participation in school decision-making. This school is located in the Cape Coast metropolis. Table 8.1 (page 217) shows the list of schools and the levels of teachers' participation in school decision-making. From table 8.1 the school with the highest teacher participation was Philip 'E' Boys (pseudonym name) with an average mean score of 66.50%, followed by St 'K' Junior High School (JHS) (pseudonym name) 64.42% respectively. However, before the observation began, the researcher found that the head teacher and 3 other teachers had been transferred from the school. In order not to observe a new head teacher who did not take part in the questionnaire survey, the second highest school, St 'K' JHS was then selected for the observation.

The school (St 'K' JHS) for the case study lies at the heart of the capital of the Cape Coast metropolis. It is situated on the compound of a very reputable College in Cape Coast. It was established in 2003. The school has a modern school block with a vast stretch of school compound. It has a population of about 320 students, 21 staff members, a head and assistant head teacher.

8.2.1 The School Environment - Physical setting

In this study physical setting of the school refers to the time, place and conditions in which school meetings took place. It further includes the rooms, furniture and the school surroundings. A tour around the school's classrooms, offices and compound depicted a well-structured school building with spacious classrooms, a furnished staff room, a store and a head teacher's office. All the 3 meetings observed were held at the staff room. Apparently, the staff room seem smaller and congested for a staff population of 21. Although the staff room was well furnished with tables and chairs, there were students exercise books packed all over the place which impeded movements during meetings.

Table 8.1 Distribution of Mean Difference in Teacher PDM in Cape Coast Metro

Name of school	Staff Development (Mean)	Managerial Decision-Making (Mean)	Curriculum & Instruction (Mean)	Goals, Vision & Mission (Mean)	Total Mean	Average Mean (%)
M/A 'A' Primary	10.84	17.33	11.83	13.67	53.67	54.26
M/A 'A' JHS	11.17	17.50	13.67	12.50	54.84	
K. B Primary	10.72	18.83	12.00	13.00	54.54	54.54
M. S. C. Primary	12.75	14.75	11.75	9.25	48.5	47.5
M. S. C. JHS	11.00	14.25	10.50	10.75	46.5	
O. P. D. Primary	13.25	17.50	9.50	10.50	50.75	51.88
O. P. D. JHS	9.34	16.33	14.33	13.00	53	
Philip E. Boys P	14.42	27.00	19.80	16.80	78.02	66.50
Philip E. Boys JHS	9.8	19.00	12.17	14.00	54.97	
St. F. Primary	12.75	18.25	13.25	9.25	53.5	61.21
St. F. JHS	14.25	22.67	16.00	16.00	68.92	
St. G. Primary	11.84	23.83	11.00	13.83	60.5	56.75
St. G. JHS	11.25	14.75	12.75	14.25	53	
AME H. Primary	12.38	20.25	12.00	13.50	58.13	58.13
St. M. I. Primary	13.63	20.25	13.75	15.25	62.88	59.37
St. M. I. JHS	11.86	18.14	12.00	13.86	55.86	
St. M. G. J. Prim	8.75	18.00	10.00	13.50	50.25	45.29
St. M. G. J. JHS	11.00	11.50	9.00	8.83	40.33	
St. K JHS	**12.92**	**15.67**	**17.50**	**18.33**	**64.42**	**64.42**
St. K Primary	13.3	17.00	10.20	12.80	53.3	53.3
L. M/A Primary	12.57	17.00	10.86	13.29	53.72	57.55
L. M/A JHS	13.88	18.50	11.00	18.00	61.38	

Data source: Questionnaire survey (2013)

Although the staff room had four medium-size windows measuring 1.82m by 1.22m, it however, became warm when all staff members were present during the meetings and this made teachers felt uncomfortable. Staff minute's book analysed on 03/03/14 by the researcher confirmed that teachers themselves

have raised issues concerning the warm nature of their staff room during one of their staff meetings.

During the observations on 09/01/14 and 30/01/14 respectively, the researcher noticed that, during staff meetings, students were left unattended, with some of them walking around aimlessly, while others played around distracting the meeting with their loud noises. The moving around of the students and the noise they made seemed to indirectly affect the meeting as the researcher frequently observed teachers walking in and out to control the activities of these students. At a certain point, during the meeting the head teacher had to shout at the top of his voice to be heard by staff members present.

Box 8.1 Physical Environment of the School

As I walked around the school compound and from class to class I observed that all the classrooms were well furnished. The staff room was also furnished with tables and chairs. Although the staff room had no fans, it had 4 medium-sized windows (1.82m by 1.22m) which on a very warm day make it uncomfortable for all the teachers to sit in.

After school assembly all the teachers converged at the staff room, which had tables and chairs for all teachers including myself.

During the meeting pupils were unattended to, while others sat reading their books, the majority roam aimlessly from class to class with others shouting and talking at the top of their voices which occasionally made it difficult to hear the speaker.

Data Source: Researchers' field notes (2014)

During staff meetings it was frequently observed that teachers were not comfortably seated although the staff room had enough chairs for all the teachers present. This was mainly due to the arrangement of the furniture and books that were left on the tables and on the floor. However, since the average temperature in the southern Ghana hovers around 30 Degrees Celsius and staff meetings lasted on the average more than 45 minutes, some teachers frequently became thirsty and uncomfortable resulting in occasional disruptions

since teachers needed to get water to quench their thirst. On two occasions I had to sit outside and observe because of the excessive heat emanating from the room.

At the end of the observations it emerged that 3 types of meetings, namely, general staff meetings, emergency meetings and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings were organised within each term at St 'K' JHS. The schools minutes book confirmed that written and oral notice were given to teachers and parents to attend school meetings and this to a large extent improve attendance for both staff and PTA meetings.

8.2.2. Issues and Decisions Made (Decision-making)

In this study decisions made refers to issues discussed at school meetings and how decisions were arrived at. It is important to state, however, that staff meetings were attended by teachers and head teacher, while PTA meetings were attended by teachers, head teachers, circuit supervisors and parents. Three main issues were observed as being frequently discussed during meetings as shown in box 8.2. They were academic, discipline and welfare issues. These three issues were recurrent during all the staff meetings observed on 09/01/14; 30/01/14 and 03/02/14 but were also recurrent themes as evidence from the school's staff and PTA minutes book confirmed to that effect. However, extra-curricular and educational policies seemed to be some of the other issues often discussed during emergency meetings. Furthermore, the PTA minutes book also revealed that other issues usually discussed during PTA meetings included a mixture of academic, discipline, finance, school infrastructure and resources.

At St 'K' JHS discussions on academic issues centred on the final years' student exams as shown in box 8.2. Issues such as registration, extra classes and preparation of students towards their final exams were frequently discussed during both staff and PTA meetings. The PTA minutes book analysed by the researcher on 03/03/14 confirmed that almost all the PTA meetings were convened at a time when the final year students were about to register and

write their final exams.

Apparently, this situation seems to suggest that the majority of the parents attend PTA meetings only when issues concerning their children's final examination are being discussed. Attendance check from the PTA minutes book revealed high parental attendance during such meetings.

Box 8.2 Issues Discussed at Meetings

Dates	Issues
20/07/11	Examination financing, carol services, payment of PTA dues, inspection of projects and discipline
11/07/12	BECE preparation and registration, school project, examination, promotion, academic work, vacation classes, welfare issues, discipline.
29/11/13	BECE results, lateness and dress code of pupils, indiscipline of pupils, preparation of BECE exams, Teachers welfare.
13/06/13	Discipline, sanitation, teacher-teacher relationship and school Fund, Pupils welfare, pupil's academic performance.
09/01/14	Extra classes, teacher's responsibilities at school, code of ethics, preparation of lesson notes, discipline issues, sports,

Data Source: Staff and PTA minutes book (2014)

During staff meetings it was constantly observed that the head teacher at St 'K' JHS enabled all the teachers to play a role in the decision-making by ensuring that the decisions made at the meeting were 'owned' by all the teachers rather than being imposed on them as illustrated in box 8.3 (page 221) from the field notes. The field notes gathered shows that the head teacher at St 'K' JHS encourages commitment to collaborate, participative and shared decision-making among teachers. The staff minutes' book also attested to the fact that almost all the decisions made during staff meetings were consensually made through voting. The kind of voting that normally takes places was through the counting of raised hands for or against a decision.

The researcher believes that this style of voting, although democratic, however, some teachers might feel uncomfortable when they are the only people who disagree or agree to a decision. Furthermore, the researcher noticed that because shared-decision was frequently exhibited at the committee level, almost all (70%) the decisions made have been implemented as the staff minute book confirmed to that effect.

Box 8.3 Decisions Made at a Staff Meeting

The staff meeting began exactly at 10:30 am. All the teachers were present including the head, assistant head and the school secretary, none was late. Almost all the teachers sat quietly, had all their eyes and attention focused on the head teacher as he speaks.

The agenda was read by the school secretary afterwards, the head teacher took time to elaborate on each agenda. After a while, the head teacher invited suggestions from committee leaders and teachers on disciplinary and academic performance of the pupils. I noticed that consensus decision was made concerning student's registration, extra class fees and student discipline. They all agreed through consensus that students pay 1Ghana cedi a day for extra classes and student punished according to the degree of the offence committed.

Numerous suggestions and contributions were made by teachers, and after deliberations, teachers voted by raising their hands. The decision by the majority was accepted.

Data Source: Field notes (2014)

8.2.3. Attitude and Direction of Conversation (Participation levels)

During the observations at St 'K' JHS, the researcher frequently noticed that teachers arrived on time without delay to staff meetings (see box 8.3). Moreover, the majority (80%) of the teachers contributed to issues on teaching and learning and school discipline. This finding affirms the results obtained from the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview which indicated that the majority of the teachers in the study are participating at the classroom level while some participated at the committee level. An excerpt from the researcher's field notes as illustrated in box 8.3, shows how leaders of

various committees were given the opportunity to present their views, expectations and decisions made by the committees. For example, the leaders of disciplinary and academic committees were called upon by the head to share their views on disciplinary and academic issues relating to students' registration, performance in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) and student absenteeism (see box 8.3, page 221). Various views and consultations were solicited from the other members of staff present on the issues before a consensus decision was arrived at. Figure 8.1 illustrates the directions of conversations observed by the researcher during decision-making at St 'K' JHS.

Figure 8.1 Directions of conversation during decision-making during staff meeting at St 'K' JHS
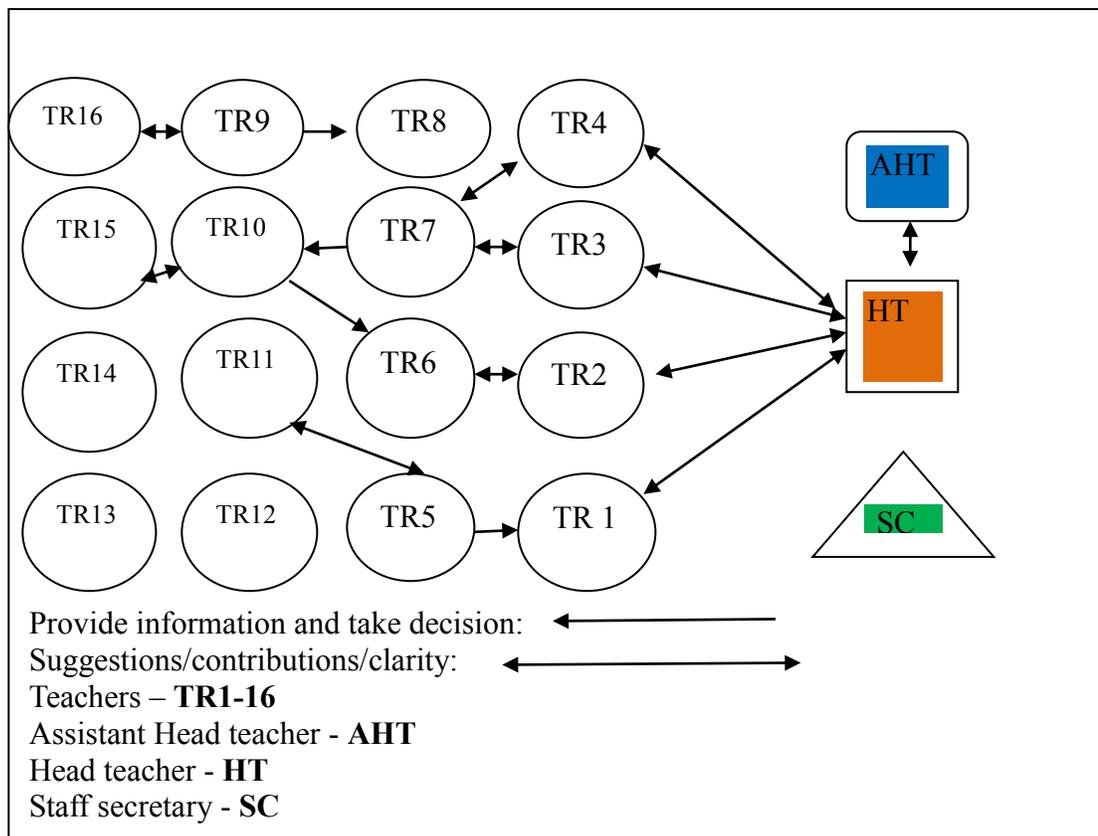
Source: Field Observation (2014)

The complicated nature of the flow of arrows from the head teacher, assistant

head teacher and teachers illustrate the interactions, suggestions, and consultations frequently made during staff meetings at St 'K' JHS. Although it seems complicated, however, the researcher observed that decisions concerning students' registration for the final exams, extra classes' fees and student discipline were made within a short period of time during the meeting. From the on-going discussion and excerpt from the field notes, the overall picture depict a head teacher who perhaps trust his teachers' capacity for responsible involvement both at the classroom, committee and school level by working to create a school climate free from intimidation, fear, coercion and criticisms.

Box 8.4 Committee Participation during Staff Meetings

Before teachers were invited to give their suggestions and contributions, the committee leaders for academic and disciplinary were asked by the head teacher to elaborate to the staff their suggestions.

Various suggestions such as organization of extra classes, how much should be charged, pupils dressing and absenteeism were raised by the committee leaders. Out of all the numerous contributions and suggestions by teachers regarding the suggestions made by committee leaders, the head consulted the assistant head teacher after which he choose 2 of suggestions (extra classes and absenteeism).

Data source: field notes and observation sheet (2014)

From the researchers' field notes as shown in box 8.4 where teachers were frequently involved in arriving at a decision with the head teacher who also consult his assistant. There was however at times the head teacher uses his status to control, rejects and modify some of the suggestions made by teachers. It was further observed that the decision-making style at St 'K' JHS seemed more of a group-consultative/agreement where committees and individual teachers were supported by the head teacher to suggest and make decisions that improves the school.

Similarly, the researcher believes that the type of decision-making style that was exhibited at St 'K' JHS lies in a continuum between Group-consultative and

Group-agreement. This is because as claimed by Hoy and Tarter (2004) in group-consultation the head teacher shares the problems with teachers, soliciting their ideas and suggestions and then makes the decision which may or may not reflect the influence of the staff members. Whereas, with group-agreement the head teacher shares the problem with the teachers as a group together, generates and evaluates alternatives in an attempt to reach consensus as the head of the school, but do not press the group to accept his solution but willing to accept and implement any group solution.

Both the staff and PTA minute books confirmed that the head teacher at St 'K' JHS frequently share problems with teachers, solicited their ideas and suggestions to reach consensus with them during staff meetings as illustrated in box 8.3 and 8.5. However, further scrutiny of the staff minute's book attested to the fact that on issues concerning school/educational policies and finance, the head teacher occasionally consults teacher's views and suggestions but makes the decision which may or may not reflect the influence of the staff members as shown in box 8.5. This finding affirms the findings of the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview that only few teachers participate at the school level of decision-making where issues such as finance, teacher recruitment, goals and educational policies are made.

Box 8.5 Extract from Staff Minutes' Book

> *Mr. B raised the issues on the usage of capitation grant, but the head explained that it will be discussed only when the money is in the schools account.*
>
> *Miss A and Mrs. C also wanted further discussions on the lesson note format and 'wholesale' promotion of students but also the head teacher insisted that they were educational polices already agreed on, so nothing can be done, all school were to follow the same format, however, he promised to forward their concerns to authorities concerned.*

Data Source: Staff minutes book

Nonetheless, the staff and PTA minute books revealed that almost all the decisions made with regard to academic and discipline had been well and fully

implemented. Perhaps the implementation of academic and discipline issues mirrors the impact of teacher participation at the classroom level rather than at school level were goals, school budget, admission, policy, teacher recruitment and development and training are made. It seems that in practise teacher participation at the school level is only tokenisation participation.

For example, the way teachers contributed during staff meetings mirrors the head teachers willingness to share some power with teachers shows a great deal of respect for teachers. At the end of one of the staff meeting, the cheerful smiles shown on the faces of teachers portrayed their satisfaction levels.

This is what one of the teachers' said *"Well am happy because at least some of our suggestions about how studies fees should collected has been accepted by the head teacher, I think the committees did their work well"*. In all, extracts from staff minutes book and field notes shows that at St 'K' JHS the head teacher encourages teachers to participate at all the levels of school decision-making. However, the researcher observed that there were high levels of participation at classroom and committee level than the school level.

8.3. Case Study 2 (M/A 'T' Basic School)

Case study 2 represents the school with the lowest level of teacher participation in school decision-making as per the result of the questionnaire survey (see table 8.2, page 226). This school is located in the Mfantseman municipality. Although as shown in table 8.2 the school with the lowest level of teacher participation is Anomabu 'Q' JHS and S.A 'X' JHS with average mean scores of 32.3% and 43% respectively. However, the head teachers of the two schools did not grant access to the researcher to observe their schools. The head teacher of Anomabu 'Q' JHS indicated that she had been the head for only a year, while the head at S.A 'X' JHS did not give any reason for not granting access to the researcher. The researcher opted for M/A 'T' basic school which emerged the third lowest from the Mfantseman municipality with an average mean score of 44.95%.

M/A 'T' basic school is situated close to a busy commercial town known as Mankessim which is the capital of the Mfantseman municipality. The school is located along the highways between Mankessim and Accra. The school was established in 1982 by the Mfantseman Municipal Assembly.

Table 8.2 Distribution of Mean difference in Teacher PDM in Mfantseman Municipal

Name of School	Staff Development (Mean)	Managerial Decision-Making (Mean)	Curriculum & Instruction (Mean)	Goals, Vision, & Mission (Mean)	Total Mean	Average Mean
M/A O. Primary	10.63	15.75	12.75	17.00	56.13	**59.57**
M/A O. JHS	13.5	19.50	12.00	18.00	63	
A P.K Primary	15.00	17.33	9.50	13.83	55.66	**54.67**
APK JHS	12.00	14.67	13.00	14.00	53.67	
Anomabu Q . Pri	14.42	15.50	13.00	13.33	56.25	**56.25**
Anomabu 'Q' JHS	6.1	9.00	8.50	9.20	32.8	**32.8**
B K R Primary	11.5	15.25	12.00	10.25	49	**57.5**
B KR JHS	12.8	22.20	11.00	20.00	66	
B.S. M/A Primary	12.34	10.33	10.67	11.67	45.01	**45.01**
B.S M/A JHS	13.67	15.33	10.00	13.17	52.71	**52.71**
M/A 'T' Basic School	11.00	13.80	10.80	10.60	46.2	**44.95**
	9.5	13.80	9.20	11.20	43.7	
E. U. M/A Pry	12.8	13.80	12.60	14.00	53.2	**59.1**
E. U. M/A JHS	14.00	18.33	15.33	17.33	64.99	
N K V Primary	10.38	11.00	8.50	12.25	42.13	**46.66**
N K V JHS	14.4	13.60	10.40	12.80	51.2	
O. B W M/A Pri	15.00	19.25	10.75	14.25	59.25	**64.38**
O.B. W M/A JHS	12.5	22.50	18.00	16.50	69.5	
S A. X Pri	13.00	18.00	12.80	12.40	56.2	**56.2**
S A 'X' JHS	14.4	10.20	9.40	9.00	43	**43**
S C G Y Pri	13.17	23.00	19.00	16.67	71.84	**57.9**
S C G Y JHS	9.38	14.25	10.75	11.50	43.97	

Data Source: Questionnaire survey (2013)

Although not modern, the school has well-laid out classroom blocks and limited compound space for extra-curriculum activities to thrive effectively. The school has a population of about 452 students, 14 teachers, a head and an assistant head teacher.

8.3.1 Emerging Themes

8.3.2 The School Environment (Physical Setting)

M/A 'T' basic school is situated only 400 meters from the commercial centre of Mankessim. With only 9 classroom blocks and one head teachers' office,

teachers were seen sitting under trees outside the school compound where students play during their break time. Some of the teachers sit under the trees where they use as their make-shift office.

The researcher observed that the school had no dedicated staff room for teachers. Without any dedicated staff room for teachers, staff meetings took place in the head teacher's office, which was too small (3.96m by 3.35m) to accommodate all the teachers. Throughout the observations it was noticed that about 3-4 teachers frequently sat outside because the room became congested when all teachers were present. The head teachers' office had a desk, two chairs and one bench. As there was no adequate furniture in the room, teachers had to sit on benches in a semi-circular form (figure 8.2, page 234) during staff meetings. Moreover, the room had only one medium-size double window (1.58m by 1.15m) and a door which from the researcher's point of view does not allow free flow of air into the room. However, PTA meetings were held in one of the classrooms which, perhaps, seem much better than the head teachers' office in terms of space and ventilation.

Box 8.6 Physical Environment of the School

It was 9:45 am as I entered the office of the head teacher; I greeted and had a brief discussion with him. He told me the meeting will commence at 10 am so I took time to walk around the school compound. The school is surrounded by private houses and 3 small grocery shops. I also observed some pupils moving tables and chairs to the head teachers' office and to shades under the trees were JHS teachers sat comfortably outside the school. Some pupils seated in the classroom whiles other were now arriving at school.

The head teacher's office where the meeting was to take place had only 2 chairs and a bench, some chairs were moved in to accommodate teachers. The room seems small (3.96m by 3.35m) with a medium-size window, a head teacher's desk and a cupboard.

At exactly 10 am I saw the head teacher going from class to class calling teachers to attend the meeting. Eventually the meeting started at 10:25 am. Although the meeting started late, yet 3 teachers were late in arriving. During the meeting pupils were unattended to, while others roam aimlessly and play outside, others were shouting at the top of their voices which occasionally a teacher had to go out to control them.

Data source: Field notes (2014)

The excerpt of field notes shown in box 8.6 which was gathered during the observations made on 07/01/14 and 28/01/14 shows that during staff meetings students were left unattended; with some walking around aimlessly as observed in Site 1, while, others play around distracting the meeting with loud noises. The situation was even worse during PTA meetings as captured in box 8.7. Perhaps, the timing of both staff and PTA meetings during normal teaching hours does not benefit school meetings.

Box 8.7 Observations Made During a PTA Meeting

Although the meeting started 10minutes late because of the late arrival of the assembly man, the room was almost 80% full. I counted about 3 teachers present with other either sitting in their classrooms or under the shade of trees outside the school.

Late arrival of some parents and the noise made by the pupils occasionally destructed the meeting. Although some of the fans in the room were on, yet the room was very warm as I noticed parents sitting in threes and fours on small student's benches. However, half-way through the meeting chilled water was served.

Data source: Field notes (2014)

The field notes gathered on 27/02/14 during a PTA meeting showed that the majority of the parents were uncomfortably seated in threes and fours on a small student desk during the meeting as confirmed in box 8.7. As the room became warmer, although the ceiling fans in the room were on, some parent began to sweat and show signs of thirst, however, within some minute's interval chilled water was served to parents to quench their thirst. However, the frequent movements and late arrival of some parents and teachers during meetings occasionally disrupted the flow of proceedings. Although the school's environment was lively with parents and their children moving around, however, the noisy nature of the schools' environment made the contributions of parents barely unheard.

It also emerged from the observations that, while PTA and staff meetings were always organised indoors, emergency meetings were organised in the open at

the school assembly grounds or under the shade of trees in front of the school just after schools' morning assembly. Although the school minute's book had no records of any emergency staff meeting, teachers however confirmed during an informal discussion that they do attend emergency meetings.

8.3.3 Issues and Decisions Made (Decision-Making)

The issues frequently discussed during staff meetings included discipline, academic, and welfare issues, while during PTA meetings issues such as finance and purchasing of teaching and learning items were recurrent with discipline, academic and welfare issues as illustrated in box 8.8. The staff and PTA minutes book analysed on 04/03/14 and 05/03/14 revealed that disciplinary issues that were frequently discussed included staff punctuality, student's behaviour/absenteeism and teenage pregnancy. Extra classes, preparation of lesson notes, and preparation of students towards their final exams were the frequent academic issues discussed. Welfare issues ranged from school funds to construction of offices and renovation of school blocks which were frequently discussed during PTA meeting. A PTA meeting observed by the researcher on 27/02/14 confirms that the establishment of school fund and construction/renovation of school block had been recurrent on the PTA meeting's agenda.

Staff and PTA minutes analysed by the researcher on 04/03/14 and 05/03/14 revealed that staff meetings at M/A 'T' basic school were frequently organised in the morning during the first week of re-opening and last week of vacation as the dates in box 8.8 confirmed to that effect. The researcher noticed that staff meetings were frequently held during the first week of school reopening. However, PTA minutes book analysed by the researcher on 05/03/14 shows that almost all the PTA meetings were held only when issues such as funds, student's exam registrations, renovations and urgent decisions needed to be taken. Perhaps, the extracts from the field notes in box 8.7 seems to imply that parents and teachers at M/A 'T' basic school are much more interested in general welfare issues than academic performance of the students.

For example, a PTA meeting held on 27/02/14 and observed by the researcher confirmed that most of the issues discussed and raised by parents were mainly payment of PTA dues, renovation of school blocks and discipline as illustrated in box 8.11 (page 236).

Box 8.8 Issues Discussed During Staff and PTA Meeting

Dates	Issues
20/03/08	Teenage pregnancy and school improvement, lesson notes
07/04/10	Academic performance, action planning, the role of PTA/SMC, student absenteeism, base line test, Capitation
17/12/09	completion of report cards, register, extra classes, and general school issues
31/09/12	ICT/computers, extra classes, PTA dues/finance, printing of exam papers, student's misbehaviour, Sports.
26/11/13	school project, mode of dressing, punctuality, preparation of lesson notes.
25/03/13	Construction of ICT centre and discipline issues, BECE results
23/02/14	Payment of PTA dues, office renovation, pupil absenteeism, and students' academic achievement.

Data source: Field notes (2014)

On the contrary, staff minute's book analysed by the researcher shows that on various occasions such as 19/03/08, 14/04/09, 05/09/11 and 07/01/14 academic, discipline and general welfare issues were frequently discussed during staff meetings.

With regard to how decisions were made during staff meetings, it was however, observed that the head teacher frequently makes programmed and unilateral decisions rather than consensus decision (see box 8.9). The excerpts from the field notes show that the head teacher made almost all the decisions which depict a 'top-down approach'. In addition to making programmed decisions, the

head teacher of M/A 'T' basic school seems to make decisions based on experience, routine and repetitive procedure (Jennings and Wattam, 1998 and Lee, Newman, and Price 1999). For example, during the observation made on 07/01/14 the researcher noticed that two decisions were made concerning lesson note preparation and extra classes. After a long briefing with the staff members the head teacher told teachers that "*we are going to do it the same way we did it last year till further notice*'. In addition, during a PTA meeting the head teacher insisted that no extra classes will be orgainsed. This was what he said "*from my own personal experience as a head teacher I prefer that we suspended the extra-classes till further notices".* In addition, the staff minutes book confirms that most of the decisions that needed to be taken on issues were frequently postponed and kept recurring during consecutive meetings.

Box 8.9 Decisions Made at Staff Meeting

After prayers had been said, the previous minutes was not read, however, the agenda for the meeting was read by the head teacher.

For almost half-way through the meeting it was still the head teacher who was talking without any contribution or suggestion from any teacher.....
At the end of the head teachers' briefing he enquired from teacher whether any of them had contribution or suggestions.

A teacher suggested that extra-classes should be paid weekly and that students should be made to pay daily, this suggestions was also given approval by another teacher; however, the head teacher said "no we will do it the same way we did it last year till further notice"

The faces of the teachers were "down" and their mood speaks for itself as it looks likes they were afraid to talk. Their mode and sad expressions on the faces indicates a kind of coercion and intimidation among teachers.

The meeting ended without taken on board any decision/suggestions made by staff members.

Data source: Field notes (2014)

The excerpt from the researchers' field notes illustrated in box 8.9 shows that

teachers seem unhappy with the decision made as one teacher said, "*Well, you can see from my face that am not happy because he always want to do it his own way";* however, none complained or opposed the head teacher's decision may be for fear of victimisation, intimidation or coercion as reported in the findings of the interviews. The way and manner decisions were made at M/A 'T' basic school strengthens the finding from the interviews that some of the head teachers in the study area attend meetings with a preconceived decision resulting in unilateral decisions. However, notwithstanding the above observations, staff minutes book analysed by the researcher revealed that occasionally teachers at M/A 'T' basic school do vote on issues. Nonetheless, decision-making during PTA meetings were different from that of the staff meetings where a more open and shared decision-making involving all parents through consensus agreement was frequently made.

8.3.4. Attitude and Direction of Conversation (Participation)

The observations made on 07/01/14 and 28/01/14 revealed that about 4 out of the 14 teachers did not respond to meeting on time as they arrived halfway through the meeting. This finding affirms the result obtained from the interview that some teacher's attitude towards staff meetings might perhaps be the reason why head teachers deliberately refuse to involve them in school decision-making. However, all the teachers who were present at the meeting were quiet as they listened to the head teacher. Staff and PTA minutes book analysed on 04/03/14 and 05/03/14 showed an average attendance of teachers at 70-75% and 45% for parents (PTA) respectively. It is noteworthy to state that only 5 out of the 14 teachers were present at PTA meetings during the observation. These low attendances perhaps, mirror the attitude of teachers and parents towards staff and PTA meeting. The diagram presented in figure 8.2 (page 233) illustrates the interpersonal relationships during decision-making at M/A 'T' basic school.

A careful examination of interactions during staff meetings showed a one-way direction of conversation which was occasionally characterised by a sparse communication from few teachers as presented in figure 8.2. The flow of

information as illustrated in figure 8.2 and box 8.9 shows the head teacher frequently providing information and making unilateral decision, while few contributions and suggestions were taken from teachers.

Figure 8.2 Directions of conversation during decision-making during staff meeting at M/A 'T' Basic School

Provide information and take decision:
Suggestions/contribution/clarity:
T1-T9 – Teachers
AHT – Assistant head teacher
HT – Head teacher
SC – Staff secretary
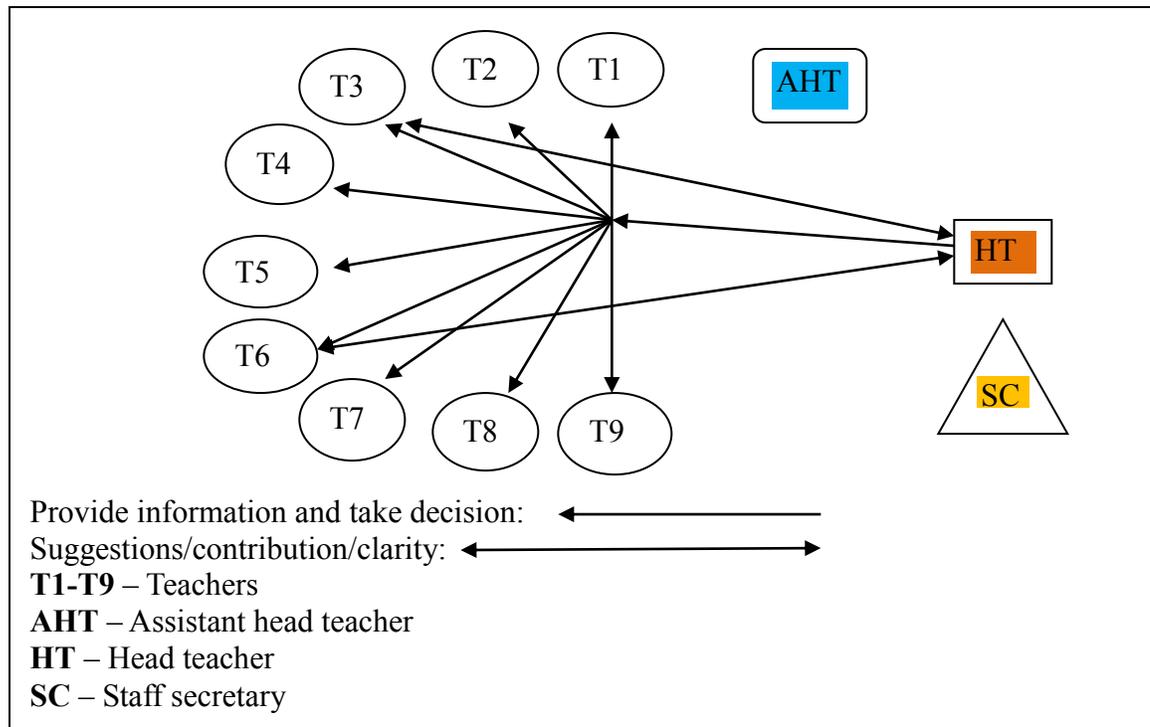
Source: Field Observation (2014)

The researcher further noticed on two occasions during staff meetings that although in principle the school had committees such as academic, sports and discipline, however, none of these committees were given the opportunity to present their views and expectations on issues that concerned them as revealed in the results of the interview. Perhaps, this may imply that these committees were nonexistent or teachers were not given the opportunity nor encouraged to participate in school decision-making at the committee level as previous staff minutes did not show any evidence of committee participation. For example; during an observation on the 07/01/14, the researcher noticed that issues discussed with regard to discipline and academics for which views and contributions from committee members were expected, were however

decided by the head without any contributions or suggestions from the staff members present or any committee. Perhaps this finding affirms the finding from the interview that committee were not functioning because their views were not considered in the decision-making process. The field notes illustrated in box 8.10 and observations made also shows that in many decision instances such as finance the head teacher made a unilateral decision. Staff minute's book analysed on 04/03/14 confirmed that on 07/04/10, 25/03/13, 16/04/11, and 23/02/14 decisions made during staff meetings were decided by the head teacher alone (see box 8.10). From the on-going discussions, it appears that the head teacher doesn't appreciate and encourage the need for consultation with teachers who may have relevant knowledge and creative ideas about how a task should be performed.

Yukl (2013), however, reminds us that in situations where head teachers consult staff members the quality of the decision improves and teachers who have the required expertise will develop a strong commitment to achieve task objectives. However, he cautioned that the decision will lack quality and in many instances will not be implemented when teachers are not involved in making the decision.

Box 8.10 Extract from Staff Minutes Book

25/03/13
The head teacher did not agree with Mrs. K, Mr. F and Miss B's decision that the capitation grant should be shared equally among teachers. The head teacher instructed and decided that the monies will be shared according to the needs of each class.

23/02/14
At the end of the meeting no decision was arrived at concerning the fees to be paid by pupils as regards to their extra-classes. The head told teacher to maintain what was previously charged until further notice.

Data source: Staff minutes book

Furthermore it can be inferred from the excerpt of field notes shown in box 8.10 that the decision-making style of the head teacher at M/A 'T' basic school

appears to fall between a continuum of autocratic and informed-autocratic decision-making (Hoy and Tarter, 2004) as discussed in chapter 2.5 (p. 26). According to Hoy and Tarter (2004) an autocratic decision-making leader solves the schools problems unilaterally using the available information. While informed-autocratic leader solves the problem unilaterally after obtaining necessary information from subordinates. In this situation Hoy and Tarter (2004) argue that subordinates may or may not be told the purpose of the information acquired from them and do not play any role in its implementation. However, informal discussions with the head teacher and 3 other teachers revealed that the head teacher occasionally consults and discusses with some individual teachers on issues concerning educational policies and teaching/learning, where he shares the problem with them, solicit their ideas individually without consulting the committees (group) before making decisions. Again, this finding affirms the interview findings that some head teachers confide with teachers who are his/her close allies in decision-making. Perhaps this observational finding is consistent with the findings from the analysis of interviews from this study and other available literature (Wadesango, 2011; Dampson, 2010; Olorusola and Olayeme, 2011; Abahunmna, 2010) that some head teachers only consult their allies in school decision-making.

On the contrary, evidence from field notes (box 8.11) shows that during PTA meetings decisions were made by both teachers and parents through consultation and voting. The PTA meeting observation made on 27/02/14 and minute's book analysed on 05/03/14 revealed that during the PTA meetings although the attendance of 45% wasn't encouraging, excerpt from the PTA minutes book and field notes (box 8.11) gathered shows that both parents and the few teachers present made a lot of contributions and suggestions to arrive at a consensus decision.

Regardless of how decisions were made during PTA meetings, the researcher believes that the attitude of teachers arriving late might perhaps be the reason why the head teacher refuses to involve them in some aspects of school decision-making. For example, on the 07/01/14 the researcher observed that about 4 out of the 14 teachers were late, while 2 were absent from the staff

meeting. From the field notes gathered (see box 8.7 and 8.11) it appears that teachers were not encouraged and supported by the head teacher to participate in the management (school level) aspect of school decision-making as revealed in the analysis of the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview.

Box 8.11 Participation in Decision-making at PTA Meeting

The room seems too small for the meeting as parents, although most of them arrived late, filled the room. I counted about 65 parents of which more than 70% were women.

The meeting began with a prayer and the agenda was read to participants. Parents were allowed to ask questions, give suggestions and contributions on each issue raised in the agenda. I counted more than 10 parents mostly women who were frequently asking and contributing to the issues on board.

Decisions on punishment for absenteeism, payment of PTA dues and extra classes were reached by consensus agreement. Other issues such as renovations and building of school toilets facilities were voted on, with majority decision taken. No contribution or suggestions came from any of the 3 teachers present.

Data source: Field notes (2014)

Finally, it can be inferred from some of the teacher's attitude towards staff meeting that some of them were not willing to participate in school decision-making. The researcher noticed that 3 teachers made and received phone calls, while other 2 sat outside just at the entrance of the room looking uninterested during staff meeting. This attitude perhaps might be another reason why the head teacher refuses to involve them in decision-making. However, the researcher believes that it is the duty of the head teacher to invest in teachers the right to participate in school decision-making and when it is done, it is believed that teachers will be empowered to participate at all the levels of school decision-making for schools to improve.

8.5 Summary of Chapter 8

In this chapter, the data provided through observations and analysis of documents respectively have been discussed in relation to the literature, especially those reviewed in chapter 2 and 3. The chapter also presented and analysed the findings of the observations and documents analysed on issues regarding school environment, issues and decisions made at meetings, attitude and direction of conversation (participation levels). The next chapter present the discussion of the findings of this study. In particular, it will show how the key research questions set out in chapter 1 has been addressed, and how the objectives of the study have been achieved.

CHAPTER 9

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

9.0. Introduction

In this study, the researcher set out to investigate and examine the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making (TPSDM) in basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality of the Central Region of Ghana in relation to four dimensions of school governance: goals, management, curriculum and instruction, and staff development. A deliberate attempt was also made to find out the factors that facilitate or prevent TPSDM and its impact on school improvement.

The data of the study were analysed and presented in categories, themes and sub-themes as shown in Chapter 7 and 8. Relevant quotes from respondents were cited as a way of presenting defensible and sound arguments to validate the findings of the study. This was done with reference to the aims of this study as stated in Section 1.4 of Chapter 1 and supported by the following objectives.

- To investigate the current trends of teacher participation in decision-making (PDM) that exist in basic schools in Cape Coast Metropolis and Mfantseman Municipality.
- To explore and examine the factors that facilitates or prevents teachers from participating in school decision-making
- To ascertain the relationships between teacher participation in school decision-making and school improvement and
- To suggest achievable recommendations for ensuring effective teacher participation in all school decision-making issues.

Following the review of related literature and theoretical discussions in chapters 2 and 3, the research methodology/design and instruments/procedures for data collection in chapter 4 and 5, chapters 6, 7 and 8 presented the findings of the questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews,

participant observations/micro-ethnography and analysis of documents. Chapter 9 presents and discusses the findings of the study.

The overall research question guiding this study is: "To what extent do teachers participate in school decision-making, specifically in relation to goals, management, curriculum/instruction and staff development?" To accomplish the goal of this study, the researcher was further guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making (TSPDM) in Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality?
1a. What views and expectations do teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors hold about TPSDM.
2. What factors facilitate or prevent TPSDM in Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality?
2a. To what extent do head teachers and circuit supervisors support TPSDM?
3. In what ways does TPSDM affect school improvement in Ghanaian basic schools?

This chapter's focus on answering the research questions of the study. It first highlighted the demographic data of respondents. The current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making, views and expectations of respondents in relation to, and barriers to PDM are also discussed. To conclude this chapter, head teachers and circuit supervisor's support for teacher participation in school decision-making and the relation between PDM and school improvement was discussed.

9.1 Demographic Data of Respondents

The study collected data from teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors from the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality. Twenty-three (23) basic schools were randomly selected from the two study sites. Questionnaires were distributed to 235 teachers from the two study sites with

a return rate of 89% constituting 209 teachers respectively. Twenty-nine (29) questionnaires were administered to head teachers with a return rate of 90%. Furthermore, out of the 14 circuit supervisors whom questionnaires were administered, 11 representing 79% were returned. In all a total of 246 (88%) respondents took part in the questionnaire survey and was used for the quantitative analysis.

The study followed-up the questionnaire survey with semi-structured interviews. A total of 19 respondents involving 11 teachers, 4 head teachers and 4 circuit supervisors were sampled from schools within the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality respectively. To garner first hand evidence and information to support the themes that emerged from the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interviews, participant observations in the form of micro-ethnography and documents analysis were conducted in two schools that showed high and low levels of teacher participation in school decision-making. In chapter 6, the demographic distribution of participants according to gender, age, qualification and length of service in current position and school across the two study sites have been thoroughly discussed.

The demographical data illustrated in tables 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 shows that the majority of the study's respondents were females with the majority of them from urban schools. The findings of the study indicate that there were more teachers in urban basic schools than the rural-urban schools in Ghana. The reason might be the increased in enrolment and retention among pupils in urban schools compared to rural-urban schools as reported in the Ministry of Education's 2013 sector report. In this regard, the researcher believes that the more pupils are enrolled in schools, the more teachers are needed to teach them, hence such difference in teacher population. In addition, Asare (2009) and Anamuah-Mensah and Benneh, (n.d) argue that in Ghana females outnumber male teachers because they claim that females in Ghana prefer teaching as a profession than males. Furthermore, the World Bank (2010) reported that the distribution of teachers, especially, trained teachers is unequal in Ghana. The report indicated that female teachers in Ghana generally prefer to work

in better endowed urban centres, and avoid being deployed to remote schools, impoverished areas with poor infrastructure and sanitation.

The demographic data regarding age across the two sites of the study recorded some differences. The result of the study shows that the majority of the teachers (58%) in site 1 and 48% in site 2 were aged between 30-39 years. Although the majority of the teachers from both sites recorded their highest age between 30-39 years, there were however more teachers in Site 1 within the same age category than teachers in Site 2. In addition, the study established that 73% of the teachers had spent 1-5 years in their current school. The implication is that teachers may not have served enough years in a particular school to have acquired and gained experience to actively participate in school decision-making. Similarly, Anamuah-Mensah (2008) claims that basic school teachers in Ghana are among the least experience teachers with an average of 6 years of teaching experiences and below 30 years of age compared to other African countries which puts them in disadvantage position in PSDM

Among the head teachers, the findings of the study revealed that the majority (88%) of the head teachers were above 40 years with 52% within the age range of 50-59. With circuit supervisors, the majority (80%) of them in Site 1 fell within 40-49 years, contrary, in Site 2 the majority (83%) fell between 50-59 years of age. In Ghana the retirement age for public servants is 60 years. The researcher therefore argues that with the majority of the head teachers and circuit supervisors nearing the retirement age, the best way to mentor the young generation of teachers is to actively involve them at all the 3 levels of school decision-making to be able to take up their future roles as head teachers and circuit supervisors. In addition, the researcher further argues that the high qualification levels of teachers in the study can become an assert to head teachers because teachers will be able to understand issues better due to the knowledge and skills possessed by them. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs teachers with such levels of academic qualifications and knowledge will be craving for such higher needs as participation in school decision-making at the school level rather than the individual/classroom level. In this regard, the researcher believes that for teachers to reach their self actualisation and con-

tribute positively to school improvement there is the need for head teachers to frequently involve them in school decision-making by harnessing the unique talent of the individual teachers towards school improvement.

The findings from this study further shows that almost all the participants from the two sites were professionally trained teachers except 3% from rural-urban schools who were "pupil-teachers" (Untrained). This finding is consistent with Anamuh-Mensah (2008) who claims that the introduction of the Untrained Teacher Training in Basic Education (UTTBE) programme in 2004 has been able trained about 60% of the 24,000 untrained teachers in Ghana. This is quite a significant achievement because it is said that if teachers acquire the professional competence and attitudes that enable them to effectively perform their multiple tasks in the classroom, in the school and in the community, teachers become the single most important contributing factor in ensuring quality educational provision. On the contrary, the 2013 Education Sector Report released by the Ministry of Education (MOE) indicate that since 2010 the number of untrained teacher have been increasing at 9%. The inconsistency in the findings calls for further research to find out the causes and solutions to the increasing number of untrained teachers in Ghana.

The findings of the study further established that none of the head teachers had a Master's degree in education or its equivalent. In addition, none of them had attended training which dwelled on school decision-making over the past year. They, however, agreed that they gain awareness from observing other head teacher and from their own experiences. The finding confirms previous findings of Oduro (2008), Bush and Oduro (2006) and Afful-Broni and Dampson (2008) who found that the majority of the basic school head teachers in Ghana are appointed and selected based on experience and long service rather than academic qualification, which to a large extent affect them in their day-to-day school management. In this regard, Oduro (2008) argue that for Ghana to achieve the quality of education by 2015, the government needs to develop effective school leadership both at the school and classroom levels. He added that the critical missing ingredient in Sub-Saharan Africa's quest for attaining sustainable development through quality education, especially at the basic

school level is through head teacher's Leadership development. Although the Leadership for Learning Programme had had some positive impact on policy direction and on teacher leadership, the researcher however, believes that more needs to be done with regard to the type of training given to basic school head teachers in Ghana.

9.2 Discussion of the Findings

The 1987 educational reforms in Ghana set out to provide Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) for all Ghanaian school-going age. One of the major aims of the FCUBE has been to improve access and participation in basic education by encouraging all stakeholders to participate in school decision-making and other school related activities. The findings of the study show traces that teacher PDM may lead to school improvement. However, as the focus of the study was to find out the current levels of teacher PDM, much evidence was not gathered to fully substantiate the impact of PDM on school improvement. The meaning of school improvement has come to stand for how schools are able to improve their effectiveness over a period of time and is particularly concerned with activities that bring about this change. In this regard change may come about when teachers are empowered to participate fully in school decisions.

In summary, the findings of the study established that the majority of the teachers are currently participating at the classroom level, while some are participating at the committee levels, with few participating at the school level. In addition, as much as teachers are willing to participate in school decisions, the study established that unilateral decisions, unimplemented decisions and insufficient funds serves as barriers to their participation in school decision-making. However, teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors agreed that these barriers can be eradicated when teachers are empowered, motivated, trained and when there is trust and transparency among staff members. Figure 9.1 (page 244) illustrates and summarises the process, linkages and dynamics of the findings of this study.

Figure 9.1 The Process, Linkages and Dynamics of the Findings of the Study

SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT
School Productivity
School Innovation
Organisation Teacher Behaviour

VIEWS AND EXPECTATIONS
Teacher Empowerment ⟷ Sense of Ownership
Trust and Transparency ⟷ Motivation ⟷ Training

BARRIERS/CHALLENGES
Insufficient Funds ⟷ Unilateral Decisions ⟷ Unimplemented Decisions

SUPPORT FOR TEACHER PDM
One-on-One ⟷ Classroom ⟷ Committee consultation

LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION
Classroom ⟷ Committee ⟷ School levels
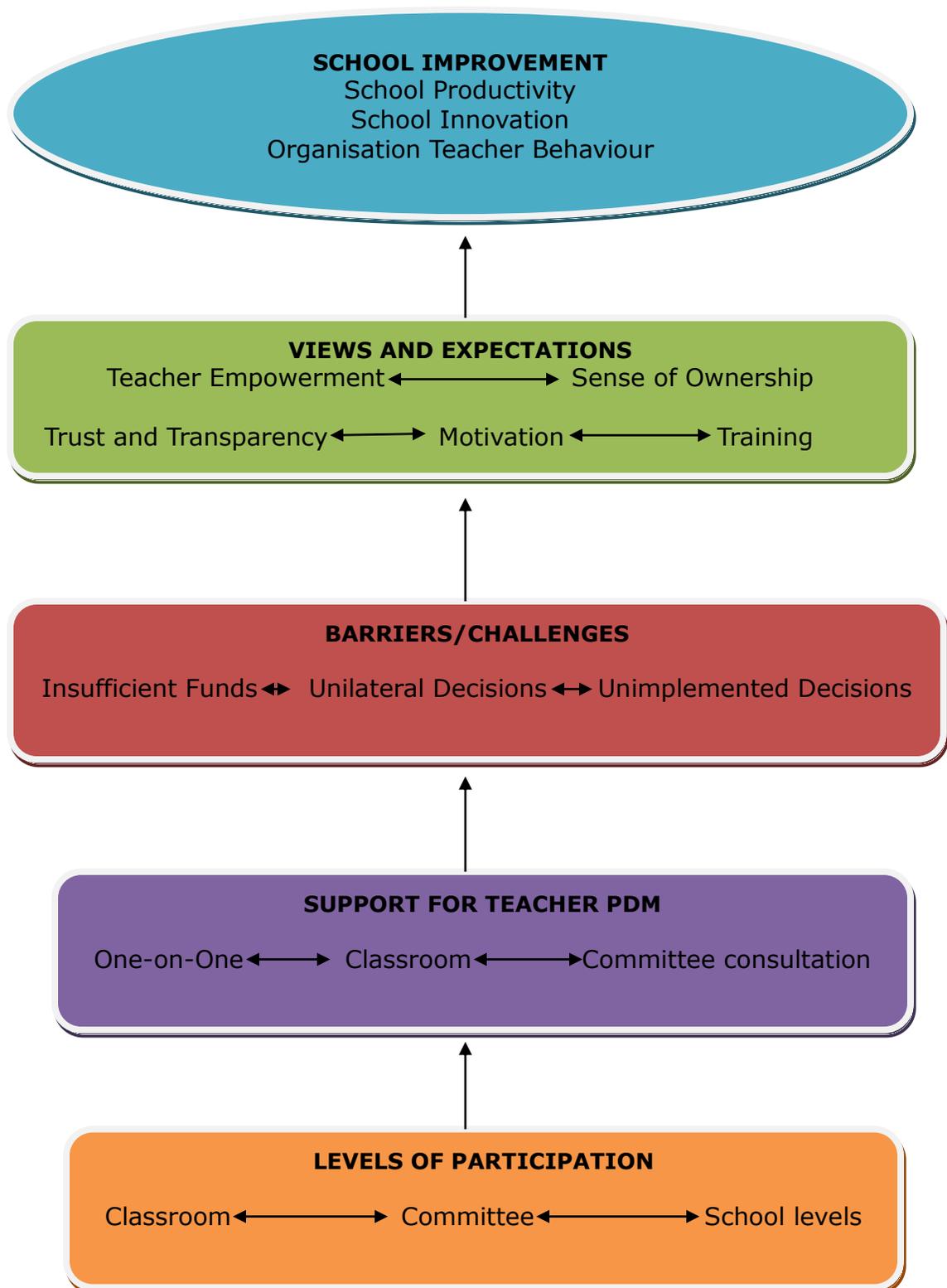
Data source: Semi-structured Interviews/field observation (2013/14)

9.2.1 Current Trends of Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

The findings of this study established that the current trend of teacher partici-pation in school decision-making in the study area falls within a continuum of individual/classroom level, committee/group level to the school level as illus-trated in figure 9.2 (page 246). Data collected through questionnaire survey, interviews, observation and documents revealed that the majority of the teachers in the study were involved in school decision-making at the individu-al/classroom level, while some participated at the committee/group level with few participating at the school level. As already explained in Chapter 7 and 8, teacher participation in this study refers to where individual teachers' or groups of teachers' share in the making of final decisions in the school. Typically, it was observed as a situation whereby various individual teachers openly discuss and collectively come to a consensus about the outcome and direction of a par-ticular policy or action. However, in some schools, teacher participation was observed as where individual teachers or committees present at a meeting or informal conversations when policy matters are being discussed but do not have any direct influence on what policies or decisions were finally decided. Figure 9.2 illustrates the current levels of teacher participation in school deci-sion-making in the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality re-spectively.

Individual/Classroom Level of Participation

The current levels of teacher participation in this study can be explained by using Somech's (2002 & 2010) three levels (individual/classroom level, group/committee level and school level) of participation framework.

At the individual/classroom levels of participation the study found that teacher participation in school decision-making relates to individual teachers' perfor-mance within the classroom, such as the choice of teaching materials, teaching schedule and student assessment (teaching and learning) as shown in figure 9.2. Data from both the questionnaire survey and interview showed that the

majority of the teachers seem satisfied with their individual/classroom level of participation because teachers participated fully in making decisions concerning teaching methodologies, teaching content and student assessment. The findings of the study further established that in the majority of the urban schools teachers were much more involved in decision-making on a one-on-one at the classroom level as previously discussed, while such approach was very minimal in the majority of the rural-urban schools.

Figure 9.2 Current Levels of Teacher Participation in School Decision
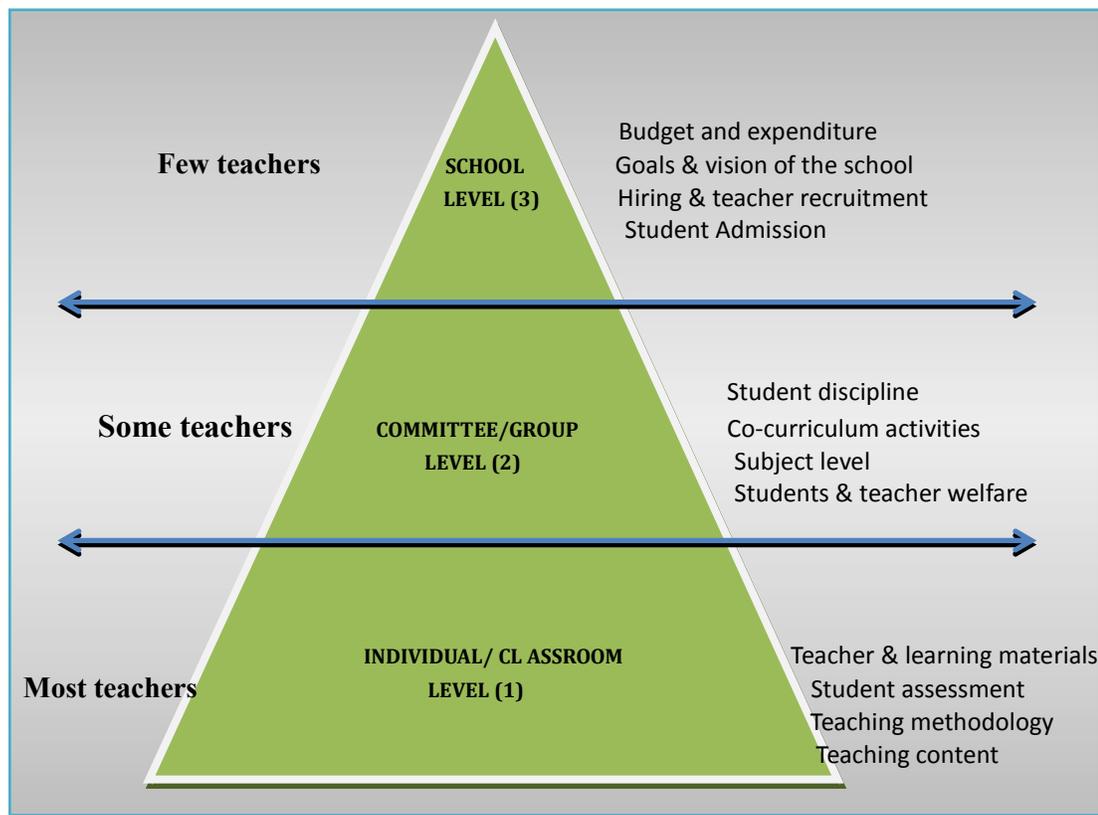
Source: field observation/interview/questionnaire (2013/14)

Instead, in most of the rural-urban schools head teachers tend to confide in teachers who are his/her close allies and older-experienced teachers. According to available literature (Harris, 2012; Johnson and Kruse, 2009; Wadesango, 2011) in situations where teachers feel satisfied and motivated to take part in decision-making at the classroom level, the school eventually improve because it is believed that teachers will be able to associate themselves with the school

and work towards maximising output. Current studies such as Mokoena (2011), Dampson (2010) and Wadesango (2011) share similar view that greater involvement of teachers in decisions on a one-to-one at the classroom level encourages teachers to feel respected as individuals and boots the individual teachers' self esteem and confidence.

The findings of the study therefore suggest that consultation on one-to-one allows the school head teacher to understand teachers as individuals and not as a group, hence empowering their individual/classroom levels of participation. However, Blasé and Blasé (2001) argue that true teacher empowerment extends well beyond participation in decision-making at the classroom level. They argue that for teachers to realise their full potentials and participate meaningfully in school decision-making, head teachers should trust, respect teachers, involve and support them in all school related issues. The researcher therefore argues that perhaps, because some head teachers do not trust their teachers, which is why the study found that issues concerning school finance, budget, expenditure and goals were frequently decided by the head teacher with the assistance of his/her close allies.

Committee\Group Level of Participation

According to Somech's framework, the second level of participation is the committee/group level. School committees according to the findings of this study are groups of individual teachers who are either appointed by the head teacher or by virtue of a teachers interest and expertise come together to form a group within the school to help solve school related problems. The study found that almost all the schools in the study have committees such as; disciplinary committee, sports committee, academic/exam committee, welfare committee, sanitary and health committee, fund raising/finance committee and School Management Committee (SMC). Among all these committees the most common ones were discipline, welfare and academic/exam committees. In addition, the findings of the study revealed that in some of the urban schools, members of these committees are voted for, while others volunteer themselves. However, in the majority of the rural-urban and some of the urban schools,

committee members were appointed by the head teacher which to some of the teachers overshadows their participation because of the influence the head teacher has on them.

According to Somech (2002 & 2010) decision-making at the committee/group level are those that relate to the discipline, co-curriculum activities and subject panel. Similarly, in this study, participation at this level revealed that the majority of the teachers in the urban schools were involved in school decision-making at the committee level. Contrary, committees seem non-existent in most of the rural-urban schools. An inquiry into teacher participation in decision-making at the committee level indicate that not all the teachers prefer to be on school committees, reasons such as further studies, child caring and other personal reasons were given by those teachers. However, although some teachers were found to be participating at that level, the majority of them conceded that their participation has not been fully achieved. The majority of the teachers admitted that decisions arrived by committees are not always accepted by the head teacher for implementation. In this regard the researcher believes that perhaps, because some of the teachers are appointed by the head teachers, their commitment to fair judgment on decision-making will be affected to some extent. Regardless, of this side effect, Wadesango (2011) claims that committees are a way to formally drawing together people of relevant expertise from the whole staff, which otherwise would not have a good way to share information and coordinate actions. Current research findings (Mokoena, 2011; Wadesango, 2011; and Mualuko *et al,* 2009; Somech, 2012) supports the formation of school committees. These scholars argue that committees have the advantage of bringing everyone on board during decision-making. Committees also help to widen view points and have members with relevant expertise to share their knowledge on an issue. These views are supported by Steyn (2001) when he stated that by using teams it becomes possible to involve large number of people in decision-making and this according to Steyn is the first step in building ownership, commitment and empowerment among teachers. Regardless of the importance of committee participation, it emerged from this study that some of the committees were ineffective because they

lacked the required resources to function, while others seem non-existent be-cause they lacked the support of the head teacher. The researcher therefore argues that perhaps the ineffectiveness and non-existence of school commit-tees might partly be a problem of insufficient funds and head teachers leader-ship style.

To make school committees more effective and functionable, Van Rensburg (2001) suggests the establishment of certain structures such as advisory coun-cils and curriculum committees to work with head teachers in making school committees effective. However, in Ghana where head teachers are selected and appointed by authorities to whom they owe allegiance and accountability, the researcher believes that establishing certain independent structures like PTA select team or independent select team who are well equipped with the knowledge, skills and expertise will go a long way to improve teacher participa-tion at all levels of decision-making, especially at the committee and the school levels.

School Level of Participation

As illustrated in figure 9.2 (page 246) the highest level of decision-making is the school level. At the school level the findings from both questionnaire survey and interviews revealed that the majority of the teachers from both sides of the study were not participating at the school level. At the school level, participation in decisions relates to the setting of goals, school budget, admission policy, development and training (management and goals decision) as shown in figure 9.2. At the school level, the findings from this study revealed that the majority of the teachers in both urban and rural-urban schools were not involved in school finance, expenditure, hiring and recruiting of teachers and goals of the school. In addition, evidence from the study's observations and minute books revealed that some of the head teachers made unilateral decisions regarding financial issues, expenditure and goals of the school as previously discussed in chapter 7 and 8 respectively.

From the on-going discussions and findings, the researcher argues that

perhaps one of the reasons why the majority of the teachers are not involved in school decision-making at the school level might be that some head teachers fear teacher participation at the school level will expose their incompetence, while others claim that teachers do not possess the knowledge, skills and expertise to be involved at such levels of school decision-making. This finding supports current studies by Abahunmna (2010), Dampson (2010) and Mokoena (2011) who found that the majority of the teachers in Nigeria, Ghana and South Africa were deprived from participating at the school level of decision-making. Contrary, the study's finding disagrees with the findings of Olorusola and Olayemi (2011) who revealed high teacher participation in school management in some selected secondary schools in Nigeria. The researcher argues that the differences in findings perhaps emanate from the availability of structures, funds and good leadership skills that exist in a particular school at a particular time.

The review of related literature in school decision-making suggests that failure to involve teachers in school decision-making is a plan to fail (Harris, 2012; Somech, 2010; Johnson and Kruse, 2009). The finding of this study shows that among the basic schools in the study, staff meetings are generally considered as the medium for involving the entire staff in school decision-making. However, the study revealed that while school teachers consider staff meeting as an ideal way of sharing their views and participating in school decision-making, some head teachers used these meetings as 'smoke screens' where in the name of participation, school head teachers meet with teachers and make unilateral decisions which are passed to staff for implementation. This situation mirrors the major problems of how, who and when to involve teachers in school decision-making by basic head teachers in the study.

To address such issues of how, who and when to involve teachers in school decision-making Hoy and Tarter (2004) suggest that head teachers share decision-making with teachers. They claim that for head teachers to achieve maximum participation from teachers, teachers should be involved in making decisions clearly outside their zone of acceptance. Contrary, the study found that head teachers rather involved teachers in decisions which are located in

teacher's acceptance zone thereby making participation ineffective. In addition, the researcher argues that lack of trust, transparency and the fear of losing their status are some of the reasons for not involving teachers in decisions outside their zone of acceptance.

9.2.2 Head teachers' and Circuit Supervisors' Support for Teacher PSDM

In today's complex schools many different values and expectations for education are being expressed. In this context the Government of Ghana and the Ministry of Education are those who determine the key objectives and policies for education in Ghana, and empower schools within communities to work within the framework in providing an education that will see the Ghanaian child being useful to the society and Ghana as a whole. However, available literature on school improvement within the Ghanaian context indicate that lack of support in terms of logistics, funds and good leadership are some of the major hindrance in achieving quality education in Ghana (Oduro, 2009; Essuman and Akyempong, 2011; MOE Report, 2013). With the emergence of PDM, the roles and responsibilities of head teachers have evolved (Riesgraf, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000). However, Dampson (2011) argues that in the majority the Ghanaian basic schools some head teachers still maintain, sustain and practise their outmoded roles which have halted school improvement. In this context, it can be argued that such positive effective that complements PDM in some of the schools in the study area is yet to be realised. The study established that the majority of the head teachers are yet to come to terms with the change in their roles and responsibilities under PDM. This is because the study found that some head teachers in the study still make decisions alone and run schools with or without the involvement of their staff members.

Nevertheless, the study established that some of the head teachers in the study area support teachers by encouraging them to work on committees, one-to-one consultation, and on the classroom level. In addition, all the circuit

supervisors were however found to be quite distant away from the day-to-day management of the school. They however play their passive role through the head teachers and occasionally interact with teachers through meetings and on one-to-one.

Support through Committees

The findings of the study established that the majority of the teachers in the urban schools were found participating at the committee levels, while few participated at the same level in rural-urban schools. As previously discussed in Chapter 7 and 8, almost all the schools have committees such as discipline, academic, welfare and finance which have been set up to share views, contribute and make decision in such domains. However, in the majority of the schools, for example, schools in the rural-urban setting, the majority of the committees were in principle non-existent. Regardless of the non-existence of some of the committees in the rural-urban schools, the study found that in schools where committees existed, the head teacher supports these committees by consulting their views and sometimes mandate teachers to make decisions on his/her behalf. For example, in St 'K' JHS the head teacher attested to the fact that he cannot manage the school on his own, and therefore encourages teachers to be on committees. He noted that teacher participation is linked with decision-making and called for all head teachers to empower teachers by transferring decision-making authority to teachers who are implementers of educational policies. In this regard, it can be argued that one of the best ways to involve teachers in school decision-making is the establishment of committees, because the finding of this study revealed that schools where committees existed and were functionable resulted not only in higher levels of teacher participation in decision-making at the committee level, but also in greater teacher empowerment and satisfaction.

Regardless of the importance of school committees in decision-making, the researcher believes that in Ghana where traditions and tensions in school leadership exist, where the majority of the school leadership is appointed

based on experience and long service and where some head teachers are willing to flatter authorities, simply establishing committees will not enable effective teacher participation in school decision-making, especially if head teachers continue to make unilateral decision. Instead, regular in-service training in decision-making, establishment of structures, and a basic commitment of head teachers and teachers to the principle of shared decision-making and distributed leadership are essential to boost individual teacher's self esteem and confidence to participate in school decision-making. This to a large extent will equip head teachers with the required skills and knowledge needed to support teachers to function effectively on committees.

Support through One-To-One Consultation

Apart from supporting teachers through committee level, the finding of this study further revealed that head teachers and circuit supervisors do occasionally consult teachers on one-to-one based on specific issues. In some of the schools where head teachers consult teachers on one-to-one, some of the teachers expressed their satisfaction because they believed their expertise were tapped and used by the head teacher thereby encouraging them to participate in school decision-making. In St 'K' JHS for example, the head teacher indicated that he is much aware that in some situations he cannot consult all the teachers to arrive at a decision. He noted, "*Occasionally I consult teachers who I believe have immense knowledge, skill and experience in that area and I seek for their views before making a decision*". From this quotation it is clear that the head teacher occasionally consult some of his teachers whom he believes have the expertise to contribute meaningfully to school decision-making.

The importance of consultation on one-to-one is echoed by Wadesango and Shumba (2009) who claim that consultation on one-to-one allows the school head teacher to understand teachers as individuals and not as group. They argue that in such situations teachers are supported by the head teachers to participate in school decision-making. This implies that teacher's involvement

should be based on wealth of expertise that an individual teacher commands and not on favouritism. Contrary, notes gathered from the field attest to the fact that some head teachers rather prefer to consult teachers who are allies and not necessarily those who have wealth of expertise, knowledge and skills. The question is, do these head teachers intentionally involve their favourite teachers, or is it that they lack the skills and knowledge to know who to involve? This and other probing questions, the researcher believes further research can be conducted to find out head teachers knowledge and skills in shared decision-making.

To achieve support through one-to-one, for example, a teacher who is expert in school leadership may need to be fully consulted on administrative issues. Similarly, a teacher who holds a Master's degree in curriculum studies needs to be consulted in academic issues, and a teacher who holds a degree in guidance and counselling should be fully consulted in discipline issues. Perhaps, school head teachers do not posses such skills and knowledge to identify and tap teacher's expertise, or the fear of exposing their weakness and incompetence to teachers might be the cause to their actions.

The end result of one-to-one consultation may improve schools. The study found that at St 'K' JHS for example, where the head teacher supports teachers to work on committees as well as on one-to-one consultation, the staff minute's book records revealed that issues such as student indiscipline and academics were rarely recurrent. Contrary, at M/A 'T' basic school where committee were non-existence and where one-to-one consultation was perceived as being done on favouritism, the school's staff minutes book showed recurrences of the same issues being frequently discussed at staff and PTA meetings. However, Regardless of the importance of one-to-one consultation the majority of the teachers were of the view that some head teachers use it as an advantage to ignore other teachers even though they also posses such required skills. To achieve and utilise one-to-one consultation as a way to encourage and support teachers to participate in school decision-making, Wadesango (2011) and Matunhu (2002) suggest that in a situation where all teachers possess the required expertise, there is no need for head

teachers to consult one person but as a group or committee.

Support through Classroom Level

The study also established that teachers were given support to participate in school decision-making at the classroom level by both head teachers and circuit supervisors. In this study classroom level refers to the teaching and learning that takes place in the school. The findings of this study revealed that the majority of the teacher's highest level of participation in school decision-making lies mostly at the classroom level management. The responses obtained from the questionnaire survey indicated high levels of teacher's participation in grading and promoting of students, student assessment, and learning/teaching methods. Furthermore, almost all the teachers affirmed through the interviews that they have the freedom to choose and manage their classrooms as long as their decision falls within the confines of the educational policy and the rules of the school. This finding concurs with Wadesango (2011); Olorusola and Olayemi (2011) and Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri (2012) and Drah (2011) who also found the highest level of teacher participation in school decision-making at the classroom level. Perhaps, this suggests that some of the head teachers in the sub-Saharan African schools are yet to perceive teachers' expertise in other areas of school governance, such budgeting, planning and teacher recruitment as the tool for successful teacher participation in school decision-making.

It also emerged from this study that at the classroom level, the majority of the head teachers in the urban schools support teachers regularly than those in the rural-urban schools with teaching and learning materials such as text books, board marker, notes books and cardboards to facilitate teaching and learning. In addition, the study revealed that through the circuit supervisors, head teachers inform teachers about opportunities for further education and other educational opportunities such as study leave, workshops and in-service training.

Regardless of the differences in classroom support across the two sites, the study however, found that circuit supervisors from both sites do occasionally

organise workshops for teachers with regard to classroom management and teaching and learning methodologies. In addition, the study found that teachers from both sites of the study were supported by their head teachers to make decisions on issues concerning disciplinary and teaching methods based on the code of practice and ethics of the school. Despite this autonomy given to teachers to make decisions in their classrooms, the study however found that indiscipline such as absenteeism and student's misconducts were high in rural-urban schools than the urban schools. Perhaps, the reason for the high rate of indiscipline among schools in the rural-urban areas might be due to its location. In this regard further research can reveal such causes.

For effective and efficient use of consultation at the classroom level, the researcher suggests that head teachers and circuit supervisors should set aside time for professional development and collaborative work with teachers and parents through the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and the School Management Committee. They should make time for planning together, building teacher networks, and visiting teachers classrooms to observe and collect data on daily basis. The researcher further suggests that head teachers and circuit supervisors should regularly organise workshops and in-service training for teachers to be able to continuously develop within the profession. In this regard, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) remind us that in order for schools to be most effective, teachers need to continuously improve their teaching skills, be involved in school decision-making at all the levels and be involved in the professional development of others.

9.2.3 Challenges/Barriers to Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

In his article "*The missing ingredient: Head teachers Leadership Development in Sub Saharan Africa*" Oduro (2009) claims that basic schools in Ghana are faced with daunting challenges ranging from improving supervision skills of head teachers, enhancing female capacity for participation in school leadership, to improving teaching and learning in the classroom. He added that basic

school head teachers encounter a number of challenges including low motivation, managing school funds, and interference from educational authorities. With all these challenges facing basic school head teachers, perhaps, their inability to involve all teachers in school decision-making may be justified. Regardless of these daunting challenges facing basic school head teachers, the findings of the study established that the main barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making are insufficient funds which compel some head teachers to make unilateral decisions which result in unimplemented decisions. Figure 9.3 illustrates how the three main barriers to teacher's participation in school decision-making are related with each other in the study.

Figure 9.3 Challenges Barriers to Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making
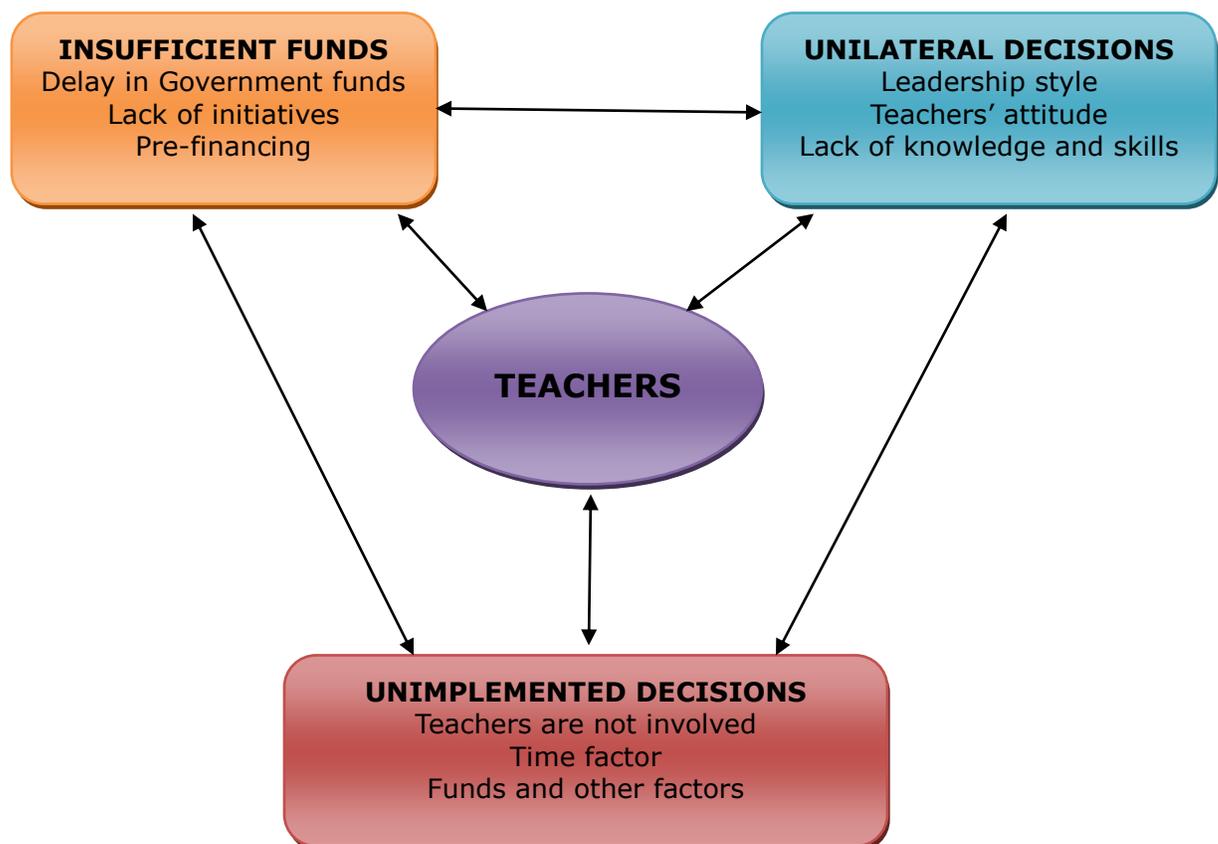
Data source: Semi-structured Interviews & field observation (2013/14)

Insufficient Funds

In Ghana, the main source of funding for basic schools is the school capitation grant from the government. Capitation grants are small monies given to a school per its population by the government to manage basic schools in Ghana. However, the current educational reform mandated local communities to own, participate and support schools financially. Despite this mandate given to communities, Dampson (2010 & 2011) argues that communities are yet to own, participate and support schools financially. Since the inception of the school capitation grant, head teachers have complained about its insufficiency and accessibility (Afful-Broni, Noi-Okie and Dampson, 2007). The majority of the head teachers complained that the delay of the grant sometimes compels them to pre-finance their schools' budget with their own pocket money. This situation, the study revealed had made the majority of the head teachers become dishonest and unwilling to involve teachers in issues that concerns money because they feel they run the school from their own pocket.

The findings of study further established that the head teachers lacked the skills and the know-how to raise funds to support the capitation grant for the implementation of school decisions and development projects. It is perceived by the researcher that due to the lack of skills and know-how of the head teachers, the majority of them solely rely only on the small levies collected from the PTA and women who sell on the school's compound, which according to the head teachers are not enough to support the implementation of all school decisions. In this regard, the researcher believes that perhaps full participation will be achieved when schools are able to generate financial resources to implement decisions as unimplemented decisions serves as a challenge to teacher participation. Similarly, Olorusola and Olayemi (2011) claim that full teacher participation was achieved in some schools in Nigeria due to the availability of structures, resources, funds and effective leadership. The study's finding is also concurrent with the findings Ncwane (2011) whose unpublished thesis established that teachers in some South African schools shun participation because of insufficient funds allocated to the school for

implementation of projects.

From the ongoing discussions, the researcher believes that almost all the head teachers in the study seem to lack the initiative to generate additional funds apart from the capitation grant and the PTA dues. Apart from the meagreness of the grant, the delay in accessing it is also a major challenge to basic schools head teachers. For example; as at the time of data collection the researcher inquired and found that none of the schools had received its first quarter of the grant from the government. The delay in the capitation grant had compelled some of the head teachers to either use their own money or go for loans to run their schools. This system of pre-financing the schools' budget by head teachers had enabled them to be unaccountable to teachers, hence head teachers choose who to involve and who not to involve in some aspect of school decision-making. This situation, the researcher believes deter teachers from taking part in all school decision-making, because to them their views will not be heard nor taken into consideration by the head teacher and that decision will not be implemented.

Unilateral Decision-Making

Unilateral decision-making by some of the basic school head teachers in Ghana might appear at a first glance to save time and eliminate complicating factors taking into consideration the traditional top-down bureaucratic educational system in Ghana, that place authority at the apex (Bush and Oduro, 2006). However, studies have shown that its long term effect is beyond repairable (Botha, 2006). The review of related literature established that in most African countries the majority of the head teachers still make unilateral decisions (Wadesango, 2011; Dampson 2010; Bush and Oduro, 2006; Botha, 2006; Bloomer, 1990). This study's findings that basic school head teachers makes unilateral decisions concurs with studies such as Mokoena (2011), Abahunnman (2010) and Kwegyir-Aggrey and Yalkpieri (2012) who claim that some head teachers in Zimbabwe, Nigeria and Ghana respectively makes the majority of the schools' decisions without the consent and consultation of the teachers.

As previously discussed in chapter 7 and 8, the findings of the study revealed that the majority of the heads belief that teachers do not possess adequate expertise and knowledge to be involved in some aspect of school decisions such as finance, teacher recruitment, and other administrative work, hence warranting them to make decisions on their own. Due to head teachers' belief, the findings of the study established that teachers were mostly involved in issues such as lesson note preparation, teaching and learning and student assessment in the majority of the basic schools. Perhaps, head teachers failure to identify and tap teachers' expertise might be the reasons why teachers also believe that some head teachers lack the requisite skills and knowledge to manage schools.

In addition, poor leadership styles of head teachers and lukewarm attitudes of teachers were also found to be some of the reasons why head teachers make unilateral decisions. The study's observation provided evidence that the majority of the head teachers adopted a style of decision-making that favours them to make unilateral decisions. Their decision-making styles ranges from programmed to autocratic decision-making. Furthermore, the majority of the head teachers believe that they are not accountable to teachers but rather to the higher authorities who appointed them. Therefore, in order for them to please and satisfy the authority, head teachers tend to make unilateral decisions, which favour higher authorities rather than teachers. In what seems to be a blame game, head teachers on the other hand attributed teacher's inability to participate in decision-making to teachers' attitudes such as lateness to meetings, having meetings within meetings, absenteeism and lukewarm attitude towards extracurricular activities. To find solutions to this blame game, the researcher suggest further studies to explore the nexus between the attitudes of teachers towards decision-making.

Unimplemented Decisions

Apart from insufficient funds and unilateral decisions, the finding of the study established that unimplemented decision is also one of the reasons why some

teachers shun participation in school decision-making. Although time factor was considered by few teachers from both sites of the study as a barrier, however, the majority of the respondents believe that if decisions are implemented, time wouldn't be a barrier to participative decision-making because if time is spent to make decisions that are implemented, then it will not be considered a waste. The study further found from the school staff and PTA minutes book that the majority of the decisions taken at meetings were not implemented due to insufficient funds and imposed decisions by head teachers.

This finding from the study concurs with Wadesango (2011) and Juru (2002) who found that insufficient funds and imposed decisions are not fully implemented by teachers because of the misinterpretation of requirements and rejection of ideas by teachers. In this regard, the researcher suggests that head teachers should not impose decisions on teachers as during its implementation stage teachers may reject the ideas for the simple reason that they were never part of its development. The implication is that head teachers who do not recognise teacher's expertise in decision-making will have no choice than to impose decisions on them. Although the imposition of decision, unilateral decision and lack of teacher participation are pivotal to implementing decisions, however, head teachers and circuit supervisors believe that insufficient funds is the root cause to unimplemented decisions. Perhaps this finding confirms the MOE sector performance report released in 2013, which attributed insufficient funds to the failure of implementation of educational projects in Ghana.

Regardless of insufficient funds, all the head teachers, however, believe that if all decisions taken are implemented, teachers will participate fully in school decision-making. Similarly, the majority of the teachers in the study also believe that the end product of decision-making lies in its implementation. Hence, the common phrase that was frequently made by some teachers during the interview was "*the improvement of a school lies within the implementation of decisions"* simply because the researcher believes that if basic schools in the study are well resourced and managed by well qualified

and trained head teachers who intend are monitored by qualified and well equipped circuit supervisors, unilateral decisions will be minimised, decisions will be implemented, while teacher participation will increase and schools may improve.

9.2.4 Views and Expectations held by Teachers, Head Teachers and Circuit Supervisors about PDM

Harris (2012) reminds us that schools will always improve where stakeholders' views and expectations fall within the goals and mission of the school. She added that stakeholders' views are their opinion and way of thinking about everything that happens within and outside the school. The study found that teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors share the view that teachers should be empowered and head teachers should create a sense of ownership among teachers. Furthermore, they expect head teachers to be transparent, trustworthy, motivate and be trained.

Views on Participation in Decision-Making (PDM)

Available literature on participative decision-making connotes many meanings from researchers. To some PDM the sharing of decision by authority among stakeholders in a given context (Duke, 2005; Armstrong, 2006). In a narrow rigid sense Ho (2010) argues that PDM can be viewed as individual participation in the process of management. The literature however seems to indicate that the term PDM lacks a clear unanimous definition. Nonetheless, the literature makes it clear that the common ingredient of PDM is the direct and indirect involvement of all stakeholders in the decision-making process (Somech, 2010). The finding of this study established that all the participants believe that when teachers are empowered to participate in school decisions, it will create a sense of ownership in them which will encourage good school governance, since they believe that their participation will lead to teacher empowerment, positive relationship among staff and school improvement.

Teacher Empowerment

According to Blasé and Blasé (2001) to empower teachers is to involve them in school governance, grant new respect to teachers and improve their working conditions. This definition is supported by Bolin (1989) when he noted that empowering teachers requires school leaders to invest in teachers the right to participate in the determination of school goals and policies and the right to exercise professional judgement about the content of curriculum and means of instruction. The finding of the study revealed that teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors view participation in school decision-making as a way of giving teachers the opportunity and confidence in school decision-making. Teachers in the study area believe that when they are empowered, it will promote teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly, the findings of the study revealed that the majority of the teachers believe that their participation in school decision-making will improve the quality of educational decision by giving administrators access to critical information close to the problem of schooling, namely the classroom (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) as already mentioned. Indirectly, teachers and head teachers both share the view that teachers' participation will help ensure that unanticipated problems that arise during work can be tackled immediately by those affected by them.

For example, the study's observations made at St 'K' JHS revealed that teachers who worked in teams felt that they were treated as knowledgeable professionals. This situation to a large extent, the researcher observed had empowered the majority of the teachers in the school to make decisions concerning discipline, academic and student enrolment. This implies that true empowerment extends well beyond participation in decision-making; it also involves the elevation of teachers as knowledgeable professionals. The study further revealed that almost all the teachers in the study area acknowledged the importance of participating in school decision-making; however, they requested that head teachers trust and respect them, support staff development and support teachers' decisions for the development of collaborative relationship among teachers. In effect, to achieve 'true'

empowerment, head teachers need to include teachers in decision participation, give them authority over issues concerning professional life both at the classroom and at the school level.

Regardless of the call for 'true' empowerment, the findings of the study revealed that the majority of the participants admitted that factors such as attitude of teachers towards school decision-making, insufficient funds, unimplemented decisions, unilateral decisions, lack of trust and fear of losing power also serves as detractors to teacher empowerment. Weiss (1993) speculated that these detractors occur because teachers do not want to be involved in administrative decisions that they see as an additional work load from their classroom work because they see empowerment as a sham. Contrary, the findings of this study disagree with Weiss findings because the study revealed that majority of the teachers do not regard participation in school decision-making as an additional work load but rather as their professional right and responsibility.

Sense of Ownership among Teachers

The findings of this study also established that one of the important benefits of participation in school decision-making is that it promotes a sense of ownership among all stakeholders. From the findings of the study the researcher believes that PDM motivates and serves as a unifying force for all stakeholders. The findings from the interviews substantiate the fact that teachers feel proud when their decisions are taken into consideration and implemented. Head teachers on the other hand attested to the fact that whenever consensus decisions are taken its implementation becomes successful and this makes teachers feel they own the decision.

All the head teachers and circuit supervisors agreed that creating a sense of ownership among teachers will enable the school to have access to information concerning students' diverse characteristics, needs, learning styles, and positioned to make decisions about educational programs farther removed from the teaching and learning process. Thus, Smylie, Lazarus and Brownlee-

Conyers (1996) added that decisions concerning curricula, instructional technologies, and other school initiatives will be most effective and enduring when carried out by those who feel a sense of ownership and responsibility for those decisions. Available literature on shared decision-making attest to the fact that creating a sense of ownership among teachers can improve the quality and acceptance of decisions, bolster worker motivation and self-esteem, increase a sense of ownership and improve interpersonal relations with employees (Blasé and Blasé, 2001; Smylie *et. el*, 1996). Regardless of these benefits, the study established that head teachers found it difficult to delegate teachers to participate in decision-making. In many instances head teacher's delegates close friends or favourite teacher who lacks the expertise in that particular area of delegation. Nonetheless, some head teachers admitted that one of the major problem facing them in decision-making is who to involve and at what time. In this instance the researcher believes that regular training in school decision-making will help ease the burden off the shoulders of head teachers.

To create a true sense of ownership in Ghanaian basic schools, the researcher argues that head teachers must be willing to let traditional authority roles, not only allowing teachers to have a greater voice but helping to prepare them, providing support and establishing an environment of trust. In this sense the researcher believes that the shift in policy to decentralised Ghanaian education in 1987 which opened the door to increase teacher participation and school development will be achieved. Similarly, Essuman and Akyempong (2011) claim that the lack of school leadership, accountability and the pedagogical alternatives available to schools and communities has resulted in defence to traditional educational administrative structures and teaching and learning practices in Ghana. Perhaps, what is needed in the Ghanaian educational system is to give basic schools full responsibility and authority to make decisions about staffing, enrolment and allocation of resources and, within these schools, teachers' need to be empowered in a variety of ways to make a positive contribution to planning and decision-making process.

Expectations in Participation in School Decision-Making

In addition to the views discussed, the findings of the study established that teachers expect head teachers to motivate them, be transparent and trustworthy, while head teachers and circuit supervisors overwhelmingly agreed that they also expect to be regularly trained on school leadership and administration, especially in school decision-making which is the heart of every organisation.

Trust and Transparency

"*To be able to achieve full teacher participation in school decision-making in this school we must feel that we are working in an environment of trust and transparency*" noted teacher 7 from Mfantseman. Covey (1989) explains in his best-selling book, '*The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People'*, that trust is the amount of "safeness" we feel with others. In this regard if teachers feel safe with head teachers and fellow teachers, and are able to sit with each other and comfortably discuss difficult or delicate issues about work and performance, teachers will be able to achieve full participation which will in turn result in school improvement. Interestingly, all the participants interviewed, especially teachers envisaged that in an atmosphere of trust and transparency all stakeholders can work together to identify and solve problems for schools to improve. In this kind of environment all the participants believe that participative decision-making will thrive, yet the finding from this study established that for most teachers such an atmosphere is still ideal instead of a reality because of the bureaucratic structures that exist in the basic schools which has already been discussed in chapter 2.

From the available literature and the findings of the study, the researcher argues that without trust, teachers are likely to close up, keep to themselves, and even close ranks in cliques or special interest groups. Without trust, issues are seldom discussed and never resolved and schools will cease to improve and grow into the rich, nurturing micro-society needed by children and adults alike.

The finding from this study revealed that some of the head teachers in the study area are not transparent and do not trust teachers with financial issues, neither do they involve teachers in issues relating to finance, admissions, teacher recruitment and goals of the school (school level) as discussed in the questionnaire survey and the interview. This situation, the researcher argues can result into conflict among teachers and head teachers in the study area, which will further make some teachers shun participation in all the school activities. The study's finding that head teachers do not trust and are not transparent in financial issues is consistent with the findings of Bogaert *et al.,* (2012), Abahunmna (2010) and Wadesango (2011). Their findings revealed that the majority of the head teachers in Ghana, Nigeria and Zimbabwe do not trust and were not transparent to teachers in financial issues because they believe that their positions will be undermined and their incompetence will be exposed by teachers.

In this regard Blasé and Blasé (2001) remind us that the reward of trusting environment is immeasurable, yet the price of lack of trust and transparency is dear. Perhaps, what is needed by basic school head teachers in the study is to build trust and be transparent in all school related issues, especially, finance. From the on-going discussion the researcher therefore argues that for head teachers to build trust among teachers, it takes effort and sincerity. This is because the findings of study suggest that trust among teachers and head teachers may come easily, merely from being given the opportunity to work closely with other teachers on real problems. Additionally, trust comes more slowly due to personal experience that teachers gain from participating at the school level of decision-making or other matters beyond their immediate control. The researcher therefore suggests that for successful teacher participation in school decision-making, the challenge for basic school head teachers is to build a trusting environment by encouraging openness, facilitating effective communication and modelling understanding. This can be achieved by regularly training head teachers and teachers in school decision-making because the researcher believes that teachers can be used as a tool for ensuring accountability in basic schools due to their levels of education and

that allows them to be better positioned to contribute to school improvement.

Teacher Motivation

The findings from the study's questionnaire survey, interview, observation and document analysis revealed that all the stakeholders, especially teachers who are the implementers of educational polices expect to be motivated by their head teachers. This finding supports the Ministry of Education, Ghana, 1999 report on Basic Education Sub-Sector Improvement which out of the 10 listed reasons for low achievements among pupils in basic school, unattractive incentives and poor appreciation of teacher's roles serves as a source of unmotivated teachers. This implies that to motivate teachers to participate in school decision-making, head teachers should clearly define and appreciate teacher's role and encourage them to participate in school decision-making which will serve at a starter for motivation. In addition, head teachers need to give teachers hope, confidence, advice, persuasion and appeal to them in the decision-making process. In this way the researcher argues that teachers will be intrinsically motivated to fully take part at all levels of school decision-making. Blasé and Blasé (2001) however, share a similar view when they argue that for teachers to participate fully in all school decision-making; there should be true empowerment which extends well beyond participation in decision-making; rather which involves the elevation of teachers as knowledge professionals.

Reviewing the related literature in decision-making it came to light that personality is the primary predictive element of motivation (Schmitt *et. al,* 2003) as well as predictor for organisational and employees' outcomes (Moss and Ngu, 2006). Tett and Burnett (2003) remind us that teachers seek out and are satisfied with task, people, and job characteristics that afford them the opportunity to express an array of personality traits. This implies that head teachers and higher authorities need to create an ideal working environment that affords the teacher cues for traits expression. The study's finding that the majority of the teachers wanted to be motivated by head teachers is also consistent with the findings of Mokoena (2011). Mokoena claims that for teachers to achieve full participation, and for schools to improve, head teachers

should consider the need for encouraging, motivating and developing teachers skills to be able to take their enhance roles in decision-making. Similarly, Dampson and Mensah (2010) also found among teachers in Takoradi, Ghana, that schools where teachers were motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically were those schools with higher teacher's job satisfaction and school improvement.

Some of the views gathered from teachers by the researcher through interviews revealed that intrinsically almost all the teachers in the study area wanted their views and contributions to be respected and taken into consideration. Furthermore, teachers wanted trustworthiness and transparency from the head teacher, while being part of the implementation of the decision. Extrinsically, teachers wanted to be rewarded for taking part in decision-making because to some it's an extracurricular activity. They wanted refreshments after meetings and after successful implementation of the decision, a monetary reward, certificate of participation or recognition be awarded to them. In this regard, the researcher suggests that these views shared by teachers should be taken into consideration by the head teachers; however, care needs to be taken by the head teachers who are perceived as lacking skills and knowledge in school leadership and management in the dispensation of such kinds of motivation to teachers to avoid conflict.

Training and Workshops

Interestingly, the Ministry of Education (MOE) Sector Performance Report released on the 23rd August 2013, among other factors for school productivity recommended regular in-service training for teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. This recommendation by the Ministry of Education, Ghana, concurs with this study's finding that workshops and regular in-service training should be frequently orgainsed for teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors to keep them abreast with the tenets of school leadership, specifically, school decision-making. Interestingly, almost all the head teachers admitted that they lack the knowledge and skills to lead schools because they

were not purposefully trained to manage school. They also agreed that the way and manner they were appointed to manage schools without sufficient formal training in school leadership and administration might be the reason why some of them manage schools poorly. The study revealed that the majority of the basic school head teachers manage schools with trial-and-error and sometimes from their own personal experiences which serves as a hindrance to effective teacher participation in school decision-making.

Interestingly, the findings of the study through the interviews and the questionnaire survey revealed that almost all the head teachers agreed that they lacked the knowledge and skills to monitor teachers, ICT skills, how to organise in-service training, teacher discipline and mentoring and coaching of teachers. However, the difference between the two sites existed within the percentage of responses. An average of 76% of head teachers in urban schools (Site 1) agreed, while 64% from urban-rural schools (Site 2) agreed on the same issues. These differences according to Oduro and MacBeath (2003) might be attributed to the availability of resources and the desire or enthusiasm among head teachers that exist between urban and rural schools. The researcher therefore argues that perhaps the high educational demand in urban basic schools such as high enrolment, academic achievement and logistics might also be the reason why head teachers in the urban schools needed such skills more than those in rural-urban schools.

From the related literature in school leadership in Ghana, one of the basic functions of Ghana Education Service (GES) is to organise regular in-service/workshops for teachers and school head teachers to upgrade their skills and knowledge in school leadership (Jull *et. al*, 2014; MOE, 2013). However, the study revealed that the majority of these workshops were organised and financed by NGO's and the World Bank who have their own personal interest at stake. Hence, the researcher argues that perhaps the in-service training and workshops does not address the real Ghanaian issues facing school head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors. In this situation, regardless of the numerous workshops and in-services training orgainsed, the researcher suggests that the real issues facing schools are not well addressed.

Although current research findings from Jull *et al.,* (2014) claim that the Leadership for Learning Programme (LfL) had had positive impact on how basic school head teachers lead their schools, they however, recommended regular in-service training and workshops for head teachers and circuit supervisors to keep them abreast with current trends in school leadership. This implies that perhaps, the majority of the head teachers and circuit supervisors in Ghana are still not qualified to lead schools and without regular in-service training and workshops, schools may not improve. Furthermore, the researcher argues that without the appropriate regular in-service training for head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors, teachers who are overworked and perceived as unqualified by head teachers will find it difficult to participate in school decision-making.

9.2.5 Teacher Participation in Decision-Making and School Improvement

According to Hopkins (2001) collegial relations and collaborative practices are at the core of building the capacity for school improvement. This implies that teachers work most effectively when they are supported by head teachers and other teachers. Harris (2012), however, reminds us that building the capacity for school improvement necessitates paying careful attention to how collaborative processes in schools are fostered and developed. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) added that where teachers feel confident in their own capacity, in their own capacity of their colleagues and in the capacity of the school to promote professional development, school improvement is more likely to occur because the significance of PDM lies with its outcomes. Somech (2010) on the other hand established that the general organisation of literature in most studies have lauded PDM as the best approach in contemporary organisational management.

Undoubtedly, the findings of the study confirmed that when teachers and pupils are allowed to participate fully in school decisions, schools will improvement

directly and indirectly in the following ways; school productivity, school innovation and organisational behaviour as illustrated in figure 9.1. However, because the main focus of the study was on the current trends of teacher participation, much evidence was not collect to fully substantiate the impact of PDM on school improvement. In this regard the researcher argues that it is justifiable to conduct further research to substantiate the impact PDM has on school improvement. Regardless, of this limitation, the study found traces of the following impact of PDM on school improvement.

School Productivity

From the findings of this study a productive school is the one that produces higher achievements in its pupils through the teachers and the head teacher, and as much as academic achievement is the main yardstick for school improvement in Ghana, teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors believe teachers and pupil's participation in school decisions will improve schools. At school productivity, the study established that when teachers participate in school decision-making it promoted teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly the study found that in some of the urban schools where the majority of the teachers participated in decision-making at the committee level, it had improved the quality of the educational decision-making by given head teachers, circuit supervisors and educational authorities access to critical school related information close to the source of problems of schooling, such as discipline and teaching and learning issues.

The findings of the study further revealed that the majority of the teachers who participated in school decision-making at both the classroom and the committee level agreed that their participation had helped to tackle unanticipated problems that rose in the cause of the academic year which was dealt with on time by those affected by the problem. This implies that if teachers participate fully in all aspect of school decision-making, their willingness to lead their class and to take leadership positions on school committee will increase, hence leading to school productivity. However, the researcher argues that for basic schools to achieve productivity, the head

teacher should intentionally encourage and motivate teachers to create new ideas, products, process, or procedures designed to benefit basic schools.

School Innovation

The educational literature on school innovation share the view that schools face competitive and dynamic environment, which necessitated flexibility and fast adaptation to new situation and changing context (De Dreu, 2006; Kokan, Madhavan and Presccot, 2006; Somech, 2010). In this regard school innovation has become a vital assert to ensuring school sustainability and improvement. According to Somech (2010) school innovation is the intentional introduction and application in school for new ideas, products, process, or procedures designed to benefit schools.

The findings of the study revealed that teacher participation in school decision-making encourages teachers to discover new opportunities and challenges. The majority of the teachers in the study confirmed that when they participate in school decision-making they learn, share, and combine knowledge to solve problems which hitherto were not solvable. This justifies that teacher participation in school decision-making is critical for school's ability to turn new ideas and individually held knowledge into innovative procedures, service and products. From the researcher's field notes gathered during observation at St 'K' JHS, it is believed that when teachers shared new ideas among themselves, they see each other being on the same playing level which tends to reduce conflict among teachers and increase the pool of ideas, materials and methods. This finding is consistent with Esia-Donkoh (2014) who found that the dynamic of role conflict in some Ghanaian basic schools are best solved when teachers see each other on the same playing field where ideas are shared. In this regard strong emphasis on participative management approach should be encouraged in schools for teachers to engage more in innovative practices at the school, committee and the classroom level.

Organisational Teacher Behaviour

Organisational behaviour is a term related to the study of individual and group dynamics in an organisational setting, as well as the nature of the organisations themselves. Organisation teacher behaviour refers to the individual performance, actions, school setting and climate that exist in a school. Whenever teachers interact within the school organisation, many factors come to play. The researcher argues that in order to develop competencies to foresee how teacher behave, the head teacher as the leader of the school needs to acquire the skill and knowledge that will enable him/her to control those behaviours that are not beneficial to school improvement. In this regard the findings of the study established that the majority of the teachers from both sides of the study are becoming more willing to contribute to school improvement, regardless of their formal job requirements and work load. Interestingly, this finding disagrees with Ncwane (2011) who claims that teachers tend to shun away from school managerial issues because of their work load. The findings therefore imply that the time is due for head teachers to genuinely encourage teachers to participate in school decision-making regardless of their perceived lukewarm attitudes towards staff meetings and other extracurricular activities.

The study further established that when teachers participate, especially in managerial issues, which deals with operations and administration of the school (goal setting, recruiting of teachers, budgeting, and evaluating of teachers) it widens their focus from their immediate outcomes in their own classrooms to the school as a whole, and this affect positively their behaviour and attitude towards participation in school decision-making. This situation was evident at St 'K' JHS where teachers were empowered by the head teacher to make decisions in the classrooms and at the committee level. Through their participation and exercise of their influence, the researcher observed that the majority of the teachers exhibited a sense of willingness and readiness to invest extra effort by volunteering for roles and task that were not obligatory which hitherto they wouldn't have done.

Furthermore, the findings of the study established that teacher PDM enabled

smooth and effective implementation of decisions because the decision taken binds and affect their attitude towards it implementation. This is because imposed decisions face various problems during its implementation as some teachers may reject the ideas for the simple reason that they were not part of its development. The researcher therefore argues that basic school teachers will perform their roles and duties when they perceive they have been fairly involved in the decision-making process. In this regard the researcher recommend head teachers to create a sense of trust and fairness among teachers because it will enhance their willingness to engage more meaningfully in school decision-making which will in turn improve teacher's attitude to PDM. It is believed that when PDM affects teachers, behaviour positively, it contributes to the quality of the teachers' work life (Somech, 2010). The implication is that when teachers' behaviours are affected positively by PDM it might result in further carrier advancement opportunities and incentives for teachers who are only seen as classroom workers to enter other career opportunities.

9.3 Summary of Chapter 9

In this chapter the findings of the study have thoroughly been discussed in light with the literature and theories of decision-making in relation the school as an organisation. Themes that emerged from the presentation of analysis in chapter 6, 7, and 8 and the literature review that support teacher participation in school decision-making were used to support the findings of this study. It is interesting, however, to find that Bloomer's (1991) assertion made over two decades ago that "in developing countries like Ghana, little is done about teacher participation in school decision-making which is crucial for school improvement" still exist. The findings established that the majority of the teachers in the study are still not participating fully in decision-making at both the committee and the school level although there were higher classroom levels. However, the study revealed that factors such as unilateral decision, unimplemented decisions, and insufficient funds hinder teachers PDM.

CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to find out the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making (PDM) in basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality of the Central Region of Ghana in relation to four dimensions of school governance: staff development, curriculum and instruction, management and goals of the school. The study attempted to show a clearer picture with regard to the current levels of teacher participation in decision-making in basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality of the Central Region of Ghana. Examining available literature on teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghana, it was uncertain as to how teachers participate in school decisions, what factors serves as barriers to teacher participation, what views and expectations were held by teachers, head teachers, circuit supervisors and the relationship between PDM and school improvement in Ghana.

Chapter 10 of the study provides an overview of the study, summarising the findings to draw conclusions and to suggest a way forward. This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section demonstrates how the study's research questions and objectives set out in chapter 1 have been answered. The findings are summarised in order of the research questions stated in Chapter 1. The second section draws the conclusion of the study. The third section outlines the study's recommendations for professional practice; the fourth section highlights the new areas open for further studies, the fifth and sixth sections outlines the significance and limitations of the study.

The four main objectives stated in Chapter 1 and 9 served as the guidelines through which data was collected and analysed. To achieve the objectives set out in this study, the mixed/multiple method approach (questionnaire survey,

semi-structured interview, participant observation/micro-ethnography and document analysis) was adopted and designed around the 3 main and 2 sub-research questions stated in Chapter 1 and 9 respectively.

In chapters 2 and 3, the related literature and theoretical framework identified the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghana and other countries, especially in the sub-Saharan Africa and factors serving as barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making were highlighted. The Chapters 2 and 3 also discussed factors that influenced teacher participation in school decision-making and other stakeholders in school decision-making. The knowledge acquired from the theoretical framework and related literature guided and influenced the process of data collection as demonstrated in chapter 4 and 5 respectively, which also guided the development of categories, themes and sub-themes from the data collected. The conclusions drawn answers' the 3 main and 2 sub-research questions of the study.

10.1 Summary of Findings

10.1.1 Current Trends of Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

The first research question examined the current trends of teacher participation in school decision-making in Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality. Using Somech's (2010) levels of participation as a guiding framework, the study found that currently teachers are participating at three levels of school decision-making namely: school level, committee/group level and individual/classroom level. To begin with, the available literature reminds us that the highest level of teacher participation in school decision-making is at the school level, followed by the committee level and lastly the individual/classroom level (Somech, 2010). At the school level the study found that only a handful of teachers participated in school budget and expenditure; goals and vision of the school; hiring and teacher recruitment and student admission. Among the few teachers who participated at this level, the findings of the study revealed that the majority were from the urban schools.

Furthermore, the findings of the study shows that the majority of the few teachers who participated at the school level were either allies of the head teacher, or were teachers who were older in terms of age and have been in a particular school for a long period of time. However, some of the head teachers claim that the majority of the teachers do not possess the required knowledge, skills and expertise to be involved at school level of school decision-making. It also came to light that head teachers themselves are faced with the problem of who to involve, when and how to involve teachers in school decision-making. To achieve maximum participation the study suggest that head teachers should involve teachers in school decision-making outside the zone of acceptance; such as budgeting, expenditure, teacher recruitment and goals of the school.

At the committee/group level, the findings of the study established that all the schools had various committees. However, the common ones amongst the committees were discipline, academic, and welfare committees. It is important to note that while committees seem very active in almost all the urban schools, in almost all the rural-urban schools they seem non-existent. At the committee level the findings of the study further established that teacher involvement in decision-making in urban schools was much higher than rural-urban schools. Regardless of high levels of participation at the committee levels, some teachers claim that the committee's views, suggestions and recommendations were rarely accepted for implementation by head teachers. The researcher argues that perhaps the independence of the committees is being hampered by the way teachers are appointed to join committees by the head teacher. To make school committees more effective and functionable, the researcher suggests a more democratic way of appointing teachers (voting or voluntary) to committees. In addition, the researcher argues that the establishment of certain independent structures such as an advisory council or board of Governors aside the School Management Committees will create opportunities for the survival and effective functioning of school committees.

At the individual level which is often referred to as the classroom level, the findings of the study established that almost all the teachers from both urban and rural-urban schools were fully participating in issues relating to teaching

and learning, choice of teaching materials, and student assessment. However, the study found that in most of the urban schools teachers were consulted on one-to-one basis where individual teacher's views, contributions and suggestions were discussed by the head teacher who regularly interacts with them. Contrary, in most of the rural-urban schools, the study found that the majority of the head teachers tend to confined and consult teachers who are his/her close allies or older-experienced teachers. The researcher believes that when teachers are consulted on one-to-one at the classroom it allows the head teacher to understand teachers as individuals and not as groups and through that channel classroom related issues will be well addressed.

10.1.2 Views and Expectations on Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

The second research question explored the views and expectations held by teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. The study found that teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors share similar view that when teachers' participate in school decision-making, their participation will eventually lead to teacher empowerment, sense of ownership and school improvement.

The findings of the study suggest that when teachers are fully involved in all school decision-making it gives them the opportunity and confidence in school decision-making process by empowering and promoting teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly, teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors believe that teacher's participation in school decision-making improves the quality of the educational decision by giving head teachers' access to critical information close to school related problems; such as discipline and teaching and learning. Indirectly, teacher participation helps to ensure that unanticipated problems that arise during work are tackled immediately by those affected by it.

Another important view shared by teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors was the sense of ownership. The researcher argues that involving teachers in school decision-making promotes a sense of ownership among all

stakeholders because available literature affirms that it motivates and serves as a unifying force for all stakeholders. All the participants in the study shared a common view that when teachers participate fully in school decision-making it creates and improves the quality and acceptance of decisions, bolsters worker motivation and self-esteem, increases sense of ownership and eventually improves interpersonal relations with teachers. The researcher therefore argues that full sense of ownership among basic schools teachers in Ghana will be achieved when schools are given the full responsibility and authority by the Ghana Education Service to make decisions about staffing, enrolment, and allocation of resources, while putting in place an effective and efficient system of monitoring them.

"*To some extent 'yes' but I think what needs to be done is to find a way of solving problems together for the school to improve, because I believe that the end product of participation in DM is school improvement*" Male teacher (5) from Cape Coast.

This and other statements made by teachers, head teachers, and circuit supervisors which were supported by the observations revealed that the majority of the participants believe that the end product of teacher participation in school decision-making may lead to school improvement. The study established that among the schools within the study, schools such as St 'K' JHS where teacher participation in school decision-making was high, the school recorded improvement in academic, discipline and enrolment. However, teachers and circuit supervisors believe that without quality and intensive training for head teachers in school decision-making, it will be very difficult for head teachers to embrace the tenets and demands of PDM for teachers to achieve full participation in school decision-making.

In addition, the researcher argues that teachers should be motivated and head teachers should also be transparent and trust teachers in the decision-making process. In this regard, the researcher recommends regular training in school leadership and management for all the participants, especially, head teachers. In motivating teachers the researcher suggest intrinsic motivation such

considering views and contributions from teachers and implement them. Extrinsically, the researcher suggests that teachers should be rewarded for taking part in the decision-making process because the majority of them see their participation as an extracurricular activity outside their normal teaching and learning. Basic school teachers wanted head teachers to refresh them during or after meetings and after successful implementation of a decision, a monetary reward, and a certificate of participation or recognition awarded to them.

"*To be able to achieve full teacher participation in school decision-making in this school we must feel that we are working in an environment of trust and transparency*" noted by teacher 7 from Mfantseman.

The findings of the study established that there was a lack trust and transparency in the day-to-day administration of basic schools in the study. The majority of the head teachers were not transparent with regard to financial issues; neither do they involve teachers in the goals setting of the school. This situation has brought about tension amongst teachers and head teachers which may result in conflict among teachers and head teachers. In addition, such situations emanate from head teachers claim that teachers' lack administrative skills and knowledge enough to be involved at this level of school decision-making. However, the researcher believes that without trust, teachers are likely to close up, keep to themselves, and even close ranks in cliques. The long term effect will be unresolved decisions, conflicts and schools will eventually cease to improve. The researcher therefore argues that perhaps, regular training of head teachers and committee leaders in school decision-making will minimise and expose both teachers and head teachers to the tenet of shared decision-making.

Lastly, the findings of the study revealed that the majority of the head teachers managed schools by trial-and-error and sometimes from their own personal experiences, without any well-structured in-service training in school leadership, specifically, in decision-making; this situation the researcher argues had made some of the head teachers to make unilateral decisions and

sometimes manage schools at their own discretion. Almost all the head teachers admitted that they lack the knowledge and skills to manage schools effectively and therefore requested for a regular in-service training or workshops be to organised to upgrade their skills and knowledge in school decision-making. The study however, acknowledges the impact made by the Leadership for Learning Programme (LfL), Education Quality (EdQual), the World Bank and other NGO's in training teachers in school leadership and management. Nonetheless, the researcher suggests that such training and workshops should be regularly organised and must be tailored to fit the individual head teachers' and the needs of their school rather than the "one size-fits-all' which seem to have failed our school leaders and halted school improvement.

10.1.3 Challenges/Barriers to Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

The findings of the study established that unilateral decision-making, unimplemented decisions and insufficient funds are the main barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making in the Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality.

The findings of the study revealed that head teachers in the study make unilateral decisions. This is because perhaps the majority lack the skills, knowledge and expertise to lead schools and therefore through their short-sighted lenses see their teachers as having similar symptoms. The findings further show that issues relating to finance, teacher recruitment, student enrolment, goals of the school and other administrative work, the majority of the head teachers make decisions without the consulting the teachers. However, regardless of the unilateral decisions made by head teachers, the study established that the majority of the teachers were however, involved in issues such as lesson notes preparation, teaching and learning, discipline and students assessment. In addition, the study further established that the leadership style of head teachers and lukewarm attitude of teachers such as lateness to meeting/school and absenteeism were some of the reasons why

head teachers make unilateral decisions. The researcher believes that the selection and appointment of head teachers to lead schools plays an important role in making the head teacher unaccountable to teachers but rather to higher authorities. This procedure the researcher argues has given head teachers the power to choose who to involve and who not to involve in school decision-making thereby resulting in making unilateral decisions. The researcher therefore suggests that head teachers should be encouraged by higher authorities to share leadership roles with teachers because it is only when leadership is shared at the right time with the right people that school decisions will be fully implemented. Furthermore, amending the procedure used to appoint basic school head teachers will go a long way to bring democracy to the door steps of basic schools in Ghana.

Similarly, the researcher argues that unimplemented decision is also a barrier to teacher participation in school decision-making. This is because teachers will feel reluctant to participate when working hours have been used to decide on issues which were never implemented. The staff and PTA minutes books analysed affirmed that the majority of the decisions taken were either partly or never implemented. Interestingly, head teachers attested to the fact that decisions were not implemented because the schools lack funds to carry out all the decisions made. The head teachers claim they are forced to work within their limited budget. The researcher however believes that if all decisions taken are implemented, perhaps, teachers will be motivated to participate in all school decisions, because to teachers, the end product of participation in school decision-making lies within its implementation. Hence the researcher suggests that head teachers should find new ways to generate additional funds from the community to support the schools capitation grant to enable them implement decisions taken.

Lastly, the researcher argues that decisions are not implemented because basic schools in Ghana lack the funds and the resources to implement all the schools decisions. The findings from the study established that almost all the schools lacked funds to maintain, sustain and improve schools. In this situation, the researcher argues that the over reliance on the capitation grant by schools has

to some extent halted many basic schools developmental projects. In this regard, the study revealed that the only source of funding for basic schools in Ghana is the government capitation grant given to schools per its enrolment. However, head teachers claim that although the grant is meager, it however, always gets to them late. This situation the researcher observed had compelled some of the head teachers to pre-finance their school budget which gives them the final say in all decisions. However, regardless of these problems the researcher argues that perhaps some of the head teachers lack the initiative to generate additional funds for the school or the bureaucratic nature of the educational system in Ghana limits their functions as a basic school head teacher. However, the researcher suggests that head teachers should not be selected and appointed based on experience only but must at least have a degree in school leadership or its equivalent.

10.1.4 Head Teachers' and Circuit Supervisors' support for Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making

With the introduction of the 1987 educational reforms, schools in Ghana have become complex as the demand for community and teacher participation in school related affairs has increased. In this context the community where schools are located are mandated to own the school. In owning the school, it is expected that the community supports the school, its teachers and pupils to improve. It is also expected that head teachers and circuit supervisors support teachers to fully participate in all school decision-making. However, the study found that only a few head teachers and circuit supervisors support their teachers to work on committees, on one-to-one and on the classroom level.

The findings of the study revealed that only a few head teachers support teachers to participate on committees such as discipline, academic, welfare and finance, however, in some schools some of the teachers' are forced to join committees. The study revealed that some head teachers support teachers by consulting their views and sometimes giving them the mandate to make decisions on their behalf. Through consultation and the sharing of leadership roles at school, the majority of the head teachers' believe that teachers who

are the implementers of school policies will be empowered to participate in school decision-making. Evidence from the observations made at M/A 'T' basic school revealed that schools where committees were non-existent had low levels of teacher participation. The researcher argues that in Ghana where traditions and tensions in school leadership exist, where school leadership are appointed based on experience and long service and where head teachers are willing to flatter authorities, simply establishing committees, sharing of leadership roles and consultation will not make teacher participation effective, rather, regular in service training and workshops in school decision-making and participation for all stakeholders, especially, basic school head teachers, teachers, pupils and circuit supervisors may be the key to school improvement.

The finding of the study revealed that in schools where head teachers consulted teachers on one-to-one, teachers expressed their satisfaction because they believe that their individual expertise were tapped and used by the head teacher. Studies such as Wadesango and Shumba (2009), Wadesango (2011) and Matunhu (2002) argue that in schools where consultation is done on one-to-one, head teachers are enabled to understand teachers as individuals and not as a group which motivates teachers to participate in school decision-making.

Lastly, the study found that teachers were also given support by head teachers and circuit supervisors at the classroom level. The findings of the study revealed that the majority of the teachers in the study are participating at the classroom level. However, the study revealed that head teachers from the urban schools support their teachers more often than those from the rural-urban schools. Despite the difference in classroom support across the two study sites, the study found that circuit supervisors from both sites of the study do occasionally organise workshops for classroom teachers and head teachers. Besides these support at the classroom level, the researcher suggest that both head teachers and circuit supervisors should set aside time for professional development and collaborative work with teachers and make time for planning together, building teacher networks and visit classroom regularly.

10.1.5 Teacher Participation in Decision-making and School Improvement

From the on-going discussions, the researcher argues that although there is not enough evidence to suggest that when teachers participate fully at all levels of school decision-making, schools will experience some improvement, however, there are traces from the findings that basic schools may improve when teachers participate fully in all school decisions. In this regard, Harris (2012) argues that building the capacity for school improvement necessitates paying careful attention to how collaborative processes in schools are fostered and developed. This implies that teachers will work effectively when they are supported by head teachers and other teachers. The study revealed that teacher PDM affects school improvement directly and indirectly in the following ways; increases school productivity, develop school innovation and improve organisational behaviour.

With regard to school productivity, the findings of the study established that when teachers participate in school decision-making it promotes teacher productivity directly and indirectly. Directly, the study found for example, at St 'K' JHS where teacher participation in school decision-making was high, the school had improved the quality of educational decision-making. This enabled the head teacher, circuit supervisor, and other educational authorities have access to critical school related information close to the source of problems of schooling such as; student academic performance, absenteeism, student indiscipline and teaching and learning.

The study further established that through teacher participation in school decision-making, new ideas, products, process or procedures (school innovation) are designed to benefit the school. In addition, teachers also believe that their participation in decision-making encouraged them to discover new opportunities and challenges in their carrier as noted by male teacher (6) from Cape Coast when he said;

"I am on the disciplinary committee but because sometimes our views are not taken it makes it not worth it, however, I do share and learn from other teachers and this open new challenges and opportunities for me"

Some of the teachers further attested to the fact that when they participated in school decision-making it enabled them to learn, share and combine knowledge to solve school related problems which hitherto were not solvable. In this regard, the researcher believes that teacher participation in school decision-making is crucial for school's ability to turn new ideas and individually held knowledge into innovative, procedures, service and useful products to improve schools.

Lastly, the findings of the study established that the majority of the teachers in most of the urban and some of the rural-urban schools are willing to contribute to school improvement through participating in school decision-making regardless of the challenges they might encounter. However, because teachers were limited in participating at the school level, benefits such as gaining leadership roles, administrative skills and widening their scope beyond the classroom has eluded them. However, when teachers participate at all the levels of school decisions, teachers tend to gain an in-depth knowledge and understanding in the managerial affairs of the school. Their understanding and knowledge will enable them erase doubts and uncertainties they might harbour about their head teachers. In such instances the teachers' behaviour will be positively affected towards extra-curricular activities. The implication is that when teachers behaviour are affected positively by participating in school decision-making it might lead to job satisfaction and school improvement.

10.2 Conclusion

The study's findings has established that the majority of the teachers in the Cape Coast metropolitan area and Mfantseman municipality are currently participating at the individual/classroom level, while some are participating at the committee/ group level. However, only few teachers are participating at the school level. Due to challenges such as unilateral decision by head teachers,

unimplemented decisions and insufficient funds some head teachers deprive the majority of the teachers in participating at the school level of decision-making. Regardless of these levels of participation, teachers expect head teachers to motivate them to participate in school decision-making, trust and be transparent to them in all school related issues. All the head teachers, circuit supervisors and teachers believe that they all need regular training, especially for the head teachers in school decision-making to enable them understand and practice the tenet of participative or shared decision-making in their schools. Regardless of the disparities in levels of teacher participation in the study sites, participants share the common view that the end product of teacher participation in school decision-making is school improvement.

10.3 Recommendation for Practice

Following the discussions, summary of findings and conclusion arrived at in the preceding chapters and sections; the following recommendations are made by the researcher to enhance teacher participation in basic schools in the study area and similar context in Ghana. At the national level the researcher recommends the following:

10.3.1 Academic Qualification and Regular Training

The majority of the basic school head teachers who are regarded as custodian and leaders of the school are seen as 'helpless' in managing their schools. One major step towards improving their situation is by empowering them. However, the researcher argues that their basic challenge is how to tap teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions and build better educational policies. This is a major challenge to the majority of the head teachers because most of them as discussed in the previous chapters are appointed to become head teachers through long-service and with or without any formal training and qualification in school leadership and management or its equivalent (Bush and Oduro, 2006 & Oduro, 2003, 2007; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008). This situation has compelled the majority of the head

teachers to manage schools from their past experiences or trial-and-error method which has contributed to the lack of teacher participation in school decision-making.

The researcher therefore recommends a review of the existing procedure for selecting and appointing of basic school head teachers to headship positions by the Ghana Education Service. In addition, the researcher recommends that the Ghana Education Service enacts special policies to appoint head teachers with the headship qualification to head basic schools. The researcher through the findings of the study recommends that head teachers should have at least a minimum first degree qualification in school administration and leadership or its equivalent and a minimum of 5 years of teaching experience before being appointed to head a school. In addition, the researcher further recommends that regular in-service training and workshops should be tailored to address needs and demands of basic schools and this should be periodically organised by the GES in collaboration with the University of Education to train head teachers in school leadership and management. This can be done by the Ghana Education Service partnering the University of Education, Winneba to design appropriate programmes and mechanisms to train, develop and strengthen the leadership skills of teachers who are yet to become head teachers and head teachers who are already managing schools. The study also finds it worthwhile that head teachers currently managing schools should be made to attend a distance programme or short certificate courses during school vacation to upgrade and update their knowledge in school leadership and management, especially in school decision-making.

10.3.2 Decentralisation of Power and Authority

In a school system, Walker (2000) viewed decentralisation as the geographical break down of authority through regions to localities, particularly to schools and classrooms. From the findings of this study the researcher recommends that the Ghana Education Service should transfer decision-making power, assignment of accountability and responsibility to the schools and communities. This should also be accompanied by delegation to commensurate authority to

individual teachers at all levels of the school decision-making. In this context the researcher suggests that administrative decentralisation perhaps might be the key to full teacher participation at all levels of school decision-making.

Administratively, the researcher recommends a transfer of decision-making authority, resources and responsibilities for the delivering of selected educational/school services such as budgeting, expenditure, funds and resources, hiring and firing of teachers and teacher assessment from the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service to the other lower levels of educational agencies such as the district education office, the school (head teachers and teachers) and the community. Perhaps to achieve full decentralisation in Ghanaian basic schools is to adopt the most radical form of administrative decentralisation which is devolution. Devolution gives full mandate to the head teacher and teachers to hire/fire personal and assign authorities/responsibilities for carrying out task while still maintaining the checks and balances from higher authority.

However, the researcher cautions that care should be taken when adopting devolution because it might lead to the collapse of the whole educational system in Ghana where educational structures are not well established. Nonetheless, a more 'soft' approach such as de-concentration and delegation might perhaps fit in the Ghanaian context. With de-concentration the researcher recommends a transfer of authority and responsibility from the Ghana Education Service to the schools and the local communities where the school is situated. This perhaps will compel head teachers and teachers to be accountable to the local communities who intend be responsible and accountable the Ghana Education Service. Through this, the community will feel they own the school and the teachers will also be empowered to take part in school decision-making because they are part of the community. On the other hand, through delegation the Ghana Education Service should redistribute its authorities and responsibilities to the local communities or to agencies such as the PTA, the School Management Committee (SMC) or an independent body formed from the community, with the bulk of accountability still vertically directed upwards towards the Ghana Education Service.

At the school level the researcher recommends the following:

10.3.3 Teacher Empowerment

To empower is to give an opportunity and confidence to act upon one's ideas to influence the way one performs in one's profession. The findings of the study have shown that true empowerment will lead to increased professionalism as teachers assume responsibility for involvement in the decision-making process. Blasé and Blasé (2001), however, remind us that to empower teachers requires investing in teachers the right to participate in the determination of school goals and policies, and the right to exercise professional judgement about the content of the curriculum and means of instruction.

In this regard the researcher recommends that at the school level, school policies should be structured to mandate head teachers to tap teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions to build better educational programmes. This can be done by first, the head teachers investing in teachers the right to participate at all the three levels of school decision-making (individual, committee and school level). Secondly, head teachers should entrust teachers with administrative responsibilities such as budgeting, expenditure, school goals and policies. Thirdly, school policies should mandate head teachers to grant new respect and trust to teachers and enhance teachers working conditions in the classroom by providing them the needed teaching and learning materials. Lastly, head teachers as a way of democratic leadership should be mandated to embrace teachers as concerned citizens, as protectors of the truth, and as participants in schooling enterprise to voice their opinions about shared decision-making which lies at the heart of successful school improvement. This combination of respect and dignity is the essence of true empowerment in schools.

10.3.4 Creating Instruction-Oriented Structures

In a collegial, collaborative environment, head teachers consistently concentrate on enabling others to examine and redesign schools for improved learning, and teachers learn to share power and work as a team. This is a significant change from the traditional, bureaucratic, controlling ways of operating in many schools, and it reflects the belief, even the assumption, that teachers are capable of an exciting, new, transformative vision of teaching.

The researcher therefore recommends schools and head teachers to establish instruction-oriented structures to eradicate the bureaucratic and traditional system in Ghanaian basic schools by making accessible, clear and sharing the vision and mission of the school with all teachers, supporting and making the roles of committees and individual teachers clearer and establishing procedure for accountability and transparency. The researcher further recommends that head teachers should be mandated by the Ghana Education Service to design appropriate roles and responsibilities for teachers in school decision-making. To achieve the usefulness of the instruction-oriented structures, schools need to be well funded. The researcher also recommends that head teachers and teachers should partner the community to raise funds and resources to supplement the schools capitation grant. In addition, head teachers should delegate responsibilities and authorities to teachers based on their expertise and not because they are allies or based on long service or age.

10.3.5 Valuing and Rewarding Good Work

The researcher firmly believes that when basic school head teachers give teachers more voice in the school decision-making, recognise and appreciate their good work and encourage them, it is perceived that teachers will fully participate in school decision-making and schools will eventually improve. Various studies such as Drurry (1999) and Blasé and Blasé (2001) have found valuing and rewarding teachers good work as source of teacher retention and teacher participation in school decision-making.

The study found that basic school teachers wanted to be valued, motivated and rewarded for good services rendered. In this regard the researcher recommends head teachers to establish an award scheme for rewarding good work in the school. This when well established and effected will enhance the primary effects of facilitating teacher empowerment in shared decision-making, which will in tend create teacher satisfaction, motivate teachers to work hard and create a sense of efficacy and self-esteem among teachers.

Finally, the researcher recommends that circuit supervisors should be attached to schools rather than the education offices. They should have offices within schools under their jurisdiction and constantly monitor and organise workshops and in-service training on the tenet of school decision-making to head teachers, committee leaders and individual teachers.

10.4 New Directions for Further Research

The researcher believes that school leadership in Ghana should rather be about creating new traditions that honour the dignity and humanity of every individual teacher and other stakeholders. It should be about empowering every teacher to fulfil his/her talent, and when school head teachers commit to that kind of leadership in schools, that is when schools will make progress to improve.

Studies have shown that effective leadership is widely accepted as being a key constituent in achieving school improvement (Harris and Muijs, 2003). The evidence from the available literature demonstrates that effective leaders exercise an indirect but powerful influence on the effectiveness of the school and on the achievement of students (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1998; Harris and Muijs, 2003). While the quality of teaching strongly influences the levels of pupil motivation and achievement, it has been consistently argued that the quality of leadership matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching in the classroom (Fullan, 2001; Segiovanni, 2001). This means that for basic schools in the study to improve, head teachers should demonstrate effective leadership and involve all teachers and other stakehold-

ers in school decision-making. The researcher therefore believes that further research is required to establish the relationship between leadership styles and school improvement. The study should investigate the current leadership styles exhibited by basic school head teachers and its impact to school productivity and teacher innovation.

In addition, the researcher recommends further studies to find out the impact of teacher participation in school decision-making on school improvement. Such study should find out and establish the link between teacher participation in school decision-making and school improvement in Ghanaian basic schools.

Furthermore, a study that explores other stakeholders such as community and pupil participation in school decision-making among schools in the Central Region of Ghana is required to expose the levels of their participation and its impact on school improvement.

Lastly, as effective leadership is the key to school improvement, the researcher suggests a study to be conducted on the kinds and types of training that are given to basic school head teachers and its relevance to their development as head teachers. Such a study should explore the types of workshops and in-service training, its relevance and impact on basic school head teachers and school improvement.

10.5 Significance of the Study

The study was based on the researchers' own investigations from the known to the known, using ideas and tools structured by the researcher. Although, references were made to other authors, this was done to add to the existing literature. In this regard, the researcher believes that the findings from this study will contribute to bridge the gap created by the paucity of literature in teacher participation in school decision-making in the Ghanaian context. Specifically, the findings will enrich existing literature on current levels and barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making in Ghanaian basic schools. The available literature on teacher participation in school decision-

making indicates that the majority of basic school teachers are not allowed to participate in some aspects of school decision-making. However, specific reasons have not been given. In addition, problems encountering teacher participation in school decision-making and the current levels of participation have not been well highlighted. Through the findings of this study, the current levels of teacher participation and the challenges/barriers to teacher participation have been established through the themes that emerged from the study. Such current findings that emerged from this study will create awareness and help head teachers, teachers, and circuit supervisors (CS's), stakeholders in education and policy makers to develop appropriate and effective strategies and policies to address the lack of teacher participation in school decision-making for schools to improve.

In addition, the findings of this study will also contribute to existing knowledge about the preparation, appointment and training of head teachers in the basic schools in Ghana. One of the findings of the study is that head teachers lack the requisite skills to lead schools and therefore need to be regularly trained in order to be able to inculcate and practice the basic tenet of good and effective leadership in schools. The findings of this study will further contribute to the on-going debate about the selection, preparation and appointment of basic school head teachers (Oduro, 2003; Bush and Oduro, 2006; Afful-Broni and Dampson, 2008) by presenting a broader picture of how the lack of adequate preparation of basic school head teachers had impacted on teacher's participation in school decision-making in schools in Ghana.

One of the findings of this study, however, lies in unveiling the factors responsible for lack of teacher participation in school decision-making. Although the paucity of literature in school decision-making in Ghana place emphasis on time, bureaucratic system, lack of authority and lukewarm attitudes of teachers as barriers to teacher participation, some studies (Drah, 2011; Dampson, 2010; Kweggyir-Aggrey and Yelkpieri, 2012) have failed to categorize the levels of teacher participation in school decision-making for practicable solutions to address these barriers. The findings from this study established that unimplemented decisions, insufficient funds and unilateral

decisions are the current barriers to teacher participation in school decision-making. The researcher believes that these findings will enable head teachers, schools, the Ghana Education Service, the Ministry of Education and other stakeholders in education to find practicable solutions to the lack of teacher participation in school decision-making in order for basic schools in Ghana to improve.

Lastly, the findings of this study is a groundbreaking as its lays foundation for future research into students/pupils and other stakeholder's participation in school decision-making. The researcher believes that such future studies will enhance teachers and other stakeholder's participation in school decision-making which will turn basic schools in Ghana into academic productivity, hence school improvement.

10.6 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to the scope and sites of the schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The study was further limited to public basic schools in the Central Region of Ghana. In addition, the study was limited to public basic schools in the Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality of the Central Region of Ghana. The participants for the study was also limited to head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors who have been at current post/school/ circuit for one or more academic year.

As the study adopted a mixed/multiple method approach with a case study of schools, critics of case study approach such as Stake (2000) and Cohen *et al.,* (2011) argue that generalising the findings of such studies is difficult and unreliable because of its limited coverage. Denscombe (2003), however, reminds us that the application of findings of a case study becomes even more difficult if it is an exceptional case. As already noted, the researchers' aim and objectives was to provide an overall picture and understanding of the current levels of teacher participation in school decision-making in Cape Coast metropolis and Mfantseman municipality only. Nonetheless, there is a possibility for readers to transfer the outcomes of this study to their individual

context if they identify commonalities between their context and that of this study. Moreover, the findings of this study can be used to infer in close association with others conducted in the Ghanaian educational context to enhance the understanding of teacher participation in school decision-making. In addition, fuzzy generalisation can be made from the findings and recommendations of this study.

Another limitation of this study is related to the sampling of the population of the study, which consisted of teachers, headteachers and circuit supervisors from the Cape Coast metropolis and the Mfantseman municipality because of time constraints and other practicalities such as accessibility and consent. The researcher recognizes that other stakeholders in the schools such as parents, students and the School Management Committee (SMC) members who partici-pate in school decision-making should have been consulted. The exclusion of these stakeholders was felt, especially during the interview, observation, presentation of the findings and the data analysis, because their views could have had the potential to clarify some issues raised by the participants.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) and Merriam (2009) draw the attention of researchers to potential bias which could occur during data collection and when the analyses are not rigorously done. In this study the researcher attempted to make sure that the procedures used for data collection were trustworthy. Firstly, the questionnaire, interviews and observations were piloted before their execution. Secondly, multiple methods were used to garner data from teachers, head teachers and circuit supervisors. These ensured that the study was triangulated thereby eliminating potential bias.

Finally, due to the duration and purpose of the study, the researcher could not collect detailed evidence to substantiate the relationship between teacher participation in school decision-making and school improvement in Ghanaian basic schools. However, the little evidence gathered showed traces of positive relationship between teacher PDM and school improvement.

In spite of these limitations, the researcher believes that the multiple methods

adopted for this study was deemed appropriate. The multiple methods adopted for this study was suitable for triangulating and answering the key research questions set out in this study and enabled the researcher to investigate the current trends and barriers to teacher participation in Ghanaian basic schools.

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APPENDIX 1

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW

I am a PhD student at the University of Northampton, UK and am doing a dissertation with the school of Education. I am requesting your assistance in a study on '**teacher participation in decision making**' in your Municipality/district. As a teacher/head teacher/circuit supervisor in this Municipality/district your views are very important in this study and I will be very grateful if you could grant me an interview on this important topic.

The interview will last between **20-25 minutes**. Topics to be discussed will range from **your understanding of decision-making, opinions and expectation about teacher participation** in decision-making and school improvement.

The study is purely an academic exercise and it is therefore guaranteed that the responses provided will be confidentially and anonymously used and cannot be traced to persons who provided them. Names of participants and schools will not be disclosed or used in the analysis of data.

I will be glad if you will grant me an appointment. Please find attached a copy of consent forms and interview guide summary for your perusal
 Thank you for your assistance.

Dandy George Dampson

Phone: 0246913593

E-mail: dgdampson@gmail.com

 dandy.dampson@northampton.ac.uk

Appointment for interview

Teacher: …………………………...Contact Tel number: …………..

Preferred date for interview: ……………Time: …………Venue: ………

APPENDIX 2

THE UNIVERSITY OF
NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

INFORM CONSENT FORM

I have read and understood the invitation letter and the researcher has answered any questions I wanted to ask about the project.

a.   I have read and understood the project aims and objectives.

b.   I appreciate that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

c.   Within the confines of the law, the researcher will not give any personal information about me to anyone else.

d.   I understand that the researcher will ensure that my answers remain anonymous which means that the report will not reveal my identity.

e.   I understand that reports and publications may be written about this research, and that nothing identifying me will ever be made public unless I have agreed and in which case I will be given a pseudonym.

f.   I give permission for my views to be captured and be used in publications from the study and I understand that they will not be used for any other purpose.

I have read all the above points; I understand them and would like to take part in the research.

Name: ……………………………………….
Signed: ……………………………………….
Date: ………………………………………..

APPENDIX 3

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Research Title: Teacher participation in decision-making in Ghanaian basic schools. A study in Cape Coast Metro and Mfantseman Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana.

This research is supported by the University of Education, Ghana, through the GETFund.

Purpose of the research: To investigate the extent of teacher participation in decision making and its impact on school improvement Ghanaian basic schools.

Who the researchers are? The research will be conducted by the researcher (Dandy George Dampson), the director of studies and two supervisors whose details are provided below.

What the study involves? The will gather data from head teachers, Circuit supervisors and teachers. Three personal documents will be analysed: Attendance report, review meeting minutes and school projects. You will also be invited to a two meetings to share your ideas on some findings during the process of the research.

What kind of participation is expected? Participants will be required to be **interviewed.** The interview will last between **20-25 minutes**. Topics to be discussed will range from **meaning, views and teacher participation** in decision-making in schools.

What will happen to the information? All audio recorded will be kept securely in a locked storage area and will be accessed only by the researcher, the supervisors and the participants concerned. The identity of each participant will remain anonymous throughout the interview process and in the report. Each participant will be assigned an identification code and any information provided will be identified only by this code. Once the research is completed, the data collected will be destroyed. The information you give or collected about you, will be for research purposes only. It will not be shared with anyone else for any other purpose. However, in the event of any harmful practice being mentioned, the research team would be obliged to inform the appropriate agencies.

Consent and Withdrawal: Written consent will be obtained before the commencement of the interview. Each participant will be given access to all the details regarding the purpose and extent of the research and every participant

is free to withdraw from research at any time. However, if this happens after completion of the interview, the information may be used, but no further participation will be requested.

Possible outcome of the research: A report of the outcome of the research will be made available to all the participants, and the school. It is hoped that the result of this research will improve participation in decision making, educational policies and school improvement.

APPENDIX 4

THE UNIVERSITY OF
NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

The Head Teacher
St Nicholas JHS
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FOR OBSERVATION

I wish to express my gratitude for taking part in my questionnaire survey and interview on "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making". Your participation as well as that of your staff has gone a long way to add rich and valuable information to my study.

As a follow-up to the questionnaire survey and interview conducted recently, an observation to add rich information to the already gathered data needs to be done. As you and your staff have always welcomed me I would like to request for your permission to conduct an observation in your school.

Your school has been selected as one of the schools to be observed in Cape Coast because it fits into the criteria of schools to be observed. The observation will be in a form of participant observation. Observation will only take place during staff and other meetings with PTA or the SMC.

This observation is purely for academic purpose for which I believe data collected will go a long way to support my research findings. I will also be very glad if you will allow me to have a look at some of your school documents such as circulars for meetings, duty router, attendance book, minutes book and other documents need be.

Thank you for your immense support so far and it's my outmost hope that my permission will be granted. Please read and sign the consent forms.

Thank you for your assistance.

Dandy George Dampson

Phone: 0246913593   E-mail: dgdampson@gmail.com

dandy.dampson@northampton.ac.uk

APPENDIX 5

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

INFORM CONSENT FORM (Observation & Document Analysis)

I have read and understood the request for permission letter and the researcher has answered any questions I wanted to ask about the project.

a.   I have read and understood the project aims and objectives.

b.   I appreciate that schools participation is voluntary and my staff and I are free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

c.   Within the confines of the law, the researcher will not give any personal information about the observation or documents to anyone else.

d.   I understand that the researcher will ensure that his observation about the school will remain anonymous which means that the report will not reveal the school's identity.

e.   I understand that reports and publications may be written about this research, and that nothing identifying me or any member of staff will ever be made public unless I have agreed and in which case I, the school, or any member of staff will be given a pseudonym.

f.   I give permission for my views to be captured and be used in publications from the study and I understand that they will not be used for any other purpose.

I have read all the above points; I understand them and would like to take part in the research.

Name: ……………………………………….
Signed: ……………………………………….
Date: ………………………………………..

APPENDIX 6

THE UNIVERSITY OF
NORTHAMPTON
School of Education

The Head Teacher
Edumadzi DA Pry & JHS (B)
Mfantseman

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FOR OBSERVATION

I wish to express my gratitude for taking part in my questionnaire survey and interview on "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making". Your participation as well as that of your staff has gone a long way to add rich and valuable information to my study.

As a follow-up to the questionnaire survey and interview conducted recently, an observation to add rich information to the already gathered data needs to be done. As you and your staff have always welcomed me I would like to request for your permission to conduct an observation in your school.

Your school has been selected as one of the schools to be observed in Cape Coast because it fits into the criteria of schools to be observed. The observation will be in a form of participant observation. Observation will only take place during staff and other meetings with PTA or the SMC.

This observation is purely for academic purpose for which I believe data collected will go a long way to support my research findings. I will also be very glad if you will allow me to have a look at some of your school documents such as circulars for meetings, duty router, attendance book, minutes book and other documents need be.

Thank you for your immense support so far and it's my outmost hope that my permission will be granted. Please read and sign the consent forms.

Thank you for your assistance.

Dandy George Dampson

Phone: 0246913593

E-mail: dgdampson@gmail.com   dandy.dampson@northampton.ac.uk

APPENDIX 7

<div align="center">

QUESTIONNIARE FOR TEACHERS
PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

</div>

This questionnaire has been designed to allow you to describe in detail your participation in decision making in your school. Your responses will be combined with other teachers to yield a picture of your extent and impact of participation in decision making in your school. The goal of this research is to find out your participation levels in four dimensions of school governance and its impact on school improvement. Your frank and honest responses are important and will remain anonymous.

<div align="center">

SECTION A

</div>

Background Information
These questions are about you, your education and the time you have spent in teaching. In responding to the questions, please mark (√) the appropriate box.

1. What is your gender?
   Female   Male
      ☐   ☐

2. How old are you?
  18-23   24-29 30–39 40-49 50-59   60+
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. What is your employment status as a teacher?
    ☐ Full-time
    ☐ Part-time
    ☐ National Service Personnel

4. What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed?
   Please mark one choice only.
    ☐ PhD
    ☐ Masters degree
    ☐ Bachelor degree
    ☐ HND
    ☐ Diploma in Education
    ☐ (3) Year Post Secondary
    ☐ (4) Year Post Middle/Secondary
    ☐ SSCE (Senior Secondary School Certificate)

5. Are you a class teacher or a subject teacher?
    ☐ Class teacher
    ☐ Subject teacher

5b. What subject(s) do you teach? ……………………………………………………………………

5c. How many pupils do you teach? Thick the one applicable to you.
  10-30   31-50   51-80   81 and above
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

6. How long have you been working as a teacher?

1-2 years 3-5 years 6-10 years 11-15 years 16-20 years 20-25 years 25-29 years 30 years above
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

7. How long have you been working as a teacher at this school?
1-2 years   3-5 years   6-10 years   11-15 years   16-20 years   21 years and above
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

8. What class or form are you teaching?
Class 1   Class 2   Class 3   Class 4   Class 5   Class 6   JHS 1   JHS 2   JHS 3
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

SECTION B
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Please only consider professional development you have taken after your initial teacher training/education.
9. The following statements refer to the professional development you have taken after your initial teacher training/education. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I have attended courses/workshops on good classroom practices					
I have attended in-service training on new educational syllabus for basic schools.					
I have upgraded myself with a degree course/certificate in education.					
I have participated in an educational research issues					
I have attended in-service/workshop on teaching and learning methods					
I have participated in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional development of teachers					

10. Thinking of your own professional development needs, please indicate the extent to which you have such needs in each of the areas listed. Please mark one choice in each row.

Statement	High level of need	Moderate level of need	Low level of need	No level of need
Student assessment and evaluation practices				
Classroom management, students discipline/counselling				
ICT skills				
Training, knowledge and				

understanding of my subject area				
Teaching students with special needs				
School leadership, management and administration.				

SECTION C
PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT DECISION MAKING

The following statements refer to the extent to which you might be involved in managerial activities in your school by your head teacher. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

The head teacher involves me in the following:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Determining School expenditure priorities					
Selecting team leaders					
Planning the school budget/ school feeding programme/capitation grants					
Recruiting new teachers in the school					
Allocating duties to teachers Determining the procedures to be used for the evaluation of teachers.					
Allocating TLMs and other equipment's to teachers					
Determining students' and teachers' rights and welfare					

SECTION D
PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION (TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES)

The following statements refer to the extent to which you might be involved in teaching and learning issues in your school by your head teacher. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

The head teacher involves me in the following:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Determining teaching and learning methodologies to be used in the classroom					
Determining teaching content, textbooks and materials to be used					
Grading and promoting of students in your class					
Determining the type of assessments for students					
Determining procedures for assessing end of year student achievement in your subject area/class.					
Determining punishment/correctives measures for students					

SECTION E
PARTICIPATION IN DETERMINING GOALS OF THE SCHOOL
Below are statements about goals in your school. Please indicate how frequent the activities listed below took place during the previous school year.
Please mark one choice in each row.
HT =head teacher

Statement	Every time	Quite Often	Often	Some times
During meeting HT discusses academic goals that needs to be achieved by teachers				
During meeting HT discusses School Performance Appraisal Meeting report (SPAM) and other academic results.				
During meeting HT allow staff to participate in discussions and give suggestions/recommendations.				
HT gives teachers suggestions as to how to improve teaching & learning				
During meeting HT discusses state of school				

management, school related problems, infrastructure and teaching and learning materials.				
HT ensures that trs are informed about possibilities for grading their knowledge and skills.				
During meeting HT involve teachers in determining the usage of all finances, grants and developmental projects				

SECTION F
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

The following statements refer to the extent to which your school has improved for the past 18 to 24 months. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with each of the follow statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

Statement	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Academic standards have increased within the past 18mths					
School buildings and other infrastructure such as TLM, pupils and staff desks					
Improvement in teacher punctuality and commitment to work					
Improvement in teaching methods					
Students behaviour and class management has improved within the past 18mths					
Capitation and other grants have been used for pre-planned/agreed project (s)					
Workshops and other Opportunity for professional development					

Enrolment has increase within the last 18				
Your overall view about school improvement				

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX 8

<p style="text-align:center">QUESTIONNIARE FOR HEAD TEACHERS
PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING</p>

This questionnaire has been designed to allow you to describe in detail your experience and views in participation in decision-making in your school. Your responses will be combined with those of other head teachers to yield a picture of the extent of teacher participation in decision-making in your school. The goal of this research is to find out the extent of teacher participation in decision making in four areas of school governance and its impact on school improvement. Your responses are important and will remain anonymous.

<p style="text-align:center">SECTION A
Background Information</p>

These questions are about you, your education and the time you have spent in teaching. In responding to the questions, please mark (√) the appropriate box.

1. What is your gender?

Female   Male

☐   ☐

2. How old are you?

18-24   25-29   30–39   40-49   50-59   60+

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. What is your employment status as a head teacher?

☐ Head teacher

☐ Assistant head teacher

☐ Acting head teacher

☐ Part-time head teacher

4. What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed?

Please mark **one** choice only.

☐ PhD

☐ Masters degree

☐ Bachelor degree

☐ HND

☐ Diploma in Education

☐ (3) Year Post Secondary

☐ (4) Year Post Middle/Secondary

☐ SSCE (Senior Secondary School Certificate)

5. Are you a class teacher or a subject teacher in addition to your headship?

☐ Class teacher

☐ Subject teacher

☐ Head teacher only

5b. How many teachers are on your staff?

1-4   5-10   11-15   16-20   21-25   25+

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

5c. What is the total enrolment of pupils in your school?

10-70	71-130	131-190	191-251	251-310	311-370	371+
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. How long have you been working as a head teacher?

1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	26-29 years	30 years above
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. How long have you been working as a head teacher at this school?

1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21 years above
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION B
STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Please only consider professional development you have taken **after** your initial teacher training/education.

8. The following statements refer to the professional development you have taken after your initial teacher training/education. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I have attended in service or workshops on need assessment for teachers.					
I have attended in-service/course on school leadership, administration and management					
I have upgraded myself with a degree course/certificate in education.					
I have participated in an educational research issues.					
I have attended training programme(s) in financial and human resource development					
I have participated in a network of head teachers formed specifically for the professional development of teachers.					
I have attended in-service/workshop on supervisory and report writing skills.					

9. Thinking of your own professional development needs, please indicate the extent to which you have such needs in each of the areas listed. Please mark one choice in each row.

Statement	High level of need	Moderate level of need	Low level of need	No level of need
Knowledge and skills to supervise and monitor teachers				
Teacher assessment practices, vetting of lesson plan and teaching.				
Leadership, management and administrative skills				
ICT skills				
Organization of in service training and workshops				
Teacher discipline and behaviour problems				
Mentoring and coaching teachers				

SECTION C
PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT DECISION-MAKING

The following statements refer to the extent to which you (head teacher) might involve your teachers in managerial activities in your school. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

I do involve my teachers in the following:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Determining School expenditure priorities					
Selecting team leaders					
Planning the school budget/school feeding programme/capitation.					
Recruiting new teacher in the school					
Determining the procedures used to evaluate teachers performance					
Allocating teachers' duties in school					
Allocating TLMs and equipment's to teachers/class					
Evaluating how well students performing in a teachers					

subject/class					
Determining students' rights and welfare					

SECTION D
PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION (TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES)

The following statements refer to the extent you (head teacher) involve teachers in the participation in teaching and learning issues in your school. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

I involve teachers in my school in the following:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Determining teaching methodologies to be used in the classroom.					
Determining teaching content, textbooks and materials to be used					
Grading and promoting of students in class					
Determining the type of assessments for students.					
Determining procedures for assessing end of year student achievement in your subject area/class.					
Grading, rewarding and promoting of students.					
Determining punishment/corrective measures for students misbehaviour					

SECTION E
PARTICIPATION IN DETERMINING OF GOALS

Below are statements about goals in your school. Please indicate how frequent the activities listed below took place during the previous school year.
Please mark one choice in each row.

Statement	Every time	Quite often	Often	Some times
During meeting I discusses academic goals that needs to be achieved by teachers				
During meeting I discusses School Performance Appraisal Meeting report (SPAM) and other academic results.				
During meeting I allow staff to participate in discussions and give recommendation.				
During meeting HT discusses state of school management, school related problems, infrastructure and teaching and learning materials.				
I ensures that trs are informed about possibilities for grading their knowledge and skills				
I give teachers suggestions as to how to improve teaching & learning				
During meeting I involve teachers in determining the usage of all finances, grants and developmental projects				

SECTION F
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

The following statements refer to the extent to which your school has improved for the past 18 to 24 months. Please indicate your level of agreement/satisfaction with each of the follow statements.

Statement	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Academic standards have increased within the past 18 months					
School buildings and other infrastructure such as TLM,					

pupils and staff desks					
Improvement in teacher punctuality and commitment to work					
Improvement in teaching methods					
Students behaviour and class management has improved within the past 18mths					
Capitation and other grants have been used for pre-planned/agreed project (s)					
Workshops and other Opportunity for professional development					
Enrolment has increase within the last 18 months					
Your overall view about school improvement					

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX 9

QUESTIONNIARE FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS
PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

This questionnaire has been designed to allow you to describe in detail teacher participation in decision-making in schools within your circuit. Your responses will be combined with those of other circuit supervisors to yield a picture of the extent and impact participation in decision-making in schools within your circuit. The goal of this research is to find out the extent of teacher participation in decision-making in four areas of school governance and its impact on school improvement. Your responses are important and will remain anonymous.

SECTION A
Background Information
These questions are about you, your education and the time you have spent as a circuit supervisor. In responding to the questions, please mark (√) the appropriate box.

1. What is your gender?

Female   Male

☐   ☐

2. How old are you?

18-23   24-29   30–39   40-49   50-59   60+

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. What is your employment status as a circuit supervisor?

☐ Full-time

☐ Acting Circuit Supervisor

☐ Part-time

4. What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed?

Please mark **one** choice only.

☐ PhD

☐ Master's degree

☐ Bachelor degree

☐ HND

☐ Diploma in Education

☐ (3) Year Post Secondary

☐ (4) Year Post Middle/Secondary

☐ SSCE (Senior Secondary School Certificate)

6. How long have you been working as a Circuit supervisor?

1-2 years 3-5 years 6-10 years 11-15 years 16-20 years 21-25 years 26-29 years 30 years above

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

SECTION B
STAFF DEVELOPMENT
Please only consider professional development you have taken after your initial teacher

training/education.

7. The following statements refer to the professional development you have taken after your initial teacher training/education. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by ticking (√) the appropriate box.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I have attended courses/workshops in school monitoring and supervision.					
I have attended in-service/course on school leadership, administration and management					
I have upgraded myself with a degree course/certificate in education					
I have participated in an educational research issue.					
I have attended in-service/workshop on report writing & how to organize INSERT					
I have participated in a network of circuit supervisors formed specifically for the professional development of circuit supervisors					

8. Thinking of your own professional development needs, please indicate the extent to which you have such needs in each of the areas listed. Please mark one choice in each row.

Statement	High level of need	Moderate level of need	Low level of need	No need at all
In service training, knowledge and skills to supervise and monitor teachers				
Training teacher assessment and evaluative practices				
School leadership, management and administration				
ICT skills				
Knowledge and skills in organization of workshops and in-service training for teachers				
Teacher counselling, discipline and behaviour problems				

SECTION C
PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT DECISION MAKING

The following statements refer to the extent to which you might involve teachers in managerial activities in your circuit. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

I involve teachers in the following:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Determining School expenditure priorities					
Selecting team leaders					
Planning the school budget, school feeding programme/ capitation grants					
Recruiting new teacher in the school					
Determining procedures to be used for the evaluation of teachers.					
Allocating teachers' duties in school					
Allocating TLMs and equipment's to a school					
Determining teachers and students rights and welfare					

SECTION D
PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION (TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES)

The following statements refer to the extent to which you involve teachers in your circuit in teaching and learning issues. Please indicate how often you do the following statements. I involve teachers in the following:

Statement	Every time	Quite Often	Often	Some times
Determining teaching & learning				

methodologies to be used in the classroom				
Determining teaching content text books & materials to be used.				
Determining procedure for assessing student end of year exam				
Giving teachers regular feedback on their performance				
Grading and promoting of teachers				
Determining punishment/corrective measures for students misbehaviour				
Rewarding and recommending teachers for prize.				

SECTION E
PARTICIPATION IN DETERMING THE GOALS OF THE SCHOOL

Below are statements about the goals of schools in your circuit. Please indicate how frequent the activities listed below took place during the previous school year.
Please mark one choice in each row.

Statement	Every time	Quite often	Often	Some times
Teachers are involved in school development plans				
Teachers are involved in giving suggestions and recommendation about their teaching and students performances				
Teachers are involved in solving all school related problems.				
I ensure that teachers are informed about possibilities for upgrading their knowledge and skills				
Teachers are involved in determining the usage of all finances & grants				
Teachers in involved planning and executing developmental projects in the school.				

SECTION F
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

The following statements refer to the extent to which your school has improved for the past 18 to 24 months. Please indicate your level of satisfaction with each of the follow statements by marking (√) the appropriate box.

Statement	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
Improvement in academic standards within the past 18 months					
Improvements in teaching methods					
School buildings and other infrastructure such as TLM, pupils and staff desks					
Improvement in teacher punctuality and commitment to work					
Students behaviour and class management has improved within the past year					
Capitation & other grants has been used for expected					
Workshops and other Opportunity for professional development					
Enrolment has increase within the last 18 months					
Your overall school improvement					

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX 10

<div align="center">

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

</div>

Introduction:
a. **Self introduction.**
b. **Explain the purpose of the study and how I intend to carry out the study.**
c. **Ask teacher to give brief background information about themselves and their school.**

<div align="center">

SECTION A
DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)

</div>

1. **Can you briefly tell me your understanding of decision-making?**

2. **Describe how decisions happens/take place in your/this school?**

3. **How often do your/this school have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning the school?**
a. How these meetings are organized?
b. Could you say something more about what issues are normally discussed during those meetings?
c. Will you say that you are always pleased/satisfied with proceedings and outcome of the meetings?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant.

<div align="center">

SECTION B

OPINIONS AND EXPECTATIONS ON DECISION-MAKING

</div>

1. **Tell me how you feel decisions should be made in your school?**
a. Why do you feel so?
b. Can you tell me specific reasons why you want decisions to be made that way?
c. Can you give me more examples?

2. **How do you want to be involved in decision-making in your school?**
a. Can you be more specific?
b. Can you tell me more about the role/s?
c. Why do you want to play such role/s

3. **There are 4 areas where teachers might want to participate. In order of preference, which of the following areas would you want to participate?**

i. Staff development and issues
ii.   Managerial issues
iii.   Goals/vision/mission of the school
iv.   Curriculum development/instruction
    a. Can you give specific reasons why you prefer those than the other

4. Have you observed any improvement in your school during the last 18 months?
a. Will you say your school has improved over the past 18 months through teacher participation in decision making?
b. What do you think should be done so that your school can improve?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

SECTION C

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

1. What are the main barriers that make it impossible for you to participate in decision-making in your school?

2. What do you think should be done to get teacher to fully participate in school decision-making?
a. Can you give more specific details?
b. What do you think teachers should also do?

3. At the end of this interview what is your opinion about teacher participation in decision-making?
a. Do you have any comment(s) to add to this discussion?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING

APPENDIX 11

<div align="center">

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS
</div>

Introduction:
a. **Self introduction.**
b. **Explain the purpose of the study and how I intend to carry out the study.**
c. **Ask head teacher to give brief background information about themselves and their school.**

<div align="center">

SECTION A
DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)
</div>

1. **Can you briefly tell me your understanding of the term decision-making?**

2. **Describe how decisions happens/take place in your/this school?**

3. **Have you attended any workshop/insert on decision-making within the past 10 month?**
a. Can you say something about it?
b. What lessons/skill did you acquire?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

<div align="center">

SECTION B

OPINIONS AND EXPECTATIONS ON DECISION-MAKING
</div>

1. **How often do you have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning the school?**
   a. How these meetings are organized?
b. Could you say something more about what issues are normally discussed during those meetings?
c. Will you say that you are always pleased/satisfied with proceedings and outcome of the meetings

2. **Tell me about the attitude of your staff members/teachers towards meetings?**
a. Are you or are they always pleased with the proceedings of the meeting?
b. Tell me more with some specific examples?

3. **Tell me how you feel decisions should be made in your school?**
a. Why do you feel so?
b. Can you tell me specific reasons why you want decisions to be made that way?
c. Can you give me more examples?

4. **In order of preference, which of the following areas would you want your staff/teacher to participate?**

i.   Staff development and issues
ii.   Managerial issues
iii.   Goals/vision/mission of the school
iv.   Curriculum and instruction
    a.   Can you give specific reasons why you prefer those than the others?

    4b. **Can you briefly describe how you involve teachers in decision-making in the following areas?**

i.   Staff development and issues
ii.   Managerial issues
iii.   Goals/vision/mission of the school
iv.   Curriculum and instruction
    a.   What roles do they play?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

SECTION C

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

1. **What are the main barriers that make it impossible for teachers to participate in decision-making in your school?**
    a.   What have you done to address those barriers to teacher participation in DM

2. **Has your school improved over the last 18 months?**
    a.   What do you consider as major indicators for such improvement?
    b.   Will you say your school has improved over the past 18 months because of Participative decision-making?

3. **What do you think should be done so that teachers can fully participate in decision-making in their school?**

4. **At the end of this interview what is your opinion about teacher participation in decision-making?**
    d.   Do you have any comment(s) to add to this discussion?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant
THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX 12

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS

Introduction:
a. **Self introduction.**
b. **Explain the purpose of the study and how I intend to carry out the study.**
c. **Ask circuit supervisors to give brief background information about themselves and the schools within their circuit.**

SECTION A
DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)
1. **Can you briefly tell me your understanding of the term decision-making?**

2. **Describe how decisions happens/take place in your/this school?**

3. **Have you attended any workshop/insert on decision-making within the past 10 month?**
a. Can you say something about it?
b. What lessons/skill did you acquire?

Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

SECTION B

OPINIONS AND EXPLANATION OF DECISION-MAKING

1. **How often do you have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning the school?**
a. Can you tell me how these meetings are organized?
b. Could you say something more about what issues are normally discussed during those meetings?
c. How are decision arrived at?
d. Will you say that you are always pleased/satisfied with proceedings and contributions by your staff during meetings?

2. **Tell me about the attitude of teachers towards meetings?**
a. Are you or are they always pleased with the proceedings of the meeting?
b. Tell me more with some specific examples?

3. **Tell me how you feel decisions should be made in schools within your circuit?**
a. Why do you feel so?

b. Can you tell me specific reasons why you want decisions to be made that way?
c. Can you give me more examples?

4. **In order of preference, which of the following areas of decision-making would you want teachers in your circuit to participate?**
    Staff development and issues
    Managerial issues
    Goals/vision/mission of the school
    Curriculum development/instruction
a. Can you give specific reasons why you prefer those than the others?

   4b. **Can you briefly describe how you involve teachers in decision-making in the following areas?**
       Staff development and issues
       Managerial issues
       Goals/vision/mission of the school
       Curriculum and instruction
b. What roles do they play?

   Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant

SECTION C

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

1. **What are the main barriers that make it impossible for teachers to participate in decision-making in your school?**
a. What have you done to address those barriers to teacher participation in DM

2. **Has schools within your circuit improved over the past 18 months?**
a. What do you consider as major indicators for such improvement?
b. Will you say your school has improved over the past 18 months because of Participative decision-making?

3. **What do you think should be done so that teachers can fully participate in decision-making in their school?**

4. **At the end of this interview what is your opinion about teacher participation in decision-making?**
a. Do you have any comment(s) to add to this discussion

   Summary: summarise the conversation and introduce the next section to participant
   THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX 13

<div align="center">

OBSERVATION GUIDE

</div>

Name of observer: Dampson Dandy George   **Date:**   /   /2014

Head teachers' code: {   }   **Day**: ……………..

School Pseudonym Name…………………   **Time**………………

Focus for observation Emergency ( ) Normal ( )	Tick Comments
Physical setting (Where, who & how meetings are organized)	
Relationships/interactions/ activities among Participants (who are the participants and how many, physical movements)	
Participation level of Teachers: (teachers contributions, tone and issues discussed) **Cont:**	

**Direction of conversation/
Communication**
(direction and flow of
interaction)

**Strategy used to arrived at
a decision**
(how decision was taken)

General observation on participation in decision-making

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APPENDIX 14

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DOCUMENT ANALYSIS SCHEDULE

</div>

Analysed by: Dampson Dandy George

School Pseudonym Name: …………………………
Date:…../…../2014

Type of document/items	Type Comments
Minutes of PTA/SMC and Staff general meetings **Items**	
a. **Organization of the meeting**	
b. **Participants/number**	
c. **Agenda/issues discussed**	
d. **Participation level/contributions/suggestion**	

s by participants

e. **Decision taken/how it was taken**

General summary of documents

………………………………………………………………………………………………

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Letter should be quoted

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P. O. BOX 164
CAPE COAST

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

Tel 03321-32514 33405
Fax 03321-32199
My Ref No GES/MD EP1 VOL.3 134

12th March, 2013

LETTTER OF INTRODUCTION
MR. DANDY GEORGE DAMPSON

This is introducing to you Mr. Dandy George Dampson, a PhD student of University of Northampton, School of Education   United Kingdom, and a lecturer at University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.

He is undertaking a research study as part of his Doctorial programme on the topic: "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making in Ghanaian Basic Schools" A case study of some selected basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis of which your school is one.

The research is intended for academic purpose and will require the cooperation and assistance of selected basic school heads, teachers and circuit supervisors.

The Metro Directorate has granted permission to the bearer to undertake the study in your school and wish to entreat you to grant him all the support and courtesies he deserves whiles ensuring that the exercise does not unduly interfere with contact hours.

Thank you.

(MS)
METRO DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
CAPE COAST

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4. St Nicholas Pry and JHS
5. Philip Quaque Boys Pry and JHS
6. St. Mary's Anglican Pry and JHS
7. St. Lawrence Catholic 'A' Pry and JHS
8. A.M.E Zion 'A' Pry and JHS
9. OLA Presby Pry and JHS
10. Amamoma Presby

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Mfantseman Municipal Directorate
Post Office Box 83,
SALTPOND.

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

11TH MARCH, 2013

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer. Mr. Dandy George Sampson is introduced to you as a student of the University of Northampton, School of Education, United Kingdom, who intends to undertake a research project on 'Teacher Participation in Decision – Making in Ghanaian Basic School'. A study in Cape Coast and Mfantseman Municipality.

school as sample site for the project.

ore recommend that you give him all the necessary assistance to enable um comp   th research project

Thank you.

(B.K. OFORI)
MUNICIPAL DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
MFANTSEMAN

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11 MANKESSIM METH. PRY 'A' & JHS 'A'
12. BAIFIKRON M/A 'A' PRY & JHS

APPENDIX 17

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW FOR TEACHER

TEACHER 1 (FEMALE)

CAPE COAST METRO

INTRO BY TEACHER: I am a first degree holder, currently on a Masters programme in Education Administration & Management. I have been teaching for 8 years as a teacher in this school.

VENUE: School premises.

TIME: 11:30 – 12:02

SECTION A

DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)

Q1. Briefly tell me your understanding of decision-making (DM)?
Tr: I understand DM to be a continues process whereby you take decisions that concern an organization or institution which concerns people in an organization.

Q1b. So if DM is what you've just said, then what is school DM?
Tr: School DM are those decisions that are taken in schools which concerns the school, teachers, head teachers, pupils, all stakeholders and everything about the school.

Q2. Kindly tell me how DM happens/takes place in your/this school?
Tr: It can be from the head teacher to the teachers or teachers to the head. In this school there are certain decisions that are taken by the head alone and others too with the teachers, sometimes too the head takes the decision first before bringing teachers on board.

Q2b. can you please tell me such situations where the head takes decisions alone?
Tr: We have something called the School Performance and Improvement Plan (SPIP) when she is preparing there are certain things she consider before she brings it on board. As to whether we need such things or not but decisions that concerns students welfare like discipline etc that one teachers come together to decide on.

Q3. How often do you/this school have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning the school?
Tr: Ideally it should be 2 staff meetings, but there are certain times we do have emergency meetings. This happens when an issue crops up from a regular meeting with the head or higher authority.

Q3a. How are these meetings organized?
Tr: She (head) writes a letter which is circulated for us to read and sign for which states the day, date, time, and venue for the meeting. With emergency meetings she quickly calls all the teachers present whiles standing and discuss with us.

Q3b. could you say something more about what issues are normally discussed during those meetings?

Tr: Issues that are normally discussed are academic performance of the pupils (BECE results) especially when they are about to write their exams we discuss how best we can improve their performance as we try to compare with previous results to see if there has been improvement in teaching. We also discuss discipline issues among pupils.

Q3c. Can you briefly tell me how you arrive at decisions?
Tr: Err sometimes we vote on an issue by raising our hands, sometimes too we don't even draw into conclusion and we stand up and go.

Q3d. Will you say you are always pleased/satisfied with proceedings and outcome of your meetings?
Tr: Sometimes like I said, we don't even draw into conclusion and we leave the decision hanging and then she will try to do what pleases her or takes decision that is right to her. So am not always pleased.

SECTION B

OPINIONS AND EXPECTATIONS ON DECISION-MAKING

Q1. Tell me how you feel decisions should be made in your school?
Tr: To me DM in this school should concern everyone and I believe it's a team work. When you try to bring people together because if you take your decisions alone, someone will try to stand against it but if you try to involve the person into the decision-making at least he/she knows that he/she is part of the decision and its binding him/her and try to make sure the decision taken is binding all.

Q1b. Can you tell me specific reasons why you want decisions to be made that way?
Tr: Like I said two heads are better than one so one person can't do everything, we take decisions to bring our ideas on board which to some extent bring us together.

Q2. How do you want to be involved in DM in your school?
Tr: Oh, definitely I want to first be involved in the consultation, making the decision and after the decision has been taken which all of us have to make sure that the decisions we have taken have to be implemented. You don't just take a decision and hang it somewhere.

Q2b. Can you tell me more about the roles?
Tr: We realized that the pupils were not coming to school on time so we tried to make a rule that at a specific time all pupils should be at school. So we made a rule that when a child comes to school late he/she should be punished after school.
We also realized that there was no discipline committee in the school so we tried to form one

Q2c. So, on which of the committees are you on?
Tr: I was on the examination committees but currently because of my further studies am no more on any of them because there wasn't transparency and trust among the head teacher and committee members.

Q2d. Can you mention some of the committees in this school?
Tr: We have the welfare, discipline, guidance and counseling and the examination committee.

Q3.There are 4 areas teachers want to participate. In order preference which of the following areas would you want to participate?
Tr: First, goals/vision/mission of the school 4
Second, staff development 3
Third, curriculum development (teaching & learning)2
Fourth, managerial issues. 1

Q3a. Can you give any specific reasons why you prefer goals/vision/mission than the others?
Tr: Before any institution or organization is established you should have your goals for setting up such and institution, definitely you should have a goal in mind, what you want you achieve and you might have a vision before setting up your organization.

Do you know the mission and vision of your school?
Tr: Yes, our goal is pass and pass well.

Q4. Some teachers say their school have improved during the last 18 months, what do you say about your school?
Tr: Yes, in terms of academic results my school has improved for instance this year's results were better than last years. With infrastructure we've had a new KG and some new text books and computers for our library.

Q4a. Will you say your school has improved over the last 18 months through teacher participation in DM?
Tr: Yes, because we complained and made decision about our wooden structure for the KG and we now have a new block for the KG.

Q4b. What do you think can be done so that your school can improve?
Tr: I think if we can get a computer lab and a library for the students it will go a long way to improve the academic performance of our students.

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SECTION C

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

</div>

Q1. What are the main challenges/barriers that makes it impossible for you to participate in DM in your school?
Tr*:* Let's say if someone brings out an idea/opinion during meetings and that idea is not taken he/she will next time decide not to say anything during meetings. More so, "When they (head teachers) take decisions they should make sure that the decisions are implemented; you don't take decision and leave it just like that. If a person sees that an idea brought up has been implemented, definitely next time he/she will fully get him/herself involved anytime you want him/her

Q1a. Some head teachers say some teachers are lazy and some do have meetings within meetings? What do you say?
Tr: Sometimes too you see head teachers will do something without involving anybody that makes teachers feels bad and reluctant to participate. Again the leadership style of the head also turns teachers off from participating in DM.

Q1b. In what areas/issues does the head not involve you?
Tr: They (head teacher) might see them (teachers) as lazy because if you don't involve the person how do you expect the person to help you to achieve your aims. Me for instance if you don't involve me I will not to give a helping hand when the need arise. In terms of the SPIP, there are certain things she brings on board others too not.

Q2. Will you tell me what you think should be done to get teachers to fully participate in school DM?
Tr: When they (head teacher) take decisions they should make sure that the decisions are implemented, you don't take decision and leave it just like that. If a person sees that an idea brought has been implemented definitely, next time he will fully get himself involved anytime you want him/her to.

Q2b. What do you think are the reasons why some of these decisions are not implemented?
Tr: I think first and foremost is finance because most of the decision needs money to effect its implementation.

Q2c. What do you think teachers should also do?
Tr: I think teachers need to respond on time to meetings and accept responsibilities to be on committee.

Q3b. At the end of this interview what is your opinion about teacher participation in DM?
Tr: To me I see teacher participation in school DM is whereby teachers are fully involved in the DM process in the affairs of the school. I think it's a good idea for teachers to participate because it will enable the school to achieve the goals and vision of the school.

Q3c. Some teachers say the school prefects should be involved to some extent in school DM.
Tr: Oh yes, even not the school prefects but the whole school pupils. Sometimes when we are taking any decision that concern them it will be very good to include them because they are the ones with whom its concern and they know their problems and understand them better than us.

APPENDIX 18

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW FOR HEAD TEACHER

HEAD TEACHER 1 (FEMALE)

CAPE COAST METRO

INTRO BY HEAD TEACHER: I completed teacher training in 1987. I furthered with a Diploma and Post-Diploma in Education at the University of Education, Winneba. I have been teaching for 26 years and 2 years as a head teacher in this school.

VENUE: Head teachers office.

TIME: 12:25 – 12:57

SECTION A

DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)

Q1. Briefly tell me your understanding of decision-making (DM)?
Htr: Thank you: to make decision is to say your mind or share your views on something by adding some people. In decision-making there must be something for which people share their views on especially when it concern others they will be invited to share their views to arrive at a common goal.

Q1a. So if DM is what you've just said, then what is school DM?
Htr: School DM is where you meet your teachers and other stakeholders to discuss the issues with them before you arrive at a conclusion and see to it that the decision is implemented.

Q1b. Do you always make your decision before meeting your staff?
Htr: As far as I know as a leader, I need not to go to a meeting without having a decision in mind. I always put it to them so when they bring out their suggestions and I see to things that it goes with what I want it to be done before we conclude on an issue.

Q2. Kindly tell me how DM happens/take place in your/this school?
Htr: Before we make a decision I do my investigations and invite teachers and discuss with them to come out with a solution.

Q2a. How do you arrive at a decision?
Htr: Oh sometimes it's the majority who carries the vote, however, here we don't normally vote. But normally its general consensus by responding in a positive affirmation to an issue.

Q3. Have you attended any workshop/insert on DM within the past 10 month?
Htr: No I haven't.

Q3a. Do you think It's important to have insert on DM for head teachers?
Htr: Yes, I think head teachers need insert on DM will enable them to make good decision for their school.

Q3b. Why do you think so?
Htr: You see to make decision is not an easy task so we need to have some constant insert/workshops to keep us updated. You see, it is very necessary that teachers and head teachers become aware of how decisions are made by providing insert or workshops for teachers, head teachers and all stakeholders to update them in their day-to-day administration of the school"

SECTION B

OPINIONS AND EXPECTATIONS ON DECISION-MAKING

Q1. Tell me how often do you have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning the school?
Htr: Normally meetings within the term should be 2-3 normally at the beginning and at the end of the term but sometimes we do have emergency meetings where we normally stand and do a quick and brief meeting.

Q1a. How are these meetings organized?
Htr: For normal meetings we sit in a room and have our meetings but with the emergency ones sometimes after school assembly we stand and have the meeting. Sometimes too teachers converge in my office and we briefly discuss issues.

Q1b. Could you say something more about issues that are normally discussed during these meetings?
Htr: Mostly it's about the children learning habit, lateness to school; sometimes too it's about the teacher's punctuality. Basically it's indiscipline and academic work.

Q1c. Will you say that you are always pleased/satisfied with the proceeding and outcome of meetings?
Htr: For me am 80% satisfied with proceedings from our meetings.

Q1d. What about teacher attendance?
Htr: Very positive. They all do attend whenever they are in school and if they aren't, they do ask for permission.

Q1e. Tell me about the attitude of your staff towards meeting?
Htr: Naa, me I don't have problems with their attitude, they know me and how I am. I use my time consciously to do everything so they know me well. Sometimes their attitude emanates from the leaders themselves and their style of leadership.

Q3. Tell me how you feel decisions should be made in your school?
Htr: I don't have my own way, so far as am working with people I have to involve them in everything.

Q3a. Some teachers are of the view that students should be involved in DM.
Htr: YES, but not all issues but sometimes we can call the leaders to elicit their views.

Q4. In order preference which of the following areas would you want your staff to participate?
Htr: Curriculum development first
Second, goal, vision and mission of the school
Third, staff development
Fourth, managerial issues

Q4a. why curriculum first?
Htr: It is my first because We are here as teachers first to teach the children to learn and all the rest will follow suit, so in this school I give teachers room to make their own decisions about what and how they want to teach, only if it will benefit the children.

Q4b. Can you briefly describe how you involve teachers in the areas mentioned in Q4
Htr: I do organize periodic insert to upgrade their knowledge and skills in teaching and learning while correcting their lesson notes (curriculum)

With staff development I do update and expose them to other opportunities for promotions and further studies.

With managerial they are given the opportunities to serve on committees.

Q4c. How vibrant are you committees?
Htr: They are very very strong and active.

Q4d. Do you trust them to make decisions on their own?
Htr: Yes, for that yes, sometimes they do make decisions on their own so when they meet me then we streamline them together.

Q4e. Does this school have a vision and mission statement?
Htr: Yes we do have and the teachers are very much aware of it.

SECTION C

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Q1. Some head teachers are of the view that lack of implementation of decisions, money, age, qualification, experience, long service, leadership style and religious beliefs are the challenges /barriers that make it impossible for you to participate in DM in your school?
Htr: "Yes there are so many factors such as lack of implementation but finance is the major one. Decisions made need to be put into reality. Teachers become motivated when their views become reality. This can only happen when we have money to implement such decisions. Some heads are not open in terms of finance and this raise suspicion among staff member. Here sometimes I have to use my own money to support the implementation of decisions becomes the capitation grant always delays Yes all these factors are challenges. Some heads are not open in terms of finance but here am always open and even sometimes use my own money to support them. **:** I also do believe that age, experience, religion and qualification do serve as a barrier to teacher PDM but in my school there isn't anything of that sort here because every staff member is seen as a colleague not a subordinate.

Q1a. So what about victimization and transfer?
Htr: There is trust among my staff, I even defend my teachers but when it's comes that I have to discipline, I do it without reporting any of them.

Q1b. Some heads say that lack of implementation of decision is the major barrier to TPDM.
 Htr: Sometimes in some schools yes, you know some of the head teachers find it giving money to implement decision made but here even if there is not money I even give my own money out.
Q2. Some head teachers say their schools has improved over the last 18 months, what do you say about your school your school has improved over the last 18 months because of TPDM?
Htr: Mostly school improvement has to do with children learning habit, lateness to school and sometimes about teacher punctuality. Basically school improvement is measured by academic excellence and state of discipline in your school. Yes, in my school discipline has improved and academic is okay. With infrastructure and logistics, I have been doing some repairs and renovations, so I will say its okay.

Q3. Will you tell me what you think should be done to get teacher to fully participate in school DM?
Htr: Yes but all these things I have mentioned weren't done by me alone. For this all the teachers help and that's why we have improved.

Q3. Will you tell me what you think should be done to get teacher to fully participate in school DM?
Htr: Teachers need to be motivated by the school and the parents or the community. Motivation such as parental or community regular visit and praises from the head and community will go a long way to improve TPDM.

Q4. At the end of this interview what is your opinion of about TPDM.
Htr: It is very necessary that teachers and head teachers become aware of how decision are made by providing insert/workshop for teacher, head teachers and all stakeholders to update them in their day-to-day administration of the school.

Q4b. What do you want to add to this discussion?
Htr: We as head teachers have to enable the teachers to take part in everything that goes on in the school and we must also be open to them as well whiles trusting them.

APPENDIX 19

TRANSCRIPT INTERVIEW FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISOR

CIRCUIT SUPERVISOR 3 (FEMALE)
MFANTSEMAN MUNICIPAL

INTRO BY CIRCUIT SUPERVISOR: I hold a 3 year Cert 'A' and on a master programme in school supervision. I have been a C/S since 2007 to date.
VENUE: head teacher's office.
Time: 10:30-12:07

SECTION A
DECISION-MAKING (Descriptive)

Q1. Briefly tell me your understanding of decision-making (DM)?
Cs: DM is about seeking new and ideas from teachers and other stakeholders on how best to run the school activities and programs.

Q1a. So can you kindly tell me what school DM is?
Cs: In school DM we have various ways in which teachers are allowed to bring out their views and to contribute to the running of the school. Example: PTA meetings, during these meetings all stakeholders that are concerned come out with views on issues that is on board. We also have the staff meetings and during these meetings teachers are allowed to share ideas especially when there is a peculiar challenge they will bring their contribution and then we look at the best options that will solve the problem.

Q2. Kindly tell me how DM happens/takes place in schools within your circuit??
Cs: We have school based decisions that are taken. Sometimes we come together and makes decisions that's where we meet all heads.

Q2a. Can you please limit it to a particular school?
Cs: Assuming I come to a school and I find out there is something going on, whether negative or positive, first the interaction will be with the head concern, we bring the issue and we discuss and if there is the need to bring in the teacher concerned or few teachers on board we do that, if there is also the need to meet the entire staff we do that.

Q2b. So if it involves all the teachers how do you arrive at a decision?
Cs: Okay, if its involves all the teachers we meet the head we discuss and we try to come to a compromise by taking our own decision before meeting the entire staff and put the issue to them then allow everybody to bring out his/her views.

Q2c. Does it mean that before you meet teachers you've already made a decision?
Cs: Yes we might have had our own decision but that decision is flexible for amendment. If suggestions from teachers links with ours then we can stand on it and use it, f not we try to come to a compromise. Sometimes if the need arise we vote, sometimes too the majority will heed to it by actions, other times too the situation might be that the teachers might not have any solution and would prefer mine/ours.

Q3. Have you attended any workshop/insert on DM within the past 10 month?
Cs: No I don't really remember, but there hasn't been anything on DM.

Q3a. Would you like to attend on DM?
Cs: YES, because its good if everybody knows how decisions should be made or implemented is better. I think if we are given anything on that it will be very helpful.

<div align="center">

SECTION B
OPINIONS AND EXPECTATIONS ON DECISION-MAKING

</div>

Q1. How often do you have meetings in a term to discuss issues concerning schools within your circuit?
Cs: At the beginning of every term we normally organize meetings at least by the first 3 weeks of reopening we need to have meetings. So during that meeting I brief them on the planned activities for the term. Then we are supposed to have at least 2 PTA meetings in a term, beginning and end of the term. Individual schools set their times for their meetings and they invite me.

Q1a. Can you tell me how these meetings organized?
Cs: Yes, meeting with the heads I normally send text messages to their phones and getting to the day or early in the morning I call them on their phones to remind them of the meeting.

Q1b. What about the staff meetings?
Cs: Normally when I visit a school and after my observations I meet the head teacher and brief him/her where things went wrong or well, or sometimes too the school will call you that they need you at their meeting.

Q1c. Could you say something more about issues that are normally discussed during these meetings?
Cs: With the schools we talk about teaching and learning and how it can be improved. Activities that will improve teaching and learning. With some schools we concentrate on their peculiar problem such as reading etc; issues concerning parent teacher relationship, discipline and welfare issues.

Q1d. Will you say that you are always pleased/satisfied with the proceeding and contribution by staff members during meetings?
Cs: Most at times yes but there are situations where teachers won't compromise so they make things difficult. At times we have to be firm so that normal or proper way of doing things can be done

Q2. Is it true that some teacher's attitude towards meetings are appalling?
Cs: It's true that some teacher's attitude to meeting is very appalling. With GES the moment you try to be vocal or come out with your views it's like they try to victimize you, especially when the directorate meet the teachers they don't talk because of fear of victimization and transfer and at the end of the meeting some decisions have to be imposed on them. We need leaders who are competent and bold to lead if our schools are to improve

Q2a. Some teachers say they don't talk at meetings because their views are not considered?
Cs: Most a times teachers are quite at meetings, however I think it depends on the nature and relationship, if there is conducive and free atmosphere and the person who is leading the meeting has open him/her self up teachers will always contribute, but if you come as a boss teachers will just sit and look at you.

Q2b. Some head teachers share the opinion that some teachers come to meeting late and do have meetings within meetings. What do you say?
Cs: Yes its true it's all boils down to the conducive atmosphere because when the atmosphere is not conducive for them to come out then they will be discussing and challenging your views among themselves without coming out with it.

Q2c. Some teachers are of the opinion some head teachers do discuss issues and take decisions with their friends before being discussed among the staff and that ages, and long service does play a role? What do you say?
Cs: Yes its true, I can give you some examples of schools within the circuit. Examples are those who have been in a particular school for a long time. However in school DM age, experience and academic qualification play a role because when you consider age and experience the person is more exposed to the realities of day to day school issues.

Q2d. What about religious beliefs of the leader and members?
Cs: Yes yes, it does especially with the mission schools they have their own doctrines and most of the heads are appointed are from that religious body so they sometimes try to go according to their doctrines.

Q3. Can you please tell me how you feel decisions should be made within schools in your circuit?
Cs: I think everybody should be given the opportunity to come out with his views, opinions and expectations on an issue because 'two head are better than one' because looking at the school situation experience alone can solve problems, other factors that are embedded in other staff members need to come into play for a successful solution.

Q4. In order preference which of the following areas would you want teachers in your circuit to participate?
Cs: Staff development first
Followed by Goals, vision and mission of the school
Curriculum development next and
Managerial issues

Q4a. Why staff development first?
Cs: Yes, teachers are the staffs so I think developing their capabilities will enable them acquire knowledge for the achievement of the vision and also for the implementation of the curriculum.
With **staff development** I do organize workshops and counsel them on their opportunities available for them to upgrade themselves.
With **managerial**, I think that one boils much on the head since he/she is directly working with them.
With **goals and mission** of the school, with the help of PAGE Partnership for Accountable Governance in Education. They are helping us to implement some of the school policies. They come out with funds to run some of these workshops. Just last week we organize an insert for schools on how to write a mission and vision statement for the school. Although few schools have their mission and vision statement but their activities are not linked to it.
Curriculum; teachers are the implementers and they are on the field facing the challenges as I allow them err their views.

SECTION C
PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Q1. Some teacher, heads and C/S are of the view that lack of implementation of decisions, finance and leadership are some of the challenges /barriers that make it impossible for you to participate in DM in your schools within your circuit. What do you say?

Cs: *Yes* , lack of implementation of decision, finance and leadership style is some of the major challenges. However, some teachers don't participate because their views are not taken and those taken are not implemented, this makes them feel rejected and keep silence and not involve at all. So they have the feeling that even if I contribute my view it won't be taken or implemented.

Q1a. Are there any challenges you will want to add.

Cs: Yes, I will even go for victimization because if you are bold and you come out with a good idea they say you are 'too known' 'are you the only person who have gone to school' this makes them keep quiet at meetings.

Q1b. Have you done anything to address such issues?

Cs: Yes most at times I always make them to know that meetings are an open forum so I try to solve situation on the ground on one to one before issues are discussed among all staff members.

Q2. Some C/S say schools within their circuit has improved over the last 18 months, what do you say about schools in your circuit?

Cs: Okay, I think so because every time we try to improve what had been done previously.

Q2a. Why do you say so?

Cs: The BECE results, the end of term exams, school climate, logistics have all seen some improvement except infrastructure which am not satisfied.

Q2b. are you saying that your school has improved over the last 18 months because of TPDM?

Cs: I will say yes because with the help of NGO's school have been made aware some of the things they need to do to contribute for effectiveness and efficiency in addition, some of the schools have improved, others too haven't. Some have improved because teachers were involved in decision-making and because they feel that they are involved in whatever goes on in the school so they give out their best, however, In terms of academic performance I will say its okay but with discipline we still have a long way to go.

Q3. What do you think should be done to get teacher to fully participate in school DM?

Cs: I think we should create cordial relationships among teachers and staff and also making teachers aware their importance and role in DM. I also think head teachers should be fair, firm and accountable to teachers. In addition First teachers need to be motivated and encouraged not necessarily financial. This can be done at their normal speech and prize giving-day. It's also good to refresh them during and after meetings only if the funds are available.

Q4. At the end of this interview what is your opinion of about TPDM.

Cs: I think more and more teachers views need to be considered in DM because their views might be the best to solve issues since they are the people on the ground as well as the implementers of the decision made. I also think decisions shouldn't be imposed from above because situations differ from school to school.

**Q4a. Some circuit supervisors are of the opinion that students should be involved in SDM?
What do you say about that?**
Cs: Yes I would agree with that in most cases children have their own way they perceive and understand issues so involving them will let them come out with their views.

Q4b. Is there anything you want to add to this discussion?
Cs: Sure; you see we have nice dressed educational policies but the problem is with it implementation. Example is with the program we are having with PAGE its helping us to be enlightened on issues in DM. So I think if there are more of those NGO's around they can look at where some of those policies are not working so that they can help.

APPENDIX 20

SUMMARY OF OBSERVATION FOR SITE 1

OBSERVATION GUIDE 2

Name of observer: Dampson Dandy George
Head teachers' code: {A}
School Pseudonym Name…A1
Date: 3rd /02/2014
Day: Monday…..
 Time…10:00…… **End**: …11:15 ……

Focus for observation: Emergency (   ) Normal (√)

Physical setting (Where, who & how meetings are organized)
- Meeting was held at staff room an average space for teachers.
- Tables and chairs well arranged with teachers well seated.
- Ventilation was quiet okay as the room had 2 double windows (1.82m by 1.2m) however some teachers kept fanning themselves.
- There was written circular to inform teachers about the meeting in advance by the head.
- Some of the tables had books all over them as teachers sat in the meeting with some of the teachers flipping through and marking exercise.
- The meeting began with a prayer after which the head read the agenda to staff.
- Head teacher sat at the corner facing the staff with the secretary sitting close by.

- The agenda of the meeting was read to teachers by the head.

- Pupils were found moving about whiles others were playing and making noise.
- Teachers seem to set at their normal setting at their normal places in the staff room
- Teachers were well dressed.

Relationships/interactions/activities among Participants
(Who are the participants and how many, physical movements)
- All the participants were teachers.
- 17 trs were present including the head. There were 11females and 6 males present.
- Few teachers seem to be busy on their phones whiles the meeting progress.
- Pupils keep coming in as they were being called by some of the teachers as I think they were thirsty.
- Others about 3 were also busy writing their notes or preparing for notes for classes.
- 2 teachers, 1 male and 1 female arrived late.

- A teacher had the head down on the table seem to be sleeping or sick for greater part of the meeting.
- There was a form of clique among teachers as they seem to related with those in their clique.

Participation level of Teachers: (teachers contributions, tone and issues discussed)
- Issues discussed were discipline, lesson note preparation, academic work, school development and sports.
- Other issues were on in service training for teacher, and social welfare of teachers and pupils.
- Teachers listening as head teacher briefs and at a point in time invited questions and suggestions from teachers.
- Committee leaders of discipline and examination were also asked to brief the staff on issues.
- About 4 teachers, 3 males and a female teacher ask and gave suggestions on school discipline and academic work.
- Staff listened attentively and came in when they were invited by the head.
- Discussions made among teachers and head were more of explanations on issues than decision-making.
- At the later part of the meeting 2 teachers raised issues for which head took time to explain to staff.

Direction of conversation/communication (direction and flow of interaction)
- During the majority of the meeting direction of conversation was always from the head to the staff except were on one occasion decision had to be made that staff came in.
- Teachers ask lot of questions and suggestions which were explained by the head, though some teachers seem to disagree with some of the answers given by the head.
- Though there were many suggestions from teachers, most of them were not decided on as head told them he needs further clarifications from above authorities.
- At the later part of the meeting direction of flow of interaction was from teacher to head, head to trs and occasionally among teachers.

Strategy used to arrive at a decision (how decision was taken)

- 2 decisions were made on school discipline and academics where teachers agreed based on consensus by raising their hands. Still head teacher added some few suggestions to the decision made.
- Teachers were then asked to form special committees to support the existing ones to see to and monitor the implementation of the decision taken.

- A suggestion made by a teacher to fine parent who don't attend PTA meeting was withheld by the head on the grounds of legal implications.

General observation on participation in decision-making

- The school is situated in a very reputable College school with vast stretch of compound
- Student population is approximately 320 students, 21 teachers, one head teacher and one assistant head teacher as at the time of the observation.
- The meeting was well attended with a well articulated briefing from the head.
- The meeting followed the agenda listed by the head teacher.
- The meeting followed the normal routine as previously observed
- Teachers were free to talk though some were doing their own things as the meeting progress.
- I observed that the young teachers were those who were contributing and giving most of the suggestion.
- Majority of the teachers were between 30-45 years of age with few, about 4 of them above 50's.
- Noise from the pupils playing around disrupted the meetings several times.
- Pupils were called by teachers to buy chilled water for them as the room temperatures increased some were getting thirsty.
- Phones calls by some teachers were also observed.
- Overall relationship between staff and head was cordial and friendliness.

APPENDIX 21

SUMMARY OF OBSERVATION FOR SITE 2

OBSERVATION GUIDE 1

Name of observer: Dampson Dandy George
Head teachers' code: {A1}
School Pseudonym Name…A2
Date: 7th /01/2014
Day: Tuesday…..
 Time…10:25……   **End**: …11:10 ……

Focus for observation: Emergency (   ) Normal (√)

Physical setting (Where, who & how meetings are organized)
- The meeting was held in the office of the head teacher where chairs were moved in by pupils.
- Teachers were called by the head teacher verbally to attend the meeting.
- Head teacher sat on his desk in his office with teacher sitting in a semi-circular form.
- Because the room was small (3.96m by 3.05m) 2 teachers were sitting outside the room.
- Meeting was held in a small room with teachers without much ventilation, the size of 1.58m by 1.15m.
- The room had posters of teacher's names and duty router of staff members displayed on the wall.
- Teachers were well dressed

Relationships/interactions/activities among Participants
(Who are the participants and how many, physical movements)
- 9 teachers out of 13 staff members were present as the meeting began.
- 5 female and 5 male teachers were present at the beginning of the meeting which was later joined by a male teacher at 10:45.
- There was a brief interruption by a visitor to see the head for which some teachers didn't like.
- The secretary was called to take the minutes of the meeting.
- Head sat in front with the secretary sitting close by.
- Majority of the teachers were in a relax mode with some attentive and others looking on.
- 2 different phones rang but only one teacher went out to receive a call.
- There wasn't much physical movement among teachers except when it was time for teachers to talk when 2 females and a male teacher gave their comments

Participation level of Teachers: (teachers contributions, tone and issues discussed)

- Issues discussed were teacher's responsibilities in school, lesson note preparation, teacher punctuality, pupils exercise, mock exams for JHS, extra classes, classroom cleanness and the capitation grant.
- Teachers were quite as head read to them all the issues of the day.
- Only 2 females and 1 male were those who raised issues concerning extra classes and provision of marker boards.
- Teachers tone were that of pleading mode on that of the extra classes as the head maintain his stand on the decision made previously about it.
- I observed that some teachers were murmuring and expression show that they were not happy facial gesture when the head maintain his decision.
- Head suspended the topic and promised to discuss it latter.

Direction of conversation/communication (direction and flow of interaction)

- For most part of the meeting the direction of flow of communication was from the head who had a written down agenda in a small note book.
- It began with the head welcoming staff back to school after a prayer was said.
- Teachers join the discussion only when the head had finished and had asked them to.
- I observed that only 3 teachers were the main contributors of the meeting. With one female teacher dominating the discussions and asking the head questions.
- It was only when the issue of marker board was raised that almost all teachers came in to stress the need of it

Strategy used to arrive at a decision (how decision was taken)

- When teachers raised the issue of the extra classes the response from the head was they should keep still maintains what he had earlier and will discuss on latter date.
- On the issue of the marker board he agreed saying he will work on it.
- What I observed was that because actually there wasn't much issue raised by teachers to discuss as most of the sat either unconcerned, whiles others were waiting to go and write their lesson notes.

General observation on participation in decision-making

- The school had a population of 452 students, 14 teachers, one head teacher and ne assistant head teacher.
- The school is located along the Accra-Mankessim-Cape Coast road
- Pupils were left untended to during the meeting and there were lot of noises which tend to disrupt the meeting.

- Most teachers were quite listening whiles others sat lazily in their chair looking on.
- The general mode of teachers wasn't cheerful as it reflects on their faces and they way some say lazily on their chair.
- I observed that majority of the staff will be in their late 40s and early 50s
- After the long brief by head teacher, he then invited teachers to come in.
- Teachers were more concerned about the extra classes and the marker board than the issues raised in the agenda of the head teacher.
- However, no concrete conclusion was arrived on the two issues raised by teachers as it was kept on hold by the head, the head teachers said the extra classes will remain as previously done.
- Most of the contributions came from one particular female teacher.
- Form my personal observation the meeting though it was supposed to be one of the normal meetings as it's the opening day seem to more of an unplanned or emergency meeting.
- Overall atmosphere was quiet static, one way conversation without much contribution from teachers.

APPENDIX 22

SUMMARY OF DOCUMENT ANALYSIS FOR SITE 1

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS SCHEDULE 2

Analysed by: Dampson Dandy George

School Pseudonym Name: …A1   **Date:** 04/03/2014

Type of document/items:
- Staff minutes book

Type:
- Staff minutes book

Dates:

- 13/10/11
- 11/07/12
- 09/01/14
- 20/07/11
- 29/11/13

Items:
- **Organization of the   meeting**

- Circulars were sent around for teachers to read and sign, sometimes pasted on the school notice board
- Head inform secretary to write circulars.
- At times oral notifications are given to teachers.
- Except emergency meetings.
- Meeting place was always at the staff room.

- **Participants/number Present**

- 13/10/11- number of teachers present were not recorded
- 11/07/12- number of teachers present were not recorded
- 09/01/14- 18 out of 21 present
- 20/07/11- 20 out of 21 present
- 29/11/13- 21 out of 21 present

- **Agenda/issues discussed**

- 13/06/13- discipline, sanitation, teacher-teacher relationship and school fund.
- 11/07/12- report cards, lesson notes, capitation grants and school welfare.
- 09/01/14- extra classes, teacher's responsibilities at school, code of ethics, preparation of lesson notes, discipline issues, sports, teacher's supervision and academic work.
- 20/07/11- examination financing, carols services, payment of PTA dues, project inspection and discipline
- 29/11/13- extra classes, teacher responsibilities, code of ethics, lesson notes preparation, student discipline, sports.
- **Participation level/contributions/suggestions by participants**

- From the minutes it indicates that teacher participation was high as there were about 8 contributions were made by teachers at staff meeting.
- The document showed participative staff meeting with head allowing teachers to contribute and give suggestions.

- **Decision taken/how it was taken**

- Teachers voted on extra class fees with majority by raising their hands.
- There was also a decision made on the capitation grant that was suggested by a teacher and agreed by consensus.
- On discipline both head and teachers came to agree on the formation of a committee to take care of disciplinary issues.
- Other suggestions were postponed by head to the next meeting.

General summary of documents

- The minutes book for the general staff meeting was written on pieces of paper only to be told it will be written back but it wasn't.
- The papers looked quite old and scattered meaning that they were not properly kept.
- Though many suggestion were made by teachers and taken on board by head teachers there wasn't many decisions taken at a meeting. It seems that those decisions taken lack implementation.
- Most issues like punctuality, capitation, discipline and academic work keeps appearing in the entire staff meeting. This indicates that decisions are not taken or implemented.
- Though written on pieces of papers the minutes were a bit more comprehensive.
- There weren't any records for emergency meeting in the minute book**.**

APPENDIX 23

SUMMARY OF DOCUMENT ANALYSIS FOR STIE 2

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS SCHEDULE 2

Analysed by: Dampson Dandy George

School Pseudonym Name: …A2   **Date:** 07/03/2014

Type of document/items:
- Staff minutes book

Type:
- Staff minutes book

Dates:
- 19/05/08
- 14/04/09
- 11/02/10
- 05/09/11
- 26/11/13

Items:
- **Organization of the   meeting**

- Circulars are sent around for teachers to read and sign
- Head inform secretary to write circulars.
- At times oral notifications are given to teachers.
- Except emergency meetings.
- Meeting place is always the heads office.

- **Participants/number Present**

- 26/11/13- 12 out of 13 present
- 14/04/09- 11 out of 13 present
- 19/05/08- 11 out of 13 present
- 11/02/10- 10 0ut of 13 present
- 05/09/11- number of teachers present were not recorded.
- Overall teacher attendance to staff meeting was 70-75 percent

- **Agenda/issues discussed**

- 20/03/08- discipline, teenage pregnancy, school improvement.

- 07/04/10- report cards, lesson notes, capitation grants and school welfare.
- 17/12/09- completion of report cards, register, extra classes, and general school issues.
- 05/09/11- capitation grant, punctuality, academic performance.
- 16/04/11- mock exams, attendance and punctuality of pupils and purchasing of computers.
- 26/11/13- school project, mode of dressing, punctuality, preparation of lesson notes.
- 23/02/14- Payment of PTA dues, student absenteeism, academic performance, office renovations

- **Participation level/contributions/suggestions by participants**

- From the minutes it indicates that teacher participation were minimal as only few teachers' contributions were recorded in the minutes book
- It always showed head telling teachers and occasionally teachers asking for clarity or suggestions.

- **Decision taken/how it was taken**

- The majority of the decisions were made by the head teacher.
- Few decisions made were in the form of consensus and sometimes they came in the form of suggestions from few teachers were recorded**.**
- Mainly decisions consensually taken were those that concerned teaching and learning while those concerning finance, policies and other administrative issues were mostly taken by the head.
- In other instances meetings ended without any decision taken.

General summary of documents

- There was proper keeping of staff minutes though it lacked the correct procedure for recording minutes.
- The minutes book for the general staff meeting was recorded in the same minutes book for the PTA.
- The book look quite old which shows that it has been used for minutes as far back as 2006
- Not many decisions are taken at staff meeting; it looks like that of a telling by the head and few suggestions by some teachers occasionally. In most case number of teachers and parents present were not indicated.
- Most issues like punctuality, capitation, discipline and academic work keeps appearing in the entire staff meeting. This indicates that decisions are not taken or implemented.
- Though not much comprehensive minutes were taken, there was a well kept staff minutes book.
- There wasn't any records of emergency meeting in the minute book**.**

APPENDIX 24   **SPECIMEN OF REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW**

Y OF
MPTON

School of Education

REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW

I am a PhD .... the University of Northampton, UK and am doing a dissertation with the school of .... I am requesting your assistance in a study on 'teacher participation in decision r .... your Municipality district. As a teacher/head teacher/circuit supervisor in this Munic .... ct your views are very important in this study and I will be very grateful if you could ____ me an interview on this important topic.

The interview will last between 20-25 minutes. Topics to be discussed will range from your understanding of decision-making, opinions and expectation about teacher participation in decision-making and school improvement.

The study is purely an academic exercise and it is therefore guaranteed that the responses provided will be confidentially and anonymously used and cannot be traced to persons who provided them. Names of participants and schools will not be disclosed or used in the analysis of data.

I will be glad if you will grant me an appointment. Please find attached a copy of consent forms and interview guide summary for your perusal

Thank you for your assistance.

Dandy George Dampson

Phone: 0246913593

E-mail: dgdampson@gmail.com

dandy.dampson@northampton.ac.uk

Appointment for interview

Teacher: Gabriel Amoah-Bafi .... Contact Tel number: 02085 4015

Preferred date for interview: 19/11/13 .. Time: 9⁰⁰ AM. Venue: Office.

School of Education

FORM

I have read and understood the invitation letter and the researcher has answered any questions I wanted to ask about the project.

a. I have read and understood the project aims and objectives.

b. I appreciate that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.

c. Within the confines of the law, the researcher will not give any personal information about me to anyone else.

d. I understand that the researcher will ensure that my answers remain anonymous wh means that the report will not reveal my identity.

e. I understand that reports and publications may be written about this research, and that nothing identifying me will ever be made public unless I have agreed and in which case will be given a pseudonym.

f. I give permission for my views to be captured and be used in publications from the study and understand that they will not be used for any other purpose.

I have read all the above points; I understand them and would like to take part in the research.

APPENDIX 26

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms were used in the thesis.

- **Decision-making (DM):** A process by which organisational problems are addressed, solved and implemented. It involves choosing between alternatives to arrive at an outcome.

- **Participative/participation decision-making (PDM)**: It is the inclusion of the employees in the decision-making process of the organization. It involves the sharing of decision by authority among stakeholders in a given context within the organisation. Participation is not only by taking part in the decision-making process but where their ideas and suggestions are being valued and considered.

- **Head teacher**: The head teacher is the head of the teaching staff of a school. However, other titles such as headmaster, head mistress, educational leader, or decision maker are synonyms for head teacher and shall be used in this study. Reference to any one of these terms does not imply that the head of the school alone is responsible for decision-making.

- **Circuit Supervisor**: An officer assigned to inspect and supervise teaching, learning and other school related activities in an educational circuit.

- **Basic schools**: A basic 9 years of education covering 6 years of primary and 3 years of junior high school (JHS)

- **Participation:** The process where staff members are allowed to take part in any of the processes of formulation, passage and implementation of decision and school policies.

- **Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)**: Basic Education in Ghana is free and compulsory to every school-going Ghanaian child.