

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA

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This research article investigates personality characteristics and principal leadership effectiveness in Ekiti State, Nigeria. A descriptive survey research design was used to carry out this study. The population of the study consisted of all the principals and teachers of public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The investigators utilized two sets of research instruments designated Principals' Demographic Inventory (PDI) and Principals' Leadership Effectiveness Inventory (PLEI) for school principals and teachers respectively. Data analyses indicated a significant difference between principals' years of experience and their leadership effectiveness. A significant difference was found between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness and no significant difference existed between the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals. Based on the findings, it was concluded that Ekiti State Teaching Service Commission could place high emphasis on the use of experience in the appointment of principals, while gender factor could be de-emphasized, as no significant difference existed between male and female principals.

With the increase in the number and size of many secondary schools in Ekiti State in Nigeria, employment of more teachers, changes in school structure, and enlarged curriculum, the problems of effective leadership by school principals could obviously become more complex. Rapid expansion through the creation of junior and senior secondary schools means that more teachers may be recruited as principals. Some of these principals may have less experience, as experienced principals are no longer available for some schools. In Nigeria, it is pertinent to note that some schools experience more conflicts than others, and this is attributed among other things

to the principals' level of leadership effectiveness; discipline in school is the offspring of effective leadership, while indiscipline is caused by absence of commitment on the part of some principals (Adesina, 1990). Today, maintaining discipline in Nigerian secondary schools is putting the maturity of principals to the severest task. School rules are broken with impunity, and it has become the fashion of the day for pupils to take the laws into their own hands.

As the major agents in the promotion of school effectiveness, principals are the pillars of the educational system especially at the second tier of educational pyramid. Today, the position of the principal is far more sophisticated and the job is far more complex than in previous decades. This complexity can best be seen in the incredible number of functions that principals are expected to perform daily and often simultaneously. The maintenance of quality and standards in education depend largely on the extent to which they effectively carry out their leadership responsibilities.

Itsueli (1995) opined that the school leader is required to perform three vital functions: namely, to discern and influence the development of goals and policies; to establish and coordinate educational organizations concerned with planning and implementing appropriate programs; and to procure and manage the resources necessary to support the educational system and its planned programs. This list does not include the variety of stresses and conflicts accompanying social interaction in the schools, nor does it include the social and psychological conflicts resulting from ethnic and personality differences in the school setting. These limiting factors and constraints tend to make the administration of secondary schools less than favorable because they place considerable limits on the degree of leadership effectiveness of school principals.

Recently, the phenomenon of leadership has been the subject of considerable attention and extensive study by theorists and researchers in a number of disciplines. Humphreys, Jiao and Sadler (2008) noted that there has been substantial interest in the influence of personality within the leadership dyad and numerous outcomes associated with leaders (Bono & Judge 2004). Some leadership emergence or behaviors that appear effective within one situational context may be seen as ineffective in another (Avery, 2004). Drucker (1973) noted that effectiveness is the foundation of success; efficiency is a minimum condition for survival after success has been achieved. Efficiency is concerned with doing things right, while effectiveness is doing the right thing.

Effectiveness in this regard will very much depend on the principal's knowledge, expertise, capability, and ability to improvise solutions to problems. Humphreys, Jiao and Sadler (2008) noted that those fascinated by the leader-follower connection have long explored the various factors that influence such a multifaceted relationship. Leaders and followers are part of a single interconnected system.

Ajibade (2005) maintained that administrators of education, managing as they do an enterprise which is critically related to the well-being of our society, cannot continue to rely solely on the benefits of experience and practice that are not founded on sound theoretical guidelines.

Trait Theory

The early trait theories examined leadership by answering the question: "In terms of individual characteristics differences, who are the most effective leaders? Or Are there a set of finite individual characteristics or traits that can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders?" Following the early trait theories, researchers concentrated their attention from the

individual characteristics of the leader to a concern for the style of leadership exhibited by the leader. The major question asked was “is one leadership style more effective than another leadership style?” In other words, attention shifted from a concern of “who the leader is” to “what the leader does” (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 2002). Researchers began an endless search to identify biographical, personality, emotional, physical, intellectual, cultural, and other personal characteristics of successful leaders (Bird, 1960; Hollander, 1978; Ibukun & Oyewole, 1997; Peterson, 2004; Triandis, 2006). Hollander (1978) noted that in an earlier time, it was thought to be enough to describe personality traits of leaders in explaining leadership. Qualities such as courage, wisdom, and character are examples of those traits, said to make an individual leader. Today, one might still admire someone with these traits, but would not assume they ensured effectiveness for a particular set of leader functions (DuBrin & Dalglish, 2003).

There appears to be two kinds of traits research. One identifies traits that might distinguish leaders from followers, while the other distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders. However, the problem of assessing leader effectiveness in different situations is more complicated than identifying who is the leader. Ibukun and Oyewole (1997) observed that there are traits essential to leadership. First, intelligence relative to others in the group is a factor. Most leaders in Ibukun and Oyewole’s study tended to be somewhat more intelligent than non-leaders; hence, leaders tended to be more knowledgeable. Other studies have shown that leaders tend to be more intelligent than their followers, although they might not be comparatively very intelligent if they are considered with some members of other groups. (Thomas & Inkson, 2004; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Hence, ability of leaders is relative to the specific social unit or organization. Second, self-confidence—or at least the ability to look self-confident—appeared to be necessary for leadership in the Ibukun and Oyewole study. However, a person who is self-confident in one situation may be anything but assured in an entirely different case. One other important trait is initiative. It is believed that the person who does not initiate action or ideas cannot be called a leader. Organization of today requires visionary leadership. But again, the man who exhibits initiative under one set of circumstances may not display it under others.

Significantly, these three qualities, although under different names, appeared on the majority of the lists Bird (1960) examined. This occurred despite the fact that some of the studies were conducted among students, many of whom apparently confused popularity with leadership. Although a person who is popular with potential followers may find it easier to assume leadership, not all those who are well-liked are leaders; also, sometimes leaders are respected but are not regarded with any particular warmth (Yukl, 2002).

Behavioral Theories

During the 1950s, dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership, namely what the leader does and how he/she does it, sparked a series of research studies. The foundation for the style of leadership approach was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieve certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale. Unlike trait theories, the behavioral approach focused on leader effectiveness, not the emergence of an individual as a leader. Although many terms were assigned to the different leadership styles, two factors were stressed in each approach: task orientation and employee orientation. Ivancevich (1977) described that task orientation is the emphasis on which the leader places getting the job done by such actions as assigning and organizing the work, making decisions, and evaluating

performance; employee orientation is the openness and friendliness exhibited by the leader and his or her concern for the needs of subordinates.

Two major research efforts were directed towards investigating the behavioral approach to leadership: the Ohio State studies and University of Michigan studies. Brown (1965) said that the overall objective of Ohio State studies was to examine the patterns of behavior of persons designated to be leaders, i.e., those who satisfy common group needs. Through these studies, two independent leadership dimensions were identified: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure is analogous to a task oriented leadership style, while consideration refers to an emphasis on an employee oriented leadership style (Brown).

At approximately the same time research was being conducted at The Ohio State University, a series of leadership studies were in progress at the University of Michigan. Likert (1967) said the primary purpose of the studies was to identify styles of leader behavior that result in increased work-group performance and satisfaction. Two distinct styles of leadership were developed from their studies: job-centered leadership and employee-centered leadership. The main conclusion reached by the University of Michigan studies was that effectiveness of leadership style should not be evaluated solely by productivity measures, but should include other employee centered or related measures, such as satisfaction (Likert).

Situational Theories

In the 1960s, researchers recognized the limitations of the behavioral theories and began to refine and develop new approaches to the study of leadership. This focused on the more complex situational theories of leadership. Blake and Mouton (1964) defined the relationship of three attributes of managers: concern for production, concern for people, and hierarchy positional attributes. The variables concern for production and concern for people bear similarity to the initiating structure and consideration aspects of the Ohio State studies. The third variable, hierarchy, places the former notions in context; the manner in which the concerns for production and people are linked together by a leader was described as hierarchy. The authors maintained that only the 9.9 style represents a successful integration of organizational and human values in all situations.

Jiboyewa (1991) stated that no leadership can afford to neglect the group characteristics or the organizational conditions under which that leadership is to be exercised. The leader who adjusts his own individuality to fit the conditions of organization is said to be of the situational or contingency school of leadership effectiveness.

The contingency theory, popularized by Fiedler (1967), describes that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the interaction of certain leader attributes with specific demands of the environment. The contribution of Fiedler's work to the contingency theory lies in his recognition that situations in which leaders find themselves vary a great deal, and that different types of leaders would experience greater success in certain types of situations than others.

This study has focused only on traits purposely to examine individual characteristics or traits that can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. The contingency theory of leadership Fiedler pioneered has evolved from a variety of trait approaches that dominated the earlier theories of leadership. The study examined the personality traits of leadership such as age, sex, and experience to determine the effectiveness of principals in Nigerian secondary schools, while the leadership style or behaviors exhibited by the leaders are not deeply in focus but inherent in the functions of the school leaders in their day to day activities.

Ibukun and Oyewole (1997) observed that studies such as those of Ghiselli (1983) and Davies (1992) have indicated a significant correlation between certain traits and leadership effectiveness. Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006), however, maintained it cannot be concluded that a finite set of traits can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. Although such aspects as personality appear to be significant factors, these are only a few of the many factors that can contribute to leadership effectiveness or the influenced process (Ticehurst & Veal, 2000). A particular leadership pattern may therefore work effectively for one group of workers, but may be totally ineffective for another group of workers. Interaction among the many factors of a situation must be examined before any predictions about leadership effectiveness can be made (Wang & Clegg, 2002).

Principals' Leadership Effectiveness

Blanchard (1997), in an attempt to validate Fiedler's contingency theory, carried out a study of leadership effectiveness of elementary school principals, their immediate supervisors, and twenty percent of their teaching staff. He tested his hypotheses according to Fiedler's methodology, which included assessing the leaders' situational control and subsequently correlating the leaders' leadership style with the measure of effectiveness. Blanchard found that the higher the situational control, the more effective a principal. His research could not however confirm principals' effectiveness as a function of leadership style. Rather the work affirmed that principals' effectiveness was a function of situational variables, which he identified as experience on the job, position power, leader-member relations, and knowledge. This finding was in agreement with Fiedler's contingency model. Blanchard concluded that for effectiveness to be increased, the principal must increase situational control, meaning that leader-member relations should be improve, and that knowledge and experience on the job and position power should be expanded.

On the basis of Fiedler's theory therefore, it can be said that those school principals who recognize the changing leadership situation in Nigerian secondary schools and adjust their leadership behavior accordingly will tend to be more effective in their leadership roles.

In the context of this study, principals' leadership effectiveness refers to the ability of the school principals to effectively carry out administrative tasks related to instructional programming, staff personnel administration, student personnel administration, financial and physical resources, and school-community relations toward achieving the school goals and objectives.

Instructional Program

The principal is the curriculum leader of the school. He or she is responsible for designing, implementing, and evaluating changes in the instructional program of the school. In the Nigerian educational system, the nation designs the broad curriculum policy in strict consonance with its socio-economic and cultural needs. The principal implements and evaluates the changes in the instructional program. Evaluation comes in form of the principals' constant accountability for his teachers, and the inspector uses the principals' record during the course of his evaluation of the school's instructional program.

Staff Personnel Administration

Cooke and Dunhil (1992) expressed the view that an educational leader must stimulate a lively and dynamic approach with teachers by prodding government authorities to provide regular in-service training. To beginning teachers, the school head should be the chief source of inspiration and assistance through his advice, stimulation, instruction, and guidance. For experienced teachers, the principal develops opportunities and channels to enable their participation in the policy making process, the planning of programs, and carrying out a decision jointly agreed upon. For the principal to be of assistance to any teacher, he must know what goes on in the classroom, despite the fact that he or she receives informal or indirect feedback concerning the climate of instruction and the quality of teachers from students.

Student Personnel Administration

To be able to lead in the area of student personnel, the principal must develop a deeper understanding of the values of students as well as the extent to which student values may be at variance with those of the school as an institution. At the secondary school level, student involvement in decision-making may be gradually initiated in the sense that students should be allowed to participate in decisions relating to affairs that concern them; otherwise, it may be too late when they are faced with dilemmas of decision-making for the larger society. A program of adequate guidance services constitutes the core of principals' student personnel function; these include inventory, information, counseling, placement, and research services, which all converge at the point of needs of the individual student (Wiles et al., 1996).

Financial and Physical Resources

The principal is expected to supervise financial and physical resources of his school. These include purchasing and requisitioning supplies and materials, accounting for school monies, and maintaining an inventory of school property. The fundamental principle in school finance is not how money goes into the system, but how well the available funds are effectively put to use. The leadership required in planning, programming, budgeting, monitoring, and evaluating financial and physical resources represents a dynamic and demanding aspect of the principal role.

School-Community Relations

As a practical step to promoting effective school-community relations, the principal must study and understand the community in which the school is located. He must develop cooperation in a democratic procedure, possess organizational ability for leadership, and understand that there are unlimited human and physical resources in every community that can be organized and used to facilitate effective school-community relations. The principal must regularly inform the community about the conditions, achievements, and needs of the school. He should endeavor to seek and maintain student cooperation in planning and organizing the school community relations program, as well as in relating education in school to life outside the school.

Effectiveness and Gender

Hemphill, Griffiths and Fredrickson (1992) found in their study that male principals did not demonstrate superior performance than their female counterparts; Cirincione-Cole (1995) also found that men are not superior to women in their principal-ship. However, Wile, Hare, Grobman, and Hiries (1996) noted that men ranked significantly ahead of women as democratic leaders. In a survey by Barter (2001), a group of teachers rated male and female principals as equal in ability and personal qualities.

More locally, Adigwu (2004) carried out a comparative study of performance of female and male principals in selected schools in Benin City, Nigeria and observed that both male and female principals had above average performance in their supervisory roles. The mean average performance of male principals was observed to be just a few points above that of female principals. Adigwu therefore concluded that male principals tended to do better in supervisory activities compared to their female counterparts. This may be due to the fact that the male principals seem to have more control over students and teachers.

Experience and Training

Schein (1997) argued that the major influence on the type of leader one is today is the result of experience one gains in leading people. In a study by Okolo (2001) on the performances of primary school headmasters, results showed that there was a significant difference in performance between primary school head teachers with duration of experience ranging from 4 to 11 years and those with 20 years of experience and above. One can thus infer that experience significantly contributes to difference in head teachers' performances. A related study by Eyike (2001) showed that principals who completed in-service trainings were more effective than those who did not. An important implication of his study is that professionally trained principals perform their roles better than non-professionals. Amanchi (1998) reported that teachers who complete degrees in education more professional outputs than those who do not. It is believed that specialized training empowers and motivates such teachers for better performance. For the purpose of this study, only the number of years that the principals have worked shall constitute experience.

Effectiveness and Age

Drucker (1973) observed that a management group comprised of workers of the same age is a management group headed for crisis. Yet, he also noted that a management group that is uniformly old may be preferable to the one that is uniformly too young. Perhaps a mix is ideal.

In a study carried out by Glasscock (1991), it was discovered that age did not affect principals' performance of their leadership responsibilities. Okolo's (2001) research on primary school head teacher's performance, however, showed that age tended to affect the head teachers' administrative performance. Older head teachers had generally spent more years on the job, attended more seminars, and participated in relevant professional discussions that exposed them to new techniques of administration.

In the Nigerian setting, factors such as age, qualification, sex, and experience have been considered in appointing teachers for leadership positions with the belief that some individuals would be more effective than others. (Ibukun & Oyewole, 1997).

The relationship between personality factors and principals' leadership effectiveness seems unclear as there are variations and contradictions in empirical results. The present research

study investigated the influence of personality characteristics on principal leadership effectiveness in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The work puts into focus the variables of age, sex, and experience as they relate to the leadership effectiveness of school principals in a traditional local setting in Nigeria.

The relationship between age and principals' leadership effectiveness is not clear either, as empirical results have been mixed. It was found in one study that age did not affect principals' performance of their leadership responsibilities (Glasscock, 1991), but Okolo (2001) asserted that age did tend to affect the head teachers' administrative performance. However, older head teachers seem to have generally spent more years on the job and have been exposed to different administrative tasks. Based on research findings, we reasoned the following:

H1: There is no significant relationship between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness.

As earlier discussed, the comparison of male and female principals in leadership effectiveness has been fraught with contradiction in the literature. Some studies found that men were not superior to women in their principal-ship (Cirincione-Cole, 1995), while others ranked men significantly ahead of women (Wiles et al., 1996; Adigwu, 2004). For these reasons, we predicted the following:

H2: There is no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals.

Finally, although there are strong positive relationships in some literature regarding the performance of primary school head teachers and personal experience, this study seeks to confirm other findings (e.g., Schein, 1997; Okolo, 2001) in predicting that experience makes no significant difference in head teachers' performances. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

H3: There is no significant relationship between the principals' years of experience and their leadership effectiveness.

Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was used to carry out this study. The study is primarily an investigation into the personality characteristics and principals' leadership effectiveness. The study may help to ascertain the importance of some factors that positively contribute to the effectiveness of school principals in the local setting. Thus, appropriate suggestions could be made for improvements in education in the study area.

The population surveyed consisted of all principals and teachers of public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. At the time of this study, there were one hundred and sixty nine public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. For accurate and effective sampling, the researchers obtained comprehensive data for all the public secondary schools in Ekiti State from the Teaching Service Commission. A simple random sampling technique was used to select fifty schools and one hundred principals, as there were two principals in each school (Junior and Senior Secondary School). This allowed for good sample representation. Ten teachers were

randomly selected from each school (five from junior school and five from senior school). Therefore, the participants of this study consisted of one hundred (100) principals and five hundred (500) teachers.

The investigators utilized two sets of instruments: the Principals Demographic Inventory (PDI) was used for the principals, and the Principal Leadership Effectiveness Inventory (PLEI) was used for the teachers. The researchers constructed the questionnaires after careful review of some literature related to the study. The PDI was completed by the school principals and consisted of simple questions on variables such as age (4 items), sex (2 items), number of years of experience (4 items), professional qualifications (4 items), size of school (2 items), and school location (2 items). The PLEI consisted of a Likert type 4-point summated rating scale and measured the level of leadership effectiveness of principals as perceived by their teachers. It consisted of thirty questions based on the five leadership task domains of principals: Instructional Program (5 questions), Staff Personnel Administration (7 questions), Student Personnel Administration (6 questions), Financial and Physical Resources (6 questions), and School-Community Relationship (6 questions). The response categories to each of the questions were in descending order of weighting: Highly Effective (4 points), Effective (3 points), Ineffective (2 points), and Highly Ineffective (1 point).

The validity and reliability of the two instruments (PDI and PLEI) were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to find Cronbach alpha values of 0.824 and 0.812, respectively. Hence, the researchers considered the instruments to be valid and reliable based on the blueprint for determining reliability and validity of an instrument as suggested by Macintosh (1974) and Alonge (1989, 2004).

Results

Data obtained through the PDI and PLEI were analyzed, and all hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 significance level using SPSS. Hypotheses 1 and 3 were tested using One-way Analyses of Variance, while Hypothesis 2 was tested using a t-test to compare group means.

H1: There is no significant difference between principal's age and their leadership effectiveness

Table 1

One –way ANOVA Summary of Principal's Age and their leadership effectiveness

Source	SS	DF	MS	F-value
Between Groups	458.145	3	152.715	2.922*
Within Groups	5052.205	96	52.271	
Total	5510.350	99		

* $P > 0.05$

Hypothesis 1 was rejected as there was a significant difference between principal age and leadership effectiveness ($f = 2.922$, $p < 0.05$). This demonstrated that principals' age significantly influenced their leadership effectiveness. The older principals performed better than younger principals.

In order to ascertain pairs of groups that were significantly different, Scheffe Post Hoc test of Multiple Range Analysis was used among the groups. The results showed that there was a pair-wise significant difference between the leadership effectiveness of principals who are 36-40 years of age and principals who are above 45 years.

Table 2

t-test Summary of Difference in the Leadership Effectiveness of Male and Female Principals

Group	N	X	SD	DF	t-value
Male	55	116.33	120.91	98	0.10
Female	45	114.72	121.11		

$P > 0.05$

Hypothesis 2 speculated that there is no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals. No significant difference was found. ($t = 0.10$; $p > 0.05$). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 3

One way ANOVA Summary of Principals' Years of Experience and their Leadership Effectiveness

Source	SS	DF	MS	F-value
Between Groups	462.212	3	154.071	2.930*
Within Groups	5048.138	96	52.585	
Total	5510.350	99		

* $P < 0.05$

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be no significant difference between principals' years of experience and leadership effectiveness. The reverse was true ($F = 2.930$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, hypothesis 3 was not supported. This shows that principals' years of experience significantly influenced their leadership effectiveness; the more experienced principals performed better than the less experienced ones.

In order to observe pairs of groups that were significantly different, a Scheffe Post Hoc test of Multiple Range Analysis was used. The results indicated that there was a pair-wise significant difference between the leadership effectiveness of principals with 1-5 years of experience and principals with experience of 20 years and above.

Discussion

The findings of this study revealed that there was a significant difference between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness. The older principals were perceived to be more effective in schools' leadership. This result is in consonance with the observations of Ogunsanya (2001), whose study showed a positive relationship existed between principals' productivity and

age. However, this research is in conflict with the findings of a study carried out by Glasscock (1991), which found that age did not affect principals' performance in their administrative responsibilities. The present study also confirms Okolo's (2001) findings that age tended to affect headmasters' administrative effectiveness. With the results of this present study, it seems imperative to appoint principals of above 45 years in age to leadership positions in the school system.

The results of the second hypothesis indicated that there was no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals as perceived by teachers. This finding supports Adigwu's (2004) comparative study of the performance of female and male principals in selected schools, where it was observed that both male and female principals had above average performance in their supervisory roles. Like Adigwu's study, the results of this study indicated that mean average performance of male principals was just two points above that of female principals. The mean score of male and female principals were 116.33 and 114.72 respectively. The results of this study also agree with the findings of Osezuah (2000), which indicated no significant difference between male and female graduates in job performance in organizations in Nigeria. However, the reason for the insignificant difference that existed between male and female principals' leadership effectiveness may be due to improved commitment to duty by both sexes. Enhanced motivation by reward and possible commitment negates public stereotypic views, at least in Nigeria, that women are less committed to work due to being pre-occupied with business and petty trading at the expense of their work.

Finally, the result of hypothesis three indicated a significant difference between principals' years of experience and leadership effectiveness. It is significant to point out that the low mean scores recorded by principals with 1-5 years of experience when compared to principals with 20 years and above as revealed through the Scheffe Multiple Range Analysis may signify low levels of leadership effectiveness. The more experienced principals appeared to perform better. The finding of this study is consistent with Alily's (2000) study, which showed a significant difference between medium-experienced and short-experienced teachers. The result of this study also supports Harbison and Hanushek's research (1992), which found that teaching experience relates positively to learning. Hence, the present finding upholds the popular adage that "experience is the best teacher." It also showed that principals with 15 years and above are more effective and that such a long stay in leadership positions may equip them with more adequate knowledge to function effectively. It is believed that more experienced principals generally have spent more years on the job, attended seminars, and participated in relevant professional conferences and workshops, consequently exposing them to new administrative techniques. Deng and Gibb (2008) reported in their study that "leadership is a lot about learning by doing." The view points and perspectives derived from their daily practice are unique and valuable (Wilson & Dalton, 1998).

Conclusion

Arising from the findings of this study, one major conclusion that could be drawn is that personality characteristics of principals such as age and years of experience significantly influence leadership effectiveness. No significant difference existed in leadership effectiveness of principals based on sex. It is assumed that these findings have some implications for practice and for further research. One important implication of this study is the finding that principals' years of experience positively determined the leadership effectiveness of a principal. This

observation requires the attention of educational policy makers in the state. Many years of experience could be perceived as an asset to leadership effectiveness. The findings of this investigation may afford the Teaching Service Commission the need to place high emphasis and priority on years of experience in the appointment of principals. Such awareness could also help the commission to develop strategies and mechanisms for developing effective leadership in the school system. However, it may be recommended that inasmuch as years of experience is a necessary criterion for deploying and promoting teachers to the principal-ship cadre, the educational authorities should not consider experience in isolation. Experience should be considered along with age. Gender factor should be de-emphasized in the appointment of principals as no significant differences existed between male and female principals in leadership effectiveness. All these factors should be complemented with appropriate training in leadership and supervisory functions of principals. This is required to fill the present gap observed between the competence of experienced and inexperienced principals.

Finally, we want to sound a note of caution: the results should be considered jealously. It is necessary to study the effects of variables other than the identified ones. Variables such as school climates, policy demands, nature of tasks, pressure of time, and bureaucracy are areas that need to be researched as well. Similar research could also be carried out on a broader scale, in which the demographic information of teachers as well as principals could be used.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed for the purpose of collecting information on the principal leadership effectiveness in this area.

The purpose is for the effective management of schools in this area. Every information in this questionnaire would be confidentially treated, so do not write your names.

PRINCIPAL'S DEMOGRAPHIC INVENTORY

INSTRUCTION: Read the following statement carefully and tick the responses which best described you and your school on the columns provided.

1. Name of your school
2. Age: 31-35 [], 36-40 [], 41-45 [], above 45 []
3. Sex: Male [], Female []
4. Student population of your school: 1000 and above [] below 1000[]
5. Qualification: Professional [] (B.A. Ed, B. Sc, Ed, B.Ed., PGDE, M.Ed.). Less Professional [] (B.A., B.Sc., M.Sc.)
6. Location of School: Urban [] Rural []
7. Total number of years of experience as school principal: Under 5 year [], 5-10 years [], 10years -15 years, above 15 years []
8. Style of passing information to the teachers in your school: formal [], Less formal []

APPENDIX II

PRINCIPALS LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS INVENTORY

Teachers should kindly tick the option that best describes his/her principal.

This scale should be used for assessment.

Highly Effective	(HE)	=	4	points
Effective	(E)	=	3	Points
Ineffective	(IE)	=	2	Points
Highly Effective	(HI)	=	1	Points

Name of School:.....

How effective is your principal in the performance of the following roles?

A.INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM	HE	E	IE	HI
1. Offering assistance to teachers in the location of teaching materials.				
2. Helping teachers to develop new instructional materials?				
3. Offering assistance to teachers in the selection of textbooks for students?				
4. Coordinating the general instructional activities of teachers?				
5. Coordinating the presentation of social programs for slow learners?				
B. STAFF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION				

<p>6. Ensuring that teacher understand their limit to independent action?</p> <p>7. Accepting responsibility for the work he/she delegates to staff?</p> <p>8. Allowing teachers a measure of authority in doing their duties?</p> <p>9. Viewing teachers attendance to class as very important?</p> <p>10. Checking who does his/her work</p> <p>11. Assisting staff on personal problems?</p> <p>12. Recruiting staff</p> <p>C. STUDENT PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION</p> <p>13. Helping teachers to monitor student's progress through examinations?</p> <p>14. Discussing with student regularly concerning their welfare?</p> <p>15. Making himself/ herself available for consultation with student?</p> <p>16. Ensuring that students who come late are disciplined?</p> <p>17. Ensuring the orientation of new students in his/ her school?</p> <p>18. Showing concern on school performance in examinations?</p> <p>D. FINANCIAL AND PHYSICAL RESOURCE</p> <p>19. Evaluating the use of physical resources in his/her school?</p> <p>20. Evaluating the use of financial resources in his/her schools?</p> <p>21. Obtaining revenue from appropriate quarters for his/her school?</p> <p>22. Coordinating money spending to avoid unnecessary expenses?</p> <p>23. Making budget estimates for his/her school?</p> <p>24. Proving immediate replacements to damaged classroom equipment?</p> <p>E. SCHOOL COMMUNITY RELATIONS</p> <p>25. Ensuring good rapport on school community relations?</p> <p>26. Planning meetings for good relations?</p> <p>27. Understudying of the values of the society in which his/her school operates?</p> <p>28. Listening to advice from members of the society?</p> <p>29. Ensuring regular evaluation of school community relations of his/her school?</p> <p>30. Involving the community on school projects?</p>				
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