THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE AND SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT TOWARDS SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT IN NIGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Abstrak

Kepimpinan transformational pengetua, dan persekitaran sekolah adalah faktor penting yang dikatakan berupaya mempengaruhi keberkesanan dan kecemerlangan sekolah. Cabaran dan perubahan dalam sistem pendidikan membolehkan pengetua mengamalkan amalan kepimpinan yang kreatif dan inovatif dalam menjayakan organisasi mereka. Persekitaran akademik yang kondusif membantu mewujudkan konsep baru dan pemahaman yang mendalam berkaitan proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran yang menyediakan para guru dengan tahap kepakaran yang cukup, mematuhi standard serta mempunyai elemen asertif untuk berusaha bersungguh. Walau bagaimanapun, hubungan kolaboratif antara persekitaran sekolah dengan penambahbaikan sekolah sukar ditentukan, dan melibatkan pelbagai faktor dan situasi. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti hubungan dan implikasi berkaitan gaya kepimpinan pengetua dan persekitaran sekolah terhadap penambahbaikan sekolah menengah di Nigeria. Kajian ini juga dijalankan untuk mengkaji perbezaan antara sekolah menengah perpaduan dan bukan perpaduan di Nigeria berkaitan dengan aspek kepimpinan, persekitaran sekolah dan penambahbaikan sekolah. Kajian telah menggunakan tiga set instrumen kajian iaitu Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), School-Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) dan School Improvement Questionnaire (SIQII). Seramai 550 guru daripada sekolah perpaduan dan sekolah bukan perpaduan telah dipilih sebagai responden. Statistik deskriptif dan statistik inferential telah digunakan dalam analisis data. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara aspek persekitaran sekolah dan penambahbaikan sekolah, dengan gaya kepimpinan transformational pengetua. Hasil kajian ini juga menunjukkan bahawa gaya kepimpinan pengetua di sekolah-sekolah perpaduan mempunyai pengaruh yang besar ke atas persekitaran sekolah yang juga telah mempengaruhi penambahbaikan sekolah dan pencapaian akademik pelajar. Kajian ini memperluaskan skop terhadap kajian-kajian terdahulu, dengan mendalami aspek hubungan antara gaya kepimpinan transformasional, persekitaran sekolah dan penambahbaikan sekolah di Nigeria. Kesimpulannya, kajian ini telah menghasilkan satu kerangka teoretikal sebagai sumbangan terhadap gaya kepimpinan transformasional dan persekitaran sekolah terhadap penambahbaikan sekolah. Hasil kajian ini menyokong penglibatan pemimpin transformasional yang berkesan di sekolah menengah di Nigeria untuk menggunakan aspek persekitaran yang bersesuaian dalam perancangan penambahbaikan sekolah.

Kata kunci: Kepimpinan Transformational, Perpaduan Sekolah, Persekitaran Sekolah, Sekolah perpaduan dan bukan perpaduan, Penambahbaikan sekolah.

Abstract

Transformational leadership and school environments are among the pertinent factors that will potentially influence the effectiveness and excellence of the school. Challenges as well as changes in the educational system mandate principals to exercise more creative and innovative leadership practices for the success of their organizations. A conducive and sound academic environment help to initiate new concepts and deep understanding regarding teaching and learning process, which will provide the teachers with an adequate level of expertise, standards, and assertiveness within their respective human endeavours. However, the collaborative linkages between school environment and school improvement among the teachers are difficult to determine, and it involves various factors and situations. The purpose of the study was to identify the relationship and implication of educational administrators' Leadership styles and school environment towards school improvement in Nigerian secondary schools. This study was also aimed to investigate whether there is a significant difference between the Nigerian unity and non-unity secondary schools regarding their leadership, school environment, and school improvement aspects. The study had used three sets of instruments namely Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), School-Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) and School Improvement Questionnaire (SIQII). A total of 550 teachers from unity and non-unity schools were selected as respondents. Descriptive statistics and inferential were used for data analysis. The findings had shown that there was a significant relationship between school environment and school improvement, towards principals' transformational leadership style. The results of this study also revealed that the leadership styles of principals in unity schools had imposed major influence on the school environment, which had also influenced the school's improvement and students' academic achievement. This study has extended previous studies by exploring the relationship between transformational leadership style, school environment and school improvement in Nigeria. In conclusion, the study had drawn a significant theoretical framework to demonstrate the contribution of transformational leadership styles and school environment towards school improvement. The study supports the involvement of effective transformational leaders in Nigerian secondary schools to utilizing the appropriate environment for viable school improvement planning.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Unity Schools, School Environment, Unit and Non-unity schools, School Improvement.

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In the name of Allah, the Most Merciful and Most Compassionate. O my Lord (ALLAH), all praises be to you as it should be due to Your Mighty and the Greatness of Your Power. Praise be to Allah S.W.T. for granting me the strength, courage, patience, and inspiration to complete this work. Moreover, may peace and the blessing of Allah bestow upon the holy and seal of the Prophet Muhammad (Sallallahu Alaihi Wasallam).

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List of Abbreviations

CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CR	Contingent Reward
ETF	Education Trust Fund
EE	Extra Effort
EFA	Education for All
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EEF	Effectiveness
ICCLE	International Centre of Child Labor Education
IC	Individualized Consideration
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FGC	Federal Government College
FGGC	Federal Government Girls College
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LS	Leadership Style
MSA	Measuring of Sampling Adequacy
MLQ(5X)	Multifactor Leadership Questioner Form 5x
NCE	National Certificate of Education
NECO	National Examination Council
NPE	National Policy on Education
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
r	Correlation Coefficient
SA	School Achievement
SE	School Environment
SIQII	School Improvement Questioner
SLEQ	School Level Environment Questioner
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SS	Secondary School
SSCE	Senior Secondary Certificate Examination

TF	Transformational Leader
TL	Transactional Leader
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WES	Work Environment Scale

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

Education is a human right as declared in article 26 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights; a key to developing up distinct dimensions as well as accumulating their skills that are essential for techno-economic growth and development and a means for confidently tackling some of the persistent communal issues. In Nigeria education is regarded as a mechanism for changing characters, public and the country and as an instrument for knowledge and skills acquisition required for societal existence and growth (Kazeem, 2010). In a study conducted by three prominent scholars; Agba, Ushie, and Agba, (2007), it was discovered that education is a significant instrument for realising socio-economic as well as political development. Furthermore, in support of the findings, a government's white paper said that schooling is a perfect tool for the nation's economic, social reform and expansion (NPE, 2004). Schooling in Nigeria is an essential mechanism for accomplishing national growth. The nation's schooling aims have always been mentioned in the draft education policy in relation to their importance to the wishes of the single and distinct people and the populace (FGN, 2004). Going by the above, the drafted policy on education governing the implementation of it set up clear aspirations and targets that were aimed at simplifying growth of education in the nation at large. In promoting these wishes and goals, the school leader has an imperative function to perform. Among this functions include delivering operational secondary school's administration, thereby increasing better work presentation among teachers (FGN, 2014).

1.2 Background of the Study

The governing principle of education in Nigeria is stocking every citizen with such facts, expertise, assertiveness, and standards proficient enough to enable citizens to gain exciting compensations of being appreciated citizens and leave a satisfying and gifted life that will assist them in backing-up the expansion and comfort of their humanities. As an opportunity for inspiring social security, education allows people to understand their immediate environment and the world in general.

This frequently permits them to increase the excellence of their lives (Kazeem, 2010). However, to achieve the intentions of education and secure its welfares, the well-designed expressed policies must be fully applied, and that important participant must come together and throw-in their quota especially through taking part in decision-making (NPE, 2004). This study aimed at discovering the influence of Transformational Leadership and School Environment towards School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools. In this study, these Schools are categorized into two; The Unity Schools (Government Schools that are given particular attention) and the Non-unity Schools (Government schools that are not given particular attention)

Because of this situation, a brief history of education in Nigeria needs to be touched in other to have a formal focus on this study. Two issues prompted the introduction of a new scheme of education; these two issues are the National conference on curriculum development of 1969 and the National Seminar on Education in Nigeria of 1973, which was joined by a variety of authorities and peripheral bodies that planned the type of education for an autonomous and self-governing nation like Nigeria. National policy on education is a planned practice of appreciating those goals expected to be achieved using education as a tool for transfer of knowledge.

No reservation, no policy can be enlisted without putting into consideration the national philosophy and goals of the nation. The overall philosophy of Nigeria is:

a) To live in agreement and accord as one indivisible, democratic and sovereign nation founded on the philosophies of freedom, equality, and fairness.

b) Encourage inter-African solidarity and world peace through appreciative ideas.

The five main national goals of Nigeria that have been endorsed as the necessary foundation for development which are:

a) Free and democratic society;

b) A just and egalitarian society;

c) A united, strong and self -reliant nation;

d) A great and dynamic economy;

e) A land full of bright opportunities for all citizens.

The Nigerian national policy was erected under the above philosophy and goals, and in Nigerian philosophy of education it is anticipated that:

a) Education is advice for national development and the collaboration of persons and ideas which are all features of education.

b) Education nurtures the substance development of the individual for each individual's sake, and for general development of the society.

c) The preparing of the mind in the understanding of the world around;

d) The attainment of suitable skills and proficiencies as equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of the society.

A cross-section of Nigerians graced a conference on national curriculum in the year 1996 were they out cried discontent with the existing education system which was

brought about by the national needs, aspirations, and goals that can make Nigeria grow and develop. Soon after the conference on national curriculum in 1996, the communiqué issued was used as the first draft printed in 1997. In the year 1998, it became necessary for some changes to be made on the national policy with the following policy statements:

1. The bracing of the suspension order on open and distant learning programs by the government.

2. Renewal and expansion of the National Mathematical Centre (NMC).

3. Establishing the Teachers Registration Council (TRCN).

4. Introduction of information and Communication Technology (ICT) into the school curriculum as a second official Language.

5. Prescription of the French language in the primary and secondary schools curriculum as second official language.

Also, this National Policy of Education which is the nation's education policy document reiterates the overall philosophy and goals of education in Nigeria and also specifies the objectives as well as the structure and strategy for the provision of education. The policy document also provided the general rule and expect objectives for the delivery, running and for excellence reassurance. It further elucidates on the accountabilities of the three ranks of government, their interventions and all other education investors (National Education Policy, 2013). However, in keeping with the unchanging nature of social change and stresses on education, the policy has been reviewed over time, the most recent in 2013, but the basis of the fundamental theories have not changed.

Focussing on the designed policy, the study here at this juncture decide to reflect on the position of Transformational leadership, school environment, and school improvement.

The Nigerian blue print on education revised in 1998 used the Nigerian constitution (FGN, 1979) to maintain and utilize the course of action on education by suggesting that the objectives of Nigeria's education should be focussed towards:

1. The teaching of national awareness and harmony;

2. The fixing in mind of the correct type of values and behaviors for the survival of the discrete and distinct people and the Nigerian society;

3. The training of the brain for the consciousness of the world around; and

The attainment of proper skills and the extension of divine, bodily and common abilities and skills as tools for the individual to live in and contribute.

The possession of the right skills and the availability of divine, bodily and common abilities are required as a contribution to give to the nation regarding leadership in education

The first part of the 21st century showed a profound interest in educational leadership as a result of unanimous belief that qualitative educational leadership makes an outstanding difference to outcomes of schools and students (Bush, 2007). In a separate study conducted by (Robinson, 2008) the result of his studies highlighted that trained and committed teachers are needed coupled with competent leadership in other to attain school achievement. Another study carried out by (Stipek, 2006) explained that the bringing together of effective leadership styles and supported by conducive school environment could improve school achievement. In support of the same findings (Bush, 2007) reported that students under the good care

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of effective and skillful managers acquire meaningful and effective education. In a report on the findings of research he conducted, (Bogler, 2005) concurred that past research has shown that the there is a glaring and vivid change observed in teacher and staff attitudes, academic achievement and student learning because of effective leadership qualities of a school leader. The Nigerian education policy is also of the view that all schools should have a conducive learning environment because of the need to place an all-encompassing basis for scientific and deep thinking, character and ethical training and the expansion of complete attitude, and again, foster in the child the aptitude to familiarize with the changing environment (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1981).

On the part of school improvement, the Nigerian government policy is of the view that, every citizen is to be prepared with knowledge, skills, attitude, and values as well as enable him/her derive ultimate benefit from his membership of society and thus, leading him to a fulfilling life. An outline was needed to permit the Federal Government to confirm that children are trained in the philosophy of the society, UBE program became desirable because of the need to inculcate in pupils the knowledge of literacy, talent and the aptitude to interconnect. This system of education absorbs both job-related and semi-professional subjects in the new syllabus which are meant to improve the students' talent for practical and straightforward abilities, initiative, resourcefulness and self-esteem of effort Osokoya, (2003), (Dada, Kolawole, Arilkpo, 2003). The new curriculum designed to cater for the dwindling education in Nigeria is found in the syllabus of the 6-3-3-4 which was created to cater for six years in the main education. There is also another three years in the junior secondary schools with syllabus comprising of speculative and applied subjects. Which implies that learners have to offer basic subjects that

would assist them to get associated with and improve expertise to choose an upcoming profession that is relevant to their scopes, ability coupled with curiosity. Courses like Accounting and other vocational and technical education courses were obtainable. It also offers purely academic subjects related to sciences and social sciences relevant to the aptitude of the learners. Moreover, finally, the tertiary education meant for undergraduates is proposed for four years.

The universal basic education program was mainly designed or meant to eradicate the education inequality in the country, particularly between the two existing regions south backed by the oil wealth and the northern backwardly educated side. Nigerian government lived on the full obligation of training teachers for the proposal. A number as big as 163,000 teachers were gotten from the emergency training plan which made various school leavers to get the Teachers College grade II certificate thereby advancing the value of staff strength in the primary school sub-sector throughout Nigeria. The industrious fundamental changes in the long- ago produced the problems of futile application of the policy statement of EFA. In times past, military involvement caused by changes in government in the quick string, transformations of the unequal routine in the routine of first education, instability, which branded the Nigerian diplomatic scene, has always led to changes in educational guidelines most especially, at the primary school level.

A report by (Denga 2000) pointed at a general outcry on the deterioration of education in Nigeria and the severe deflation in the standard of primary school education that was apparently detected by the introduction of the UBE scheme. UBE faced many challenges concerning vital education in Nigeria before its inception which include: absence of facilities, unsatisfactory inspection, the dearth of

personnel, non-existence of financial support, high charges for the sales of textbooks, disjointed enactment of the syllabus, drop-out rate. Moreover, hence, the vision, mission, and objective statements run thus:

"By the end of 9 years of continuing education, the pupil that passes through the routine should have obtain desired level of knowledge, expertise, transfer of knowledge, scheming and life talents and be employable, expedient to himself and the society as a whole by acquiring the needed ethical, moral and civic skills" (FGN, 2014).

It becomes imperative to note here that the major challenge confronting education in Nigeria is the politicization of the education policies as well as inadequate funding. Lenshie (2013) observed that politicizing education in Nigeria is the leading barrier to the implementation of education policies which out rightly impedes socio-economic, political, scientific and technological development. Also, Peter (2015) pointed out that Nigeria's educational dilemmas stemmed from politicizing educational issues whereby much attention is been paid to personal, sentiment and other primordial issues. Politicizing education is a severe problem to educational policy implementation because however good the policies are, once sentimentalities of those responsible for implementation precede them; there is the likelihood that such policies will not see the light of the day.

Very many scholars were a concern with how these leaders will perform in the long run (Ige, 2001). It is imperative to the point that middle school education in Nigerian institutions is for a period of 3 years and is meant for scholars who had efficaciously passed through the junior middle school education programme. Hence, it is not

astonishing that there is stress framed on active leadership among school leaders of middle schools in Nigeria. As similarly itemized in the national policy, that there should be an enabling environment in our schools to enable better school achievement, the predicament of the scarcity of the set-up and amenities are sensed in all places and at all stages of the schooling scheme. The loan on books services are insufficient, and so is the prearrangement of lessons, lessons equipment, laboratories, and workshops. Lack or total absence of accommodation is very much pronounced in most institutions, including universities. In those institutions where students are provided with the accommodation, the problems of congestion arise. That is the reason why a study by (Chuta, 1995) noted that the hostel room scarcity had become so severe that a black market uproar had developed.

Majority of the institutions had their buses wrecked beyond repairs, while some do not even have the computing system to assist the students. And hence, poor commuting in the campuses, and above all, there is no constant supply of water and electricity for domestic use in the said institutions. In other to remedy for the scarce services, the parents are on most occasions asked to augment the school materials and facilities for a smooth running of programs in the primary and secondary schools.

The government looked for assistance from World Bank for the supply of books and other facilities for their universities and some government of other countries like the one they got from Bulgaria to service secondary education. Regrettably, some schools cannot fix and use these because they lack the essential electricity and/or water for their setup, as well as qualified experts to accomplish and preserve them.

In recent times the United Nations (UN) introduced a new development plan for the year 2015 aimed at transforming the world through 2030. The seventeenth goal article four highlighted the efforts and intention of the government to provide continues chance and outstanding education for every citizen. This is supreme as Bunyi (2013) indicated: That excellent education is very vital for continuous education as it makes low student drop-outs and allows for continues survival of education which later leads to fruitful employment and emoluments in contrast with those that could not finish in good time. Hence, it will allow learners to advance and engross good uprightness that produces good and obedient members of the nation and the chance of producing potential managers in the near future.

After obtaining the result of his research, (Bush, 2007) explained that it is noticed that there is very little confidence on which managerial traits that are hopefully going to create constructive results as there is a need for effective leaders. The government white paper on education (NPE, 22: 2004) speak of to education as the best means of enlightenment program for a functional growth and development of the nation's effective national development. That is to say that for proper achievement of national development, there must be a coherence use of national policies on education, and the performance of all the primary stakeholders, which include the school principals, instructors and their learners at all levels of the education program. Nevertheless, over the years, (Ikoh, 2007) reported that the board reported proceedings on the final secondary school's examination that the student's examination results are below expectations these days. This performance according to (Ashibi, 2005) among other factors and variables has been replicated on the instructors and the authorities' inability to function and motivate principals and instructors to improve their

efficiency. Another scholar by name (Agba et al., 2009) conducted another study, and his findings were supporting the findings of the above scholar where he reported that some environmental issues like peer group influence and chronic absenteeism could be attached to classroom variables. A notable scholar by name (Ikoh, 2007) reported that in addition to all these, the leadership style of the principals could also be another attributing factor and issue that could affect the schools positively or negatively.

The confusion attached to the poor academic performance of our learners in middle schools are many, part of which the shortcomings attached to the incapacitated leadership styles of principals makes this research even more imperative. Part of the expectations of this study was that when this research is completed, important and permanent solutions to various pressing issues in Nigeria education sector that will permanently bring developmental changes and reforms in the Nigerian economy. It is evidently shown in the literature that improved leadership contributes to improvement in academic performance in schools. Enough time was spent recently by most scholars on the study of educational management with literature paying much emphasis on educational leadership issues, theories and practice. Despite such efforts rendered by the scholars, very few of them pay much emphasis on the influence of educational outcomes on school leadership. A study by (Robinson, 2008) emphasized that there are very few studies conducted on educational leadership can measure the link between leadership and school achievement. As a result of lack of full evidence or precise way of facing leadership issues, the few research conducted on the topic does not allow for the use of leadership standards and exercises in education.

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Lambert, (2003) explained that with improved transformational leadership, schools academic performance would improve particularly for low income and minority students. This is to illustrate that the position of principals in leadership is an important part of students' performance. Some scholars like (A Hoy & Miskel, 2008) sees leadership from different angles or perception, the definitions of the concept of leadership are many but important and the fact is most of these theories could be grouped into four main perspectives: behaviour or attribute concepts, behavioural concepts, situational methods, and managerial changes.

There are many leadership theories developed by leadership experts, (Robinson et al., 2008) outlined that, out of many leadership theories developed by experts on leadership, and it was assumed that managerial teaching and managerial change were the two that received the most desired consideration, attention and emphasis. Where scholars like the same (Robinson, 2008, & Leithwood et al.) reported that both instructional and transformational leadership had gained prominence and support from scholars as one of the best styles that impact on student and school's achievement in most leadership literature, and everything therein was endorsed as an administrative model for school principals. The inquiry is needed concerning which theory school administrators should apply to best influence their school management and student learning outcomes because of pure and visible differences in presentation of these theories. A study performed by (Leithwood et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 1983) highlighted that researchers have pointed the model developed on managerial change as being more suitable for academic managers because instructional leadership wants an unvarying conceptual model, and recent modifications in educational planning endorses for an administrator with change

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charisma and expertise. A study directly weighing these leadership theories has not been undertaken because both forms of leadership have extensive empirical support,

On the other hand, simply because researchers have provided unresolved results is not enough excuse to engage in disputes of entirely dropping the issue of leadership. Gronn (2000) in his understanding claimed that management needs to be reconceptualized by organizations because of its high importance. A major action to be taking in redefining leadership is taking note of reasons why there are no acceptable definitions of leadership as a concept (Hallinger and Heck, 1998). A second step is the identification of the main assumptions about effective leadership which seems to be a big problem to handle. However, an assumption that could be broadly accepted is presented by Riley and Louis (47:2000) who argue that no particular flat form ever existed for school administration and no particular model was learned or used regardless of practice or environment, however, leadership can be established and encouraged.

The findings of these researchers also suggested that more holistic approach should be used to increase students' performance in schools. Successful students' performance requires increased attention from the government (Berg & Karlsen, 2007). Because of the above assertion, this research titled the impact of managerial ability, and academic settings towards academic improvement in federal colleges in Nigeria is very necessary. Proves have shown that effective leadership style is distinctive to improving learning, especially when it collaborates with good teaching and conducive academic environment (DeVita, M. C, 2004). Leadership matters a lot in school performance; hence, it is seen as second to teaching. In other to attain

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better students' achievement, all schools have to be functional and effective in its deliberations, i.e., teaching the learners and setting the schools' directions. Great leadership will carry the schools to progressive change and witness much success in the future (Zandrlyn, 2005).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Nigeria being an emerging nation and very much in the course of emerging, her socio-economic degenerate after decades of the establishment, this situation left Nigeria with no option other than to scout for a skilled and semi-skilled workforce that can see her through her economic recession particularly the industrial segment.

Secondly, despite its centrality in making available the needed facilities in schools and the overall implementation of educational policies, educational funding is inadequate in Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2011). Research conducted by (Adeyemi, 2011), Sofoluwe (2012) and Peter & Isaac (2013) shows that the education sector in Nigeria is being underfunded when compared with many other African countries. This is further justified by a survey conducted by the World Bank in twenty sampled countries in terms of education financing as portrayed in the table below:

Table 1.1

World Bank ranking on financing education

S/N	Country	Percentage Allocation	Position
1	Ghana	31 %	1st
2	Cote d'Ivoire	30 %	2nd
3	Uganda	27 %	3rd
4	Mexico	26.4 %	4th
5	South Africa	25.8 %	5th

Table 1.1 Continued.

6	Swaziland	24.6 %	6th
7	Mexico	24.3 %	7th
8	Kenya	23 %	8th
9	United Arab Emirate	22.5 %	9th
10	Botswana	19 %	10th
11	Iran	17.7 %	11th
12	United States of America	17.1 %	12th
13	Tunisia	17 %	13th
14	Lesotho	17 %	14th
15	Burkina Faso	16.8 %	15th
16	Norway	16.2 %	16th
17	Columbia	15.6 %	17th
18	Nicaragua	15 %	18th
19	India	12.7 %	19th
20	Nigeria	8.4 %	20th

Source: World Bank, 2012

Insufficient funding of education in Nigeria has hindered reaping the dividends of education for the fact that the fund being allocated is not adequate to cater to the needs and demands of both teachers and students (Taiwo, 2012). This necessitates the engagement of relevant education stakeholders especially in policy decisions as the need to develop students' potentials for quality education (Olatunji, 2012; Ayeni and Adelabu, 2012). However, studies conducted by (Ayeni, 2012; Olatunji, 2012; and Olaleye, 2012) indicated that stakeholders are not fully engaged in administration and education-related activities in Nigeria, and hence, this was brought about by failure to use teachers as contributors to administrative duties and the failure to address problems affecting academic settings causes a lot of failure in the struggles to maintain school improvement in the unity and non-unity schools.

Lack of commitment among staff members (Adeyemo, 2010) and indiscipline among students (Nwadian, 2008) are major issues that characterize the environment of unity schools in Nigeria. Such issues are likely to be the factors affecting the achievement of the unity schools. Thus, this study will examine the possible impact

of a transformational leader on the school environment and improvement. Teachers are dissatisfied, hence, in this present dispensation, there is the need for teachers to be involved in matters of administration for proper academic improvement, so as fully fund institutions based on the intention of fulfilling the needs of teachers, non-academic staff, and other stakeholders. School achievement is expected to be highly qualitative to contempt parents and stakeholders, which can be equal to the present world of technology. Teachers' dissatisfaction with their job is considered as the major causative agent of their dreams failure to reality (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004).

Lack of effective policy implementation constitutes yet another problem, as it appeared in the federal government white paper (NPE, 2:2004) the policy refers to education as "the most excellent mechanism for appropriate and functional national growth." It is by effective implementation of the nation's national educational plan that the performance of teachers and learners at all level of the school system functions. As explained earlier, the accounts show that there is the very low average performance of students in their final examination during the senior secondary school examination (Ikoh, 2007). Teachers are to blame on this shameful disposition (Ashibi 2005), and government laxity to sponsor and provide education efficiently and motivate principals and instructors to increase their performance (Agba et al., 2009).

On the other hand, the recent study by Robinson et al. (2008) mentioned that school administrators who are transformational could easily predict the future of school mission and fulfill a school dream, encourage a philosophy of intelligent inspiration, and growth to individual staff members. In-between 1991 and 1994 (Avolio et al.,

1991; Bass and Avolio, 1994) pointed that there are a total of four diverse practices that are addressed in transformational leadership theory: stimulating incentive, personalized reflection, perfect inspiration (charisma), and intelligent inspiration. Hence, this study will serve as a platform to explore the transformational style of school administrators in Nigeria Secondary Schools.

The operational nature of the curriculum design in schools seems to be another possible issue in Nigeria. In a research conducted by an organization called 'country profile Nigeria', it was discovered that despite the effort of the Nigerian government to provide free government-supported education, the system was found to be failing, hence, making education offerings a dysfunctional system and this is due to poor curriculum design (F G N, 2008). The inadequacy of the curriculum content is assumed to be the major root cause. It is believed that the contents are merely designed to fit-in the future demands, whereas the content supposed to address the Bloom's taxonomy that is, the psychomotor, affective and the cognitive domains (Dania & Eboh, 2013). This domain sets every learner in line with the desired change in behavior instantly without delay.

Academic settings mainly encompass of a usual and appropriate incorporation of three features. These include the pupil, the instructor, and the curriculum. The two concepts are similar and related but differ in meaning and scope. School climate is an aspect of the school environment (Loukas, A. 2007). All this suggests that environment as a concept is wider in scope than the concept of the school climate. In the words of (Schein, 1992) he defined environment as an exhibition of component's learned expectations that new followers are taught. These prospects comprise of the present and past judgments that are completed inside a crowd to decide issues. These

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judgments are grounded in authorized characters and out-dated ways of considering results and circumstances within an institutional setting. The academic setting is the out-dated signs that encompass the elucidations and principles of significance surrounded by a group setting. Whereas (Moor, 1981) saw the meaning of the concept of school climate as something that has to do with the mental, societal and educational dimensions of the learning institution Thus, making the concept multi-dimensional (Fraser, 1989).

Inequality of secondary school's status is yet another problem, the schools that are called the unity schools are better equipped with teachers, funding, scholarship, budget allocation and even brighter and promising students. However, some scholars positioned themselves that 'there is no guarantee, and this also includes the principal's use of desired leadership styles' Dania and Eboh, (2012).

The take-off of a program called the EFA became necessary as the Obasanjo's led administration started in the year 1999 because it came across a system of education that was in a state of deterioration (FGN 2004). Teachers were ill-trained and aggravated, high rate of illiteracy as a result of high dropout rates, poor set-up conditions of schools. Thus, the introduction of the UBE came as an outcome to absolutely alter the nation's basic education sub-sector (FGN 2004) and to meet the framework of the world concept of EFA. Right now, we are in the midst of the UBE scheme as it aims at preparing individuals with knowledge (Obinaju 2001). Before the presentation of the scheme during the Obasanjo's led government in 2000, several educational policies intended towards delivering handy and reasonable school system that can spread across every competent and reasonable Nigerian.

As Nigeria ushers into the new millennium, remarkable attentiveness is given to academic pursuits as a source of workable growth, reconciliation, and steadiness in the country. According to (Ikoh, 2007; Agba et al., 2007) this type of remarkable contribution makes learning an unavoidable and desirable source of full engagement and source of contribution to the social and economic advancement of the nation but also to the continues rapidly changing the world. Although there were important studies carried out on Leadership structures in-between many types of educational bodies, including educational establishments, very few findings of study literature were scrutinized and taken as an important contribution to an education system that can influence Leadership Styles and School Environment on School improvement or vice versa in the Nigerian education system. In favour of this study (LeClear, 2005) reported that managerial traits were explained as the movements of the school manager that substitute associations within the school community, whereas (Wilson and Corcoran, 1988) said that while school environment was distinct as a system of jointly acknowledged connotations, principles, standards, and expectations that administrative members use to direct their steady, everyday activities and infer their surroundings. In his contributions, Gruenert, (2000) added that school managers want to touch the atmosphere of the academic institution because it is a main issue in the college enhancement process. A study carried out by Bolman and Deal, (2003) stated that school managers normally influence the school setting if they appreciate it.

A scholar called (Bulach, 2001) contributed to his findings that there are specific actions school leaders could practice so that they can differentiate in-between basics which makes an institution's setting as to harvest interventions that lead to hopeful and fruitful development in the process of impacting knowledge. Consequently, it is

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vital for leaders of the educational institute to be aware of the administrative tendencies or behaviors that can bring about a clean school environment and, in due course, school improvement. The following scholars Acker- Hocevar, 1996; Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985 ;) explained that school leaders impact the formation and upkeep of a constructive school environment in order for schools to be creative, which must be centered on educating the educational setting so that it can cultivate and bear. A serious breakdown in discipline brings a significant setback to interdisciplinary education for sustainability; therefore, achievements in schools have not been equaled by achievements in curriculum objectives (Tilbury, 2011).

In one of his findings (Leithwood et al. 2006) explained that School managers had become the hub of desirability for leadership experts with the expectations that excellence leadership will bring about amplified improvement for all students. The research conducted by (Leithwood et al., 2006; Scope, 2006; Schooley, 2005; Le Clear, 2005) have indicated that school leaders and school environment have been found to impact on school improvement.

Research has shown that school improvement is impacted tremendously by school environment and school leaders. Previous studies have persistently shows that leadership impacts students' success in school (Leithwood et al., 2006). Also (Leithwood et al., 1999) has it that the school settings was also related tentatively and essentially to students' improvement. Various scholars in their efforts to explain how the school environment relate to school improvement have added to the assertion that there is a clear connection between the two concepts, as (Leithwood et al. 2006; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995) all agreed that leaders impact on the school environment, Scholars like (Leithwood et al., 2006; Stoll, & Russ, 2004) clarified

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that through robust, optimistic, co-operative school settings, school improvement could be achieved. NECO/SSCE results in north-western Nigeria shows that learners are not improving on their learning or performing as expected, therefore to meet the desired expectations of learners on SSCE/NECO in North-western Nigeria, there is a need for action to be taken before things get worst.

Conger, (1992) explained that on the basis of the equal application of policies and law, school managers as motivational leaders were familiar with the graded administration that concentrated on justice. The structural limits were effectively organized, and managers tried to be well arranged, concentrative, unbiased and have no emotional interest (Mulford, 2002). Within transformational leadership, the role of the principal leaders changes from being a manager to becoming more of an administrative teacher.

Liontos, (1992) explained his findings that Principals must know that to absolutely effect students' learning, they must cultivate and improve a more favorable school environment. No any special reflection or achievement is openly seen as a reason on how school heads change academic settings so that there could be a total change in the classroom activities. It consequently becomes very significant that college leaders be conscious of the type of administrative styles or behaviors that can positively affect school environment and, ultimately, students' learning.

Student's performance in Nigerian schools, particularly, that of secondary schools has become a problem that demands concern and attention (Nwadian, 2012). This is important because the literature shows clearly that what differentiate between high performances with low-performance schools are attributed to the leadership styles in

the unity schools. The government pays less attention to leadership styles in unity and non-unity schools, and hence, they tend to produce students with low-performance quality (Adegbesan, 2011). This has become a national problem that demands attention and action from the stakeholders as its impacting negatively on the country well-being. Some setback is noticed in National economic growth. During the last two decades, the school improvement in Nigeria has continued to decline because the government pays little attention to school 'leadership styles (Adegbesan, 2010). There is a clear disparity between good functioning schools that use transformational leadership styles with those that do not. As a result, there is negative and positive school-related outcomes between these schools ranging from dropout rates to delinquency to high academic performance leading to successful school completion (Nwadian, 2010).

The federal government white paper on education recommends that there must be a policy cutting through the 6-3-3-4 system (NPE, 2006). However, the system is dysfunctional because not all are opportune to go to school as only about 59% of our Nigeria youth gets an opportunity to attend school. This is all due to the failure of giving emphasis to the importance of leadership and taking Laissez-faire attitudes towards schools administration. Imposing a strong civic education (citizenship education) into the re-designed school's curriculum in Nigeria can instill patriotism which will surely improve school achievement in our educational system (NPE, 2006). If the existing problem is left unattended, there will be issues of poor standard of education leading to low national economic growth (Dania & Eboh, 2013). Also, more semi-skilled or unskilled labor force will be produced, and consequently, low productivity rate will continue to bed-evil Nigerian society (Adeyemi, 2010).

Over the last decade or two, there has been much debate and research attempts to study transformational leadership style and teacher's job performance (Nwadian, 1998; Adeyemi, 2006). One keeps wondering who amongst the two could contribute to better school improvement. It is therefore assumed that since most scholars are of the view that, there should be a balance between transformational leader and teacher in terms of productivity to bring about student performance, there should equally be a good and functional working environment (school environment) and a caring principal leader to bring total sanity into our educational system (Adeyemi, 2010). Most studies were conducted by scholars on how effective principal leadership has impacted on teacher's performance, but this research will focus on how the collaboration of leadership efforts with the school environment and school improvement can impact on federal and state government schools in Nigeria.

1.4   Research Objectives

The reason why this study was conducted was to study the influence of Transformational Leadership styles and school Environment towards School improvement in federal government schools (Unity) and State Schools (Non-unity). Currently, one of the important issues that require considerable attention is the quality of education that is being delivered to Nigerian citizens. This is because education is strongly believed to be instruments that accelerate development of human resources Bello, (2010). Hence, the need for the current study. The need to explore the expected relative impact of leadership style on the school environment, leadership style on school improvement and leadership style on both school environment and school improvement in federal government colleges' and state colleges in Nigeria actualized the use of multiple regression analysis in this research.

There were many researches on leadership styles in numerous parts of the learning institutions around the north-western part of Nigeria, but you hardly get fully research literature that compares the impact of managerial abilities on academic settings or managerial abilities on academic improvement. This research is all out to investigate the relative impact of the said managerial abilities on school environment and school improvement and even to weigh the contributions of some demographic variables on the said federal government schools to find out their contributions to school improvement. While the federal government schools in North-western Nigeria are positioned as the highest academic achievers in senior school certificate examinations in the Northwestern part of Nigeria, (FGN, 2004), a lot of state-owned secondary schools are failing woefully in the same senior school certificate examinations, and therefore the study is intended for federal and state secondary schools.

Many scholars like (Mackey, 2006; and Mees, 2008) as sighted in (House 1975; Sackney, 1998) declared that education administrators must understand the ways that school management and academic settings influence academic improvement, as suggested by LeClear (2005) that there is the dying need for school administrators to work towards actualizing academic improvement through the utilization of good academic settings. This numerical investigation was intended to inspect hand-picked variables that might have led to the outright failure of non-unity schools within the North-western Nigeria on SSCE in compares with the unity schools.

This study examined different leadership as well as the school environment in various schools within the unity and non-unity schools in North-western Nigeria. Various educational stakeholders have rallied around the same feelings that

examining the impact of leadership style and school environment by including other beneficial factors like student attendance, family/settings, and socioeconomic background will bring all of them into conclusion on the realization of the desired and the actual goal.

This research is intended:

1   To examine the level of Leadership Style, school environment and School improvement in Nigerian Unity and non-unity Schools.

2   To differentiate the level of leadership style, school environment and school improvement of unity schools on the achievement of non-unity secondary schools;

3   To differentiate the level of leadership style, School environment and school improvement on gender in Nigerian unity and non-unity Schools;

4   To examine the relationship between Leadership style, School environment and School improvement in Nigerian Unity & Non-Unity Schools.

5   To examine the influence of Leadership style on the School environment and School improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity Schools.

1.5   Research Questions

1.   What is the level of transformational leadership style, school environment and school improvement in Nigerian Unity and non-unity Schools?

2.   Is there any significant difference between unity schools and non-unity schools regarding transformational leadership style, school environment, and school improvement?

3.   In the demographic aspects, is there a significant difference in Gender in

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relation to transformational leadership style, school environment and school improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools?

4. Is there a significant correlation between transformational leadership style, school environment and school improvement in Nigerian Unity and non-unity Schools?

5. Do transformational leadership style and school environment significantly influence school improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools?

1.6   Research Hypothesis

There are a total of ten alternative hypotheses that are created from the five lumped questions that must be examined to have the desired result on the expected aims of the investigation:

1. There is a significant difference between Unity Schools and Non-unity Schools regarding Leadership style in Nigeria.

2. There is a significant difference between Unity Schools and Non-unity Schools regarding School Environment in Nigeria.

3. There is a significant difference in-between Unity Schools and Non-unity Schools regarding School Improvement in Nigeria.

4. There is a substantial Gender difference on the perspective of Leadership Style in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

5. There is a substantial Gender difference from the perspective of academic setting in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

6. There is a substantial Gender difference from the perspective of School improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

7. There is a substantial correlation between Leadership Style and School improvement in Nigerian unity and Non-Unity schools.

8. There is a substantial correlation between school environment and school improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

9. Leadership Style substantially influences School improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

10. School Environment substantially influences School improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-Unity Schools.

11. School Environment dimensions significantly influence School Improvement.

1.7   Research Conceptual Framework

Research findings relating to the connection in-between managerial ability and academic setting indicates inconsistency. Some studies report positive relationship, (Loukas, 2007) between the two variables, while Wertheimer, (2006) reports negative relationship. Where positive relationship is reported, it is associated with the leader's efforts of using transformational leadership to have common bond between leader and followers in trying to collaborate to produce collective changes in the school (Marques & Huston, 2000) and for negative relationship, it is attributed to negligence of the leader to harmonize working relations with his subordinates (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

The transformational leader and school environment are considered as independent variables, whereas school improvement serves as a dependent variable. These variables are charged with the responsibility of developing and initiating programs that will check the function of principal and teachers as they effect changes in the

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performance of schools (Hallinger, 2014). Research conducted by Sackney, (1998) observed that staff performances are regularly collected and deliberated upon by environment-changing leaders for the sake of making a resolution and maintaining continuous staff development program. These arrangements can entirely modify or improve an academic setting and improve academic improvement. Hence, the hypothesis that state: Leadership style will significantly influence the outcome variables of the School setting and School improvement in Nigeria Secondary Schools.
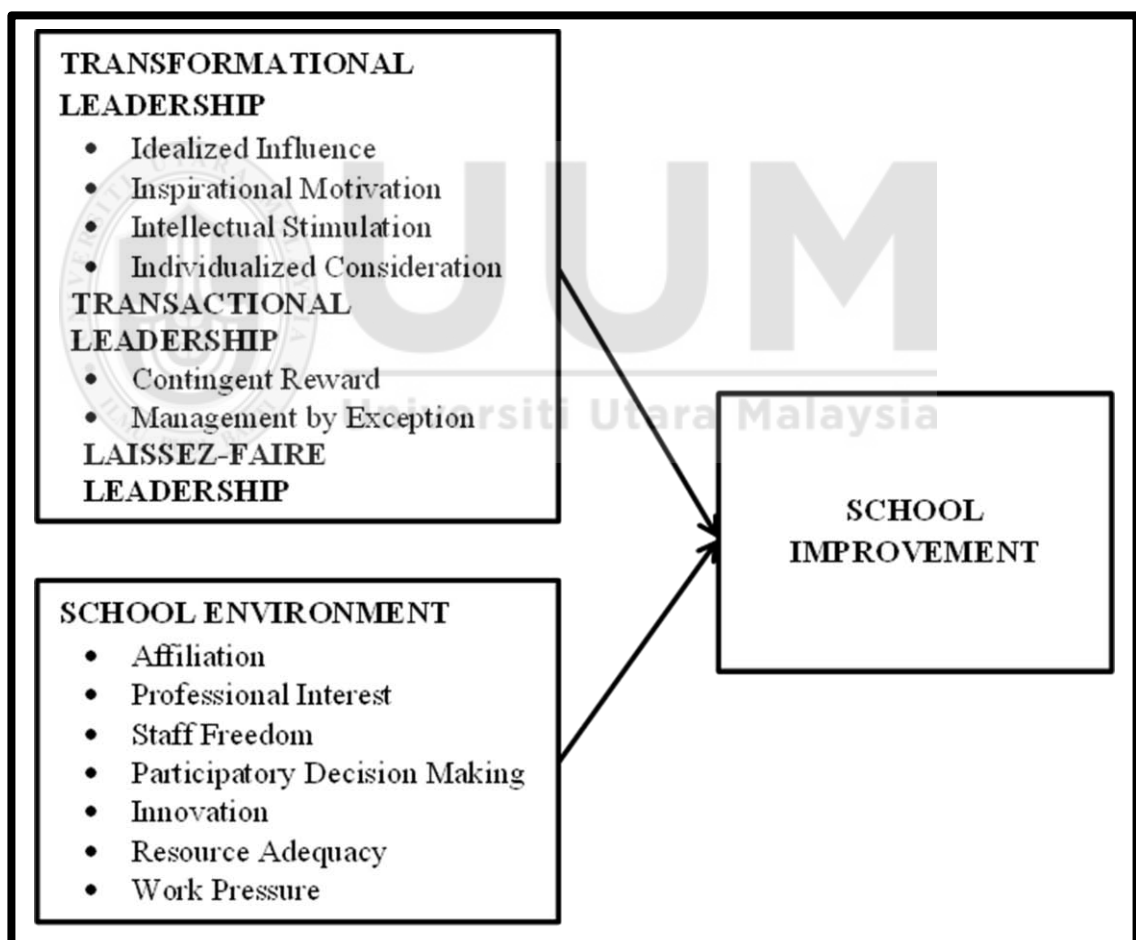
Figure1.1. Research/Conceptual Framework

The above diagram suggests a direct relationship between the academic settings and academic improvement. This is because the availability of good scenic beauty, good

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building structures, good sitting arrangements, relevant books, laboratory equipment, language and science laboratories and other educational facilities to facilitate students' performance. In other words, students participate and get fully engaged in the learning process when provided with a conducive academic environment. Liebermann (1990) reported on the possibility of having an absolute connection between managerial ability and academic improvement. He pointed academic improvement is a school driven effort to improve teaching so that the school can improve. Moreover, the negative aspect is associated with the lack of principal's effort to harnessed resources in making sure that the school improves (Zandralyn, 2006).

School achievement is the monitoring of how leadership contributes to the general increase in students' academic performance over time (Hallinger, 2014). Large bodies of scholars were holding on the fact that whenever the managerial ability is improved in quality, the quality of academic performance in learners will equally improve as (Lambert, 2003) explained that, with improved instructional leadership (principal) at the building level, schools performance academically would improve.

The main intention of any teaching strategy, curriculum, or educational changes initiative is to uplift school achievement and to increase individuals' knowledge and children's readiness for future endeavors (Hallinger, 2012). As the standard-based education crusade has positioned in recent times, mounting and recording student attainment has become an, even more, composite portion of community education. Improvement of student achievement has always been one of the main goals of education.

In one of his findings (Bush, 2007) reported there is also a growing acknowledgment that schools need real heads and institutional managers if they are to offer the finest talented teaching for their pupils. In the past years, scholars and educators have piloted many reports compilation and investigations to establish the factors that affect student achievement positively or negatively, and hence, some scholars believe that there are some categories of student's behaviour, the environment they live and learn as the major provider of student achievement (House, 2002).

The achievement goal theory is used as the theory that relates to success in schools. The most current example of the concept of goal as motive tradition is the theory of accomplishment (Urdan, 1997). One of the most important disputes of theory of accomplishment is that dependent on their specific determinations, accomplishment ambitions impact on academic improvement via differences in the worth of intellectual self-regulation measures.

In his findings (Pintrich, 1999) reported that mental self-regulation signifies to learners being dynamically occupied in the learning process, including inspecting the burdens of college coursework, predicting for and assembling their resources to encounter these problems, and nursing their development toward achievement of tasks. Hence, the managerial ability will substantially impact on the academic improvement in federal secondary schools in Nigeria.

The relationship between school environment and achievement is positive when a school has a good transformational leader ((Hallinger & Heck, 1998). Due to the inconsistences in the research findings, this study would re-examine the possibility of relationship within the context of unity schools in Nigeria. There are various efforts of scholars explaining the meaning of leadership in the literature. Leadership

is a hard issue or phenomenon that is relative to management. It is considered as a concept that makes individuals have the ability to guide, direct and convince others to look for specific and definite objectives that joined a group together towards the achievement of the said goals (Peretomode, 2012). Managerial ability according to (Pierce & Newstrom, 2006) is the performance of or demanding intentional authority on one or group of people, with the aim of guiding achievement to the achievement of some common aims having an instant result on subordinates. Every day, managers are challenged with the duty of interrelating with their subordinates by attending to their difficulties and guiding them to an envisioned achievement.

In the words of (Kotter, 1990) management can also be well-defined as an achievement that copies and positions individuals. However, scholars like (Depree, 1989 & Gardner, 1990) saw leadership as the skill of bringing together interactions in both official and unofficial ways and inspiring others to progress and cherish, accomplish responsibilities and benefit from the process. Garfield (1986) reported some ultimate actors who inferred task into exercise always ready to change, produce and to fulfill the goals of their assignments by drawing lessons from it, and to typify the expression that says "to always improve my skill every second of my work."

Some scholarly works executed by (Bennis, 1989) proved that sometimes it is hard to define leadership because it is seemingly magnificence as it is sometimes very hard to define, but you distinguish it whenever you see it. Like it happens in any other educational institutions, institutional management can be observed from the viewpoint of instructors, learners, overseers, close relative and public, which sometimes becomes very unclear to categorize some significant leadership abilities

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(Orozco, 1999). The ability of the school leader to cooperate with the above-listed stakeholders in bringing about school achievement describes a vibrant transformational leader.

Transformational leadership is the common bond between leaders and the lead trusting themselves, where leader sort to raise the followers need to get higher by convincing and to motivate them to be committed to their jobs to achieve a stated goal. Transformational leadership as an interaction resulting from trusting each other appear in a positive effect on followers and leaders by generating unity of purpose and wholeness. Marques and Huston (2000) described that managerial change as contact in-between managers and their subordinates that has joined reliance between themselves having the same goals which are consistent and stable with the goals of the group. Going by the above definitions, it suffices to say that managerial change is the common bond between managers and their subordinates. Managers are expected to raise the subordinates to need by substantiating and motivating them to be committed to their jobs to achieve a stated goal.

Transformational leadership comprises of many types of organizations, including schools (Bass, 1998), and involves several leadership practices and behaviors that bring about organizational change (DuBrin, 2006). In their recent investigation (Robinson et al., 2008) explained that school administrators who are transformational can easily pin point and explain a school dream, inspire others by example, encourage a philosophy of intelligent inspiration, and provide sustenance and growth to individual staff members. In-between 1991 and 1994 (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass and Avolio, 1994) pointed that there are a total of four diverse practices

that are addressed in transformational leadership theory: stimulating incentive, personalized reflection, perfect inspiration (charisma), and intelligent inspiration.

In transformational leadership theory, there are two extra managerial essentials with subdivisions of exercises: functional management and non-functional management. These two renowned scholars (Bass & Avolio, 1994) explained that functional management is focussing on a modest conversational connection with subordinates, including the put into practice of reliant on reward and administration by exclusion (active). Non-functional management is the nonappearance of management that includes administration by exclusion (passive) and non-interventionist management. Strong change managers tend to also display robust functional management attempts, but would not display administration by exclusion (passive) or non-interventionist management (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Shatzer et.al, (2014) explained that, the following mechanisms and training should be distinguished so that they can be understood and compared by Leaders inspiring subordinates that have foresight of the forth-coming Stimulating incentive; leaders understanding the personal needs of their subjects by evolving them through coaching- Individualized consideration; the level at which managers impact subordinates by examples (model), needing confidence, appreciation, and reverence- Idealized influence (charisma); the level at which managers inspire novelty and conflicting rational, making a situation of imagination by stimulating standards and enchanting intended dangers- Intellectual stimulation; an extent to which leaders inaugurate creative contacts with their subjects- Contingent reward; process that involves expecting difficulties and watching subordinates performance to take curative action before problems become severe- Management by exception-active; practice of carelessness on duty- Management by exception-passive; the absence or anticipation of managerial

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ability, characterized by anticipation of accountability, inefficiency, and little bearing or backing- Laissez-faire leadership.

As reported by (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006) managerial change was pointed at the desired managerial ability for school managers bearing in mind considerable improvement, as change management is the strength of managerial change itself. This two scholars by name (Bogler, 2005; Griffith, 2004) explained that managerial change by managers of schools had been related with optimistic consequences or outcomes such as improvements in the academic setting and tutor and worker relations. Nevertheless, there is a pathetic attachment in-between managerial change and learner's academic improvement (Leithwood et al., 2006; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006). In six hundred and sixty-five primary schools in England, Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) found that there are solid uninterrupted effects of managerial change on instructors' motivation and the academic settings, yet could not explain the adjustment in learners improvement proliferations on senior school exams. In the same way, (Ross & Gray, 2006) gathered information from basic colleges in Canada and found that managerial change had a strong straight impact on instructor obligation and tutor self-efficacy, but pitiful indirect effects on pupil's academic improvement.

The two prominent scholars (Greenberg & Baron, 2000) explained that leadership is also an issue involving non-coercive influence built on optimistic feelings prevailing between managers and their followers. Leadership exists everywhere in the world and every organization. It is seen as an issue that resides on one's understanding of value creation (Cashman, 2000). He further theorized that managerial change is about enabling, group management, growth, scholarship, and dream. Cashman

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compared managerial change to functional management as a method where managers bargain some payment or incentive as reimbursement for the attainment of objects. He observed the two approaches as harmonizing and accompanying. In his estimation, functional change paid much attention to the upkeep roles of an academic institution, but as noted before, a managerial change is related to school growth. On the other hand (Liontos, 1992) measured functional management as management for the give-and-take of services (teacher providing learning opportunities to students, for instance) for numerous types of recompenses (such as a salary) which the manager, at least in part, reins. In a research undertaking by this scholars (Mitchell & Tucker, 1992; Liontos, 1992) they observed this form of managerial ability as functioning only when both managers and subordinates comprehend and are in an arrangement about which responsibilities are significant.

however, to some scholars, on the other hand, functional management is so sufficient, as sighted in (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio; 1990; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006) they stated that, functional management is usually adequate for upholding the positions, managerial change is progress oriented for the tenacity of modification. Grounded on these possibilities as part of the eight core college variables (Silins & Mulford, 2002) viewed managerial change as having a control on both structural and separate knowledge. This is as a result of, the school manager's role that is an important one in enabling educational reform in general. The reframing of academic institutions is part and parcel of incessant development for learning institutions. From the perspective of school efficiency (Scheerens, 1992) educational management does not continuously have to come down to the scuffles of one main manager. For example, in institutes, deputy managers, in particular, fulfill educational management tasks.

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Evidently, there is connection amongst transformational leadership style and school environment when talking about school achievement. This can be seen in the leaders 'efforts to harness all resources available in one's school by co-opting all the stakeholders in his leadership transparency. Respective principals source and provide schools with all the required educational materials to boost education and students' performance. We can equally notice the contribution of the later in giving a listening ear to the needs of the society by turning to teachers and schools and providing what the schools need to attain the organizational objectives to excel. As a result of direct contact with students, teachers are seen as an enabler and a motivator for student performance.

Paying attention to the maintenance of organizational structures and routines are the main goals and objectives of organizational leadership theory. Taylor (1994) stated that studying an individual concerning educational leadership model did not necessitate why there should be research studies until the 1980's. There are four organizational models (structural, human, political and symbolic). Each of the models is based on a set of assumptions of situational variables, which were used to develop a corresponding theory of school leadership (Bowman and Deal, 1991).

A transformational leader is also said to be influential to school achievement. School achievement can be influenced in no small measure if approach rightly. This can be seen when the US department of education both states and locals came up with a decision to modify the curriculum stating that civic education should be introduced to replace the rudimental learning impacted in schools by principals and their teachers (Wertheimer, 2006). This action was intended to produce a democratic

citizen as against an ordinary citizen who does not look up-ward to making his country great

In his findings, (Schein, 1992) described managers as people who must become aware of the environment of which they belong to and have become a part. Bulach (46:2001) Concord by reporting that "a school manager that stiffen up to recognize his or her institutions' prevailing environment at the time of trying change it will meet with a serious conflict. Hence, (Glickman, 2003) observed that "Administrators must discriminate the acknowledged leaders in a school plus assumed unimportant people who may make the school more effective or one that can be of a great hindrance. The school environment is also learned through rites and rituals. Principals according to Deal and Peterson (1999) can figure environment by sharing in and inspiring the formalities that revel imperative standards. Moreover, according to (Schmoker, 1996) formalities are an addition to the customs. They are multifaceted, socially authorized way to rejoice achievement, connect standards, and to differentiate between social supports of workers and scholars. These celebrations make available an actual source of nurturing an ambition-oriented philosophy where enhancement determinations are strengthened and accepted.

Liebermann, (1990) observed that School achievement is a school driven effort to improve instruction (teaching) so that the school can improve. School achievement is the monitoring of how leadership contributes to the general increase of students' academic performance over time, across various schools (Hallinger, 2014). Academic achievement was defined in various forms: as the certain position of skills obtained in education or specially acquired skills in schools that are not measured through examination (Kohl, 1975).

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The underpinning theory for school achievement is the Goal Achievement model. The plain argument of this model is liable on their drives, attainment goals differentially impact on academic improvement through changes in the superiority of reasoning character-regulation procedures. According to the idea of some scholars, mental alertness is highly needed in the process of academic improvement, hence (Pintrich 1999, Zimmerman et al. 1994) mentioned that mental self-regulation defines a situation where students are fully involved in their learning process. These include revising loads of school tasks, preparation for and activating their ways to come across these demands, and inspecting their encroachment to the accomplishment of jobs. It means that one's goals attainment is always persuading the dominance, efficiency, and appropriateness of logical methods which in turn, regulates the excellence of one's endeavors.

As been reiterated earlier in this chapter, there are essentially two basic types of objectives that are carefully trained by the unique method, and or evasion situation of the essential theory that compel a specific emphasis on learning. Again, these include educational goals; and routine goals,

Even though scientists have given predilection to diverse relationships for educational purposes, such as mission-goals (Nicholls 1984) or mastery objectives ((Roberts 1992), there is universal trust that irrespective of these changes, educational objectives refer to combined ability, responsiveness, and gratitude for what is being well-read. Likewise, there is the general preparation that accomplishment of a goal, whether referred to as ego-goals (Thorkildsen & Nicholls 1998) or self-enhancing purposes (Skaalvik 1997), comprises of beating others as a source of inspiring one's aptitude position at the expense of peers.

There are several theories that explain leadership styles. These among others include the Weber's Political Leadership Theory, Traditional Theory, Self-evident(theory) popularly known as the Great Man Approach, Trait Theory, Path-Goal Theory and Organizational Leadership Theory. Each of this theory has relevance to this study. Thus, each of the theory is briefly discussed regarding its relevance to the study. However, transactional and transformational leadership is considered more relevant because of the focus the theory has on schools leadership. The relevance of this theory to the study is extensively discussed herein. Also, the Bass and Alveoli's Transformational Leadership Model was also adopted to measure the school leader's leadership styles. The Cognitive Theory is discussed in relation to school environment while the Achievement Goal Theory discusses the issue of school's achievement. The theoretical underpinnings of the above-mentioned theories as discussed below provide the basis upon which the theoretical framework of this study is built.

Very many investigations were carried out by different scholars the world over on demanding to establish a clear explanation of managerial ability. However, the struggles ended-up in trying to answer the bottle-necks demanding to know;

1) The peculiar qualities or features of a good leader

2) The designs of a good managerial behavior

3) The manager's methods to decision making and;

4) The managers react to obtain the backing of their subordinates

Literature criticism in this study offers an inaugural to the study by bringing in some dialogue on the managerial ability that impacts the school manager's managerial ability towards academic settings and academic improvement of some selected

federal government schools in Nigeria. The literature review makes available past studies and examination of managerial abilities in an academic environment. The various discussions on managerial abilities and managerial change incline to recommend that the latter managerial abilities can help a school manager (principal) better in reaching the objective of converting the school. The investigation ended-up with deliberations in line with using the style to create a conducive academic setting for a definite academic improvement.

1.8   Theoretical Framework

The research took his time carefully in this measurable investigation using multiple regression analysis by coming out with three leadership theories that are commonly used. These theories, described below, are (1) Transformational Theories, (2) Transactional Theories, and (3) Laissez-faire Theories:

Transformational Theories**:** This theory centers upon the influences cutting across between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the mission. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfill his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards (Bass Avolio, 1990; Cherry, 2012).

Transactional Models**:** This model of management stresses on specific variables linked to the educational setting that might control which specific managerial trait is best suitable for the condition (Cherry, 2012). According to this theory, there is a contractual agreement or exchange between leaders and followers (Jung and Avolio, 2000). Some two prominent scholars on leadership by name (Bass & Avolio, 1990)

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described Laissez-faire Theories as The theory of leadership that refers to an action that relinquishes obligation, delays judgments, suggests no feedback, and makes little or no struggle to help subordinates fulfill their needs, achieve objectives, or grow personally. It is the care-free attitude to management. There are various definitions of management as attributed by many schools example; many scholars see managerial ability as a system or pattern of regulator originating from a hierarchy of governmental control which engages the use of workers in making managerial decisions to resolve practical problems (Miller & Rowan, 2006). Bass (1990) suggested that leadership are those effort exacted by a manager to control subordinates without much problem in the attainments of goals and objectives. However, a manager according to Pierce & Newstrom (2006) is the act of exacting intentional authority on one or group of people by a person, with the intention of providing and advising on action towards the accomplishment of some mutual goals that has an instant effect on members of a particular group. On a daily basis, leaders are charged with the responsibility of interacting with their followers by listening to their problems and directing them towards an intended success.

1.8.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders always voice-out the importance and values that are connected with desired outcomes in ways that are simply viewed while explaining higher levels of expectations for followers (Conger and Konungo, 1987). James McGregor Burns in 1978 first introduced the use of the concept leadership style (Burns, 1978). Bass improved Burns' initial overview of leadership styles (Liontos, 1992). Two scholars by name Burns and Bass learned on political managers, army officers, and business managers (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Liontos, 1992).

Leithwood and his associates presented to the field of education the study of transformational leadership (Stewart, 2006).

The prolonged study done on transformational leadership has not fashioned any contract or accord on the idea for the model (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999: Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). The absence of a well-known meaning does not mean that the idea is not relevant, especially during the time's education is facing vast modifications in education (Antonakis & House, 2002, Hay, 2006). Transformational leadership brings about a simple method to transformation, which permits a leader's smartness and the context to differ (Bass, 1990; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Simplicity allows establishments to solve teething troubles (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Marks & Printy, 2003) while raising subordinates' duty, interest, agreement, and inspiring the manager and the subordinates to be more dedicated in support established transformation (Burns, 1978; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

Leadership is branded as an idea that is playing an important role in ensuring great returns in education as an investment (Bantwini & Letseka, 2016). Leader's efforts in making subordinates committed to purpose are very important, and for a Transformational Leader to admit change, especially during indecision (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Marks & Printy, 2003). Assurance brings about higher individual output on behalf of the establishment (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, (2005) stated that higher productivity authorizes the organization to reach its intentions. Also (Hay, 2006; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006) stated that the commitment of organization members is also influenced by the motivational degree of their change managers.

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The most difficult issue in attaining managerial change is the management process (Shukla, 1999). Several investigators (Singh & Bhandarker, 1990, Tichy & Devanna, 1986, as cited in Shukla, 1999) made it very clear that standards can be improved and are brought about through change managers. The positional intention of an establishment to learn can also be received through change managers.

Nevertheless, there is a significant obstacle in-between the styles of managers and leaders (Shukla, 1999). Change managers are known to be less of managers and more of leaders. All successful managerial differences are characterized by an individual manager who can assist as a performer for the transformation, and whose existence, action, and touch have some distinct feeling or magic (Nadler, 45:1988). Rolls, (1996) stated that the change manager offers an important set of conditions under which workers can unfold, transform, grow and flourish in uncertainty.

The change managers become a model on determinations to teach skills needed to make an establishment grow in the direction of becoming a learning establishment. What is apparent about change managers is their visionary ability. This means the skills to imagine, elevate, and allow the actions inside an establishment. Shukla (1999) cited (Tushman, Newman & Nadler, 1988) in arguing that:

1. The imagining abilities support in judiciously listing a trustworthy and clear dream of the establishment that leads to the creation of new and difficult goals, and redesigning history to bring about egotism and interest for the current mission;

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2. The energizing skills subside the energy and interest of people for attaining new goals. Managers attain this by the display of personal happiness and active involvement with goals and processes of change; and

3. Empowering abilities are seen in the manager's aptitude to care, inspire and reward the efforts in line with change. The leaders use their skills to build inventive ways and practices to energize people to participate in the change.

The unrealistic skills of the managers encouraging the creation of knowledge, and seemingly unbearable goals to inspire people to change their assumptions about work, and to explain their tasks and performance. Operational vision building brings about an organization-wide sequence of vision, discussion, and questioning, and often results in a redefining of the institute's operating paradigm (Shukla, 1999). The manager can help develop learning-oriented practices, which move the establishment into becoming open to the idea of continuous change and renovation.

In educational surroundings, according to McGregor (1978, as cited in Bollington, 1999), change management is seen as an approach to management, which emphasizes engaging people in a shared vision for the establishment. The entire approaches towards modification as regards management emphasize emotions and values (Yukl, 1999) and frequently share the important aim of encouraging capacity development and higher ranking of personal commitment to managerial goals on the part of manager's colleagues.

Increased capacities and commitments are expected to have resulted from additional efforts rendered and greater productivity. Authority and influence associated to change management are not necessarily attached to those occupying formal

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managerial positions, although much of the literature adopts such perspectives. Power is attributed by managerial members to whoever can encourage their efforts to collective yarning's, and the craving for own and shared skills acquisitions over the power expected to realize the yarning's.

An encroaching proof endorses that actions related with transformation in management may be widely distributed throughout the institute (Leithwood, Jantzi, Earl, Fullan, & Levin, 2004). Southworth (1998) for example inserted that change management is concerned with school progress. He argued that change management be about enabling, team management, growth, learning, and vision. He compared change management to functional management, an approach where managers offer some remuneration or motivation in return for the attainment of goals.

Southworth viewed the two approaches as "complementary and auxiliary." In his view, functional management focuses primarily on the maintenance functions of an academic institution, while, as noted before, change management is concerned with institutional growth. Liontos (1992) considered transactional leadership as leadership for an exchange of services (e.g., from a teacher) because of different kinds of incentives (in the form of salary), which the leader, at least in part, controls. Mitchell & Tucker (1992), as cited in Liontos, (1992) regarded this form of management as working only when both managers plus subordinates are in trust and clear understanding of the tasks that are important. While (Bass, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1990) as cited in (Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006) stated that, functional management is adequate for upholding the position, of change is considered as the basis for transformational leadership because it is development oriented.

According to Scheerens et al. (89:2007), these perspectives of educational management are stimulated by the concept of the learning establishment, and haven't brought about clear disability with the well-developed conceptualizations of educational leadership, but emphasize the cultural and the staffing mode of schooling. Functional and change management provide incentives and create consensus on goals for staff motivation. The job related and working academic setting of the school manager has become surprisingly more tedious, cumbersome and distorted over the years (Fullan (1991). Evidently, as reiterated by Chell (1995), the position of the school manager is transitional for a very long time, rolling from the principal as a teacher manager or manager teacher, to the school manager as a functional manager and, most recently, as a change manager. In the words of Bollington (1999) change management is observed as having the capability to transform an academic setting and to create the conditions for enhancement. More precisely Hopkins, Ainscow, and West (1998) pointed at some features of management, which out rightly becomes a basis for changing the academic institution. These include:

1. creating a lucid dream for the academic institution;

2. appreciating task-relevant knowledge;

3. constructing positive interactions between managers and subordinates;

4. promise of widespread contribution in decision making;

5. two-way vertical and horizontal interaction patterns; and

6. Acknowledgement that management is a function to which many staff contributes, rather than a set of responsibilities vested in an individual.

Other scholars criticized these models developed by the proponents of organizational leadership theory. Hallinger and Heck (1998) for example stated that by focusing on

the principal's effect on school effectiveness and achievement, it would focus less on the intermediate concepts such as the school's objectives and morals. This model captures covered everything that it takes for bigger and important results but discarded the networks that exist between the work leaders should be doing and the teaching activities that should be done in the school (Elmore, 2000). Apart from the conceptualization of Hopkins, Ainscow, and West (1998), other powerful authors include Bass and Avolio (1993), Leithwood, Tomlinson and Genge (1996), and Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999). Their conceptualization of change management is built on the idea that in many institutes tutors works self-sufficiently and are quite often considered as the neglected partners in progress. This brings a barrier to the growth of tutors and the institute as a whole. This suggests that the school manager should not interfere directly with curriculum and instructional affairs, but primarily changing the school in such a way that collegial planning, partnership, and experimentation in school improvement become possible.

The main task of the school manager is to create an academic work setting in which tutors come together and, consequently, they and the school develop. A similarity between these authors concerns the features assigned to change management expressed into dimensions. Leithwood, Tomlinson and Genge (1996) differentiate between the following three dimensions: Charm/inspiration/vision: inspiring tutors to be involved in their labour by increasing, identifying, and noticing an important insight; Private (Individual) deliberation: uneasiness and admiration for the personal feelings and needs of teachers; and Intelligent stimulation: stimulating tutors to professionalise in such a manner that the organisation as a whole is learning. Moreover, this can be seen in the Leithwood's model of transformational leadership.

Geijsel (2001) concluded in her study, that when school managers score highly on these aspects, teachers are more successful in implementing required educational changes. Describing the nature and effects of institutional change management, Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) differentiate the following eight dimensions: maintaining high expectations; giving intellectual stimulation; modelling managerial values; providing individual support; building co-operative philosophies; developing shared vision among staff; creating assemblies for participation in decision-making; building consensus about school goals.

There are similarities between these eight dimensions and the six dimensions of school managers change management practices as defined by Silins and Mulford (2002), Yu, Leithwood and Jantzi (2002), Silins, Mulford, and Zarins (2002), and Mulford (2003) in their research:

1. Vision and goals: The extent to which the school manager works toward whole staff consensus for the sake of listing some important issues needed by the school authority and broadcasting this issues and goals to pupils and their tutors thereby directing a sense of general tenacity;

2. climate: This is a situation whereby the school leader has to encourage a climate of trust, understanding and care amongst staff, prepare a recognized sense of interaction with learners and show that he has agreed to substitute his ugly practices with new and good ones to show that he has acquired new knowledge;

3. Environment: Is representing the way in which the school manager creates a school structure that inspires collective policy, supports collective and distributive leadership and encourages teacher autonomy for making decisions;

4. Intellectual stimulation: This is the manner by which the school manager inspires staff to reflect on their attainment by associating with students, and how they do it; facilitates opportunities for staff to learn from each other and put into practice the theory of educational continuity according to his understanding;

5. Individualized support: The extent to which the school manager encourage ethical support, displays satisfaction with staff job performance and takes their opinion into account when making decisions; and

6. Performance expectation: The extent of pupils and tutor's high expectations from the principal warrants effective and inventive tendencies of staff.

Based on their study, Silins and Mulford (2002) regarded transformational leadership as having an impact on both organizational and individual learning because the principal's role is a significant one in facilitating school restructuring. Particularly, the restructuring of schools as educational bodies. From a school effectiveness perspective, Scheerens (1992), as cited in Scheerens et al., (2007) and in Scheerens, Glasman and Thomas (2003) stated that educational management (pedagogic tasks) does not always have to come down to the efforts of one main leader. For example, in schools deputy heads, in particular, fulfill educational management tasks.

A key point is a delegation because partaking in decision-making could result from consensus on the basic mission of the school. Consequently, certain effects of pedagogic leadership such as a homogeneous team will fulfill a self-generating function and act as a substitute for school leadership. According to Kerr's (1977) idea of 'substitutes for management' (Scheerens, 1992), perception concurred with a study of 137 principals and vice-principals in Toronto as reported by Fullan (1996,

as cited in Fullan, 2000). In this study, researchers found that 91% of school managers and their deputies have responded negatively to the research question how do you think the school manager can effectively fulfill all the responsibilities assigned to him/her.

Change management enhances the stimulus, confidence, and enactment of subordinates from different ways. That includes linking the workers sense of commitment to the project and the collective identity of the school; as part of mentoring for followers that inspires them and makes them interested; challenging workers to be more committed to their jobs, hence, understanding the strengths and limitations of subordinates, so that the head can associate followers with tasks that enhance their performance. There are four elements of change management (Conger, 1992):

1. Individualized (workers) Consideration – the extent to which the school manager attends to each co-worker's demands, behaving as inspiring agent for colleagues and listens to the subordinates interest and yarning's. The manager gives empathy and support, keeps communication open and places tasks on the subordinates. This also includes all the need for respect and celebrates the individual influence that every subordinate can be carried along. This subordinates possess a will and objectives for self-development and have intrinsic motivation for their tasks.

2. Intellectual (encouragement) Stimulation – This is the degree, to which the principal takes to assumptions, takes risks and solicits subordinates' ideas. School manager with this style stimulates and encourage innovations in their subordinates. They appreciate and build people who think on their own. For

such a school manager, learning is a value and unexpected circumstances that are seen as chances to learn. The subordinates ask questions, think deeply concerning issues and provide improved methods to achieve their missions.

3. Articulating a vision (Inspirational Motivation) – the extent by which the head expresses a dream which is appealing and inspiring to followers. Managers with stimulating the drive to task subordinates with ideals, joint-optimism about future goals, and provide meaning for the task at hand. Subordinates need to have a strong sense of purpose if they are to be encouraged to act, the use of purpose and meaning provide the strength that moves a group forward. The visionary aspects of management are supported by skills of contact that make the dream coherent, precise, powerful and engaging. The subordinates are willing to devote more energy to their duties; they are stimulated and optimistic about the future and believe in their abilities.

4. Overemphasized power (Idealized Influence) – Offers an example for extraordinary ethical behavior and instills pride, gains respect, and trust.

1.8.2   Transformational Leadership theories

This theory stated that Transformational Leadership is sufficient for maintaining ideas within staff members, poster the spirit of togetherness and motivate each other for intellectual stimulation. Transformational Leadership Style is equally capable of inspiring and motivating followers to demonstrate a commitment to a shared vision (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

1.8.3   School Environment

According to (Sackney, 1998), an environment is simply defined as the general tradition and understanding of people's establishments (working environment). Academic setting essentially includes a standard and acceptable amalgamation of three factors. These three factors include the learner, the teacher, and the learning content. Considering the classroom setting on the side of an academic setting, we will understand that people at the different level of socialization are associating and dependent on each other (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana 1997). When we observe the behavior of people, we notice that what they do is remarkably influenced by where they are. They sit and listen in symphony concerts; browse and read in libraries; run and throw balls in ball games.

These habits show in behavior settings, and the habitual response is supported by these behavior settings are pretty much the same regardless of who the occupants are. A school may be regarded as an academic setting consisting of various behavior settings: preps, normal subject lessons, sports, instrumental music, and classes. The behaviors of both pupils and teachers are influenced by the behavior backgrounds they occupy. We might further propose that how a teacher teaches his students are all resulting from the behavior setting.

Past research has indicated Kounin (1976) establishing that teachers' techniques conducive to a high task involvement and little deviancy were reliant on whether the tutor was conducting a seatwork or recitation setting. For example, avoiding satiation by having connected task variety is useful in a class assignment not in

reading lessons; focusing upon the group and maintaining activity energy became useful in reading not in class assignment settings.

1.8.4 Cognitive theory of Environment

A thorough investigation was performed by (Gagnes, 1984) were he established that the cognitivist school of thought is chosen to explain the theory of school environment; he further explained that the cognitivist was initiated from the early second half of the twentieth century when scientist found that behaviourism did not justify for all types of knowledge. Cognitivist discards the behaviorist method which rejects mental measures (e.g., intelligence, retention, problem-solving and significance) the cognitive theory explained how people learn; limiting learning to observable changes in behavior alone, cognitivist focuses on the study of mental processes and uses it to explain knowledge. This impression links intelligence to a 'black box'- one that needs to be unlocked and discovered. The black box like the processor obtains data, examine it and then produces an output that may be deposited in the mind or shown in behavior (Semple, 2000). Knowledge can be viewed as schematic, that is, symbolic mental creations which are arranged or managed in mind, education emerges when there is a change in the learner's schemata. As such, the pupil is an active contributor in the practice of education, and his/her actions are a result of such thoughts.

The ecological link of this theory is that learning settings created around this paradigm encourages curiosity; provide study-oriented schemes and depicts understanding in a dramatic framework. Similar to behaviorism, cognitivist was classically arranged out like campuses and was not often surrounded in. They were

usually single or two-story buildings linked by different sidewalks, which offers accessible chances for the students to interrelate with the outdoors periodically, supporting the new method of the learning principles.

The lecture hall buildings contained students according to their rankings, usually with some sessions of one grade inhabiting a level or structure. This was a response to the admission explosion taken by the baby boomers. The lecture hall buildings were serially arranged and consisted of long corridors, skirted on together by classrooms. The inner design of the lecture hall did not change much, however, the teacher's desk was still located in front of the class, and the students still sat in rows and faced the teaching wall. The Matawan County High School of Matawan, New Jersey was constructed in 1960 and is an example of a physical, academic setting that reacts to the cognitive learning theory.

1.8.5   School Improvement

The relationships between theory and performing in the field of education are one of long standing, as the title of this thesis. Generations of critics and philosophers have lamented the insignificant influence put forth by the different existing models relating to school activities. The degree of effect has barely stemmed from the absence of struggles. Indeed, the theory base of education is both large and varied, with references beginning from the use of processors for drill and practice to mapping students' preferred modes of learning, all offered to increase the academic improvement levels of learners. Most theories directed toward studying share two primary features. First, they exist on the main believe on how students learn, with such beliefs collected from the field of educational psychology and regularly

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developed in controlled laboratory settings Hinely, R. (1979). Second, the majority of theories relating to school activities are intended clearly to increase student academic improvement, to enhance student self-concept, correct anomalies found in the school or redressed some of the expected minor issues found in the school. They are intended, in other words, to improve practice Kounin, (1979). Despite the comparatively large theory base in education and the many efforts to apply these models, school enterprise still exists in a stable, difficult status and resilient to change. Kounin, (1979) argued that explanations of class activities in modern times be diverse to those in other days of educational history, and even main activities are affected by exerted efforts to bring about change in the form of formidable set of curriculum projects funded by the National Science Foundation in the late 70s left small amount of it subsequently.

This distinguished lack of achievement in improving habit has typically spawned redoubled efforts to generate new theory, again envisioned to serve the function of advancement. However, in the last several centuries an unusual role of philosophy has added supremacy. This work describes practices done to improve the knowledge of the ways classrooms work (Hinely, 1979). Several key issues were distinguished between theorist and practicing professionals in the way they handle issues of development and use of theories. One of the first resemblance found in the two groups rests on the type of question they ask. The primary question for investigators with developmental interest is: Can issues ever change? For a theorist, at least three questions are of key importance:

1) A descriptive question-What appears to be happening here?
2) An analytical question-Why are these happenings occurring?

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3) Moreover, a question of assimilation-In the field of the school system, what does this action entails?

Maybe a design will help to better explain these differences. The ascendance of research-oriented questions toward describing and understanding of school incidents with the consequences also leading to additional activities within related areas of study such as the job of teaching and the school lives of students. In sum, the growing body of literature in the field of school research signals significant exit from the line established by preceding learning. Its search is for the causes of phenomena that occur in academic settings rather than the cures for supposed "ills" of schooling. It assumes that the academic setting plays a large role in shaping the behavior of its inhabitants. It suggests that the tutors and pupils who inhabit school actively construct their meanings for the events that occur there, and that they will be valued as abled members in the series of the studies. The growing body of research intended toward academic improvement describes an increasingly difficult portrait of the academic and behavioral systems existing there.

Studies left to deliver a unique knowledge of the workings of school will be time-consuming, intricate, and sometimes perplexing. Its products hold significant promise for the practices of schooling and the education of tutors, so that educational accountability can be easily achieved by school managers that possess the qualities of a change manager. If else, the directions suggested by the pieces in this issue offer the possibility that we may understand more totally why things work or fail, and that theory may approach more closely to the world of the practitioner. Educational responsibility is an effort of guaranteeing that education investor specifically the tutors that act instinctively in clearing their obligations to improve educational excellence (Bandele, 2007). Bandele additionally distinguished that middle school's

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education investors are many and every one of them is likely to have a say towards the awareness of the objectives which in Nigeria are calculated to produce talented graduates who will be useful not only to themselves but the country at large.

Responsibility in a school system is the duty on the part of the tutors to pass on the right type of knowledge to students in an active manner. Also, responsibility is more than obeying the laid down rules, it is currently seen as concerned with results, and the consideration of good governance is more on outputs than on inputs. That is why responsibility in the teaching profession is needed so that the goals of attaining quality education in schools which is the predictable education output will be achieved. Tutors who are the attention of this analysis and part of education stakeholders (Halle, Mokeki & Marinda 2011) are drivers of academic improvement and agents of student's academic improvement (Branford et al, 2005; Sacilotto-Vasylenko, 2013) who should therefore, act instinctively (Odunayo, 2014) and teach efficiently (Adegite, 2010) in line with the required instructions (Ohwoyibo, 2009) so that the total objective will not be crushed. This will ensure the attainment of not only quality education but the subsequent application of government policies and programs.

1.8.6 Achievement Goal theory and School Improvement

The greatest new personification of the motives-as-goals practice is Achievement Goal Theory (e.g., Urdan & Maehr 1995). The rudimentary argument of this model is that depending on their independent determinations, improvement goals differentially influence academic improvement through differences in the legitimacy of cognition. Cognitive self-regulation refers to students full participation in study

condition, such as analyzing the demands of school assignments, planning for/collecting the necessary items to measure up with the requirements to monitor their progress toward completion of assignments (Pintrich 1999, Zimmerman 1990, Zimmerman et al. 1994).

An individual accomplishment of goals is observed to affect the worth, preparatory and cogency of cognition, which later, control the quality of one's accomplishments. There are two general kinds of goals. They are closely followed by the original method, and or anticipated position of need theory that have contributed to the specific focus of study:

a) Learning goals; and

b) Performance goals

Even though investigators have given inclination to different titles for learning goals, such as *task-goals* (Midgley et al. 1998), or *mastery goals* (Ames 1992, Roberts 1992), there is an overall belief that regardless of these differences, learning goals refer to increasing one's competency, understanding, and appreciating the learnt materials. Also, there is the general believe that performance goal, whether referred to as ego-goals (Thorkildsen & Nicholls 1998) or ego-enhancing objectives (Skaalvik 1997), involve outperforming others as a means to elevate one's capability status at the expense of peers.

1.9   Study Delimitations and Limitations

There are various delimitations and limitations that this study will encounter as follows:

1.9.1 Delimitations

Delimitations refer quite often to the choices made by researchers. They help to explain the boundaries that have been set or identified by the research to justify what will be pursued and what the research will not. Among the delimitation that this study has are as follows:

1) The trial is restricted to Unity School managers and subordinates in the Federal government colleges located in the north western senatorial district of Nigeria through SS3 grade classrooms;

2) The Investigation members included only tutors and managers of each distinct school. This study does not contain all people within an academic setting. Moreover, other stakeholders other than tutors and managers of the academic institution were excluded.

1.9.2 Limitations

Study limitations are those individualities of the study strategy, or approach that compressed the application or explanation of the study. These are seen as the constraints that are the consequence of the conducts in which this research chose to scheme the analysis. These include:

1) It is in the same Unity Schools Environment in the North Western part of Nigeria that all participants were employed.

2) In this investigation, open-ended questions were avoided.

1.10   Significance of the study

This investigation is a worthy attempt to pursue the undertaking research objectives. The research findings are hoped to impact and provide to the issues above in the educational organization in Nigeria. Specifically, the findings of this study would be significant to:

1) The Nigerian Federal Ministry of Education. Whenever the federal ministry is in need of any structural change in policy making and implementation, these research findings can be of use to address problems of schools funding, equipping and administration. This will keep the schools that are performing intact, and those that are not performing will improve because of the government use of policies through consulting this research work;

2) The school principals. This study will be very useful for aspiring principals who have the needs and aspiration to develop their schools. Whenever they refer to this study, they will fast and reliable reference to implement the appropriate leadership styles to succeed;

3) The school teachers. School teachers will also find this study of significance because the study and its findings will facilitate better understanding that they are one of the primary stakeholders and a team player to move the school forward;

4) The students. This study will be able to highlight areas of students' lapses, and hence, the students will find it much easier to improve their performance in schools. Consequently, this may also contribute their quota to schools achievement; and

5) The general public. Last but not least, the society stands a chance to benefit immensely from this study because at the end of everything, with better school

leadership, and well-supported teachers, students being the recipient of educational services (i.e., learning opportunities) are going to be better trained. In turn, they (the students) will become a potential working class that contributes to the labour force of our society.

In summation, this research can be of importance to contemporary literature by filling the existing gap in knowledge through investigating the relationship between each variable by using the sample of schools under study to improve education in the rural or underprivileged areas in Nigeria. The study will equally have significant contribution regarding theoretical development and improvement of the standard of education in our various schools.

Logically, when the model or the very least, the findings of this research is used to improve the standard of education in the country with the government's commitment to improving the principal's style of leadership, welfare of teachers salary-wise, provides good educational facilities, provide scholarship to deserving students and budget greatly for education, the standard of education shall improve in no small measure. In the present dispensation, investigating into various schools level-dimensions in the transformational leadership is of immense importance.

Past research has suggested that combine efforts of leadership styles, school environment, and school Improvement have great potential to help in building students' performance in Nigerian unity schools. This is true because Lambert, (2003) explains that, leadership at all levels of the education system is now being recognized as a viable approach in meeting the critical need of improving school Improvement.

In this research, the quantitative investigation will prove evidentially that, to date, the influence of distributive leadership dimensions (autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire) on student achievement has not been empirically supported (Elmore, 2003). On this note, the support of the transformational leader is needed at this juncture; such leadership will help with an improved system of administration that is supplementary because a transformational leader is concerned with school development Liontos, (1992).

The significance of this study is therefore to modify the way students are educated. Schools are expected to prepare students to face the reality of life in the near future, which is different from the present. There are global competitions and fast technological advancement, as such; the combined efforts of a good leader and a good school environment can bring about school improvement, and that can further provide a healthier and promising workplace for students. For a viable school achievement to take place, the principal leader must assist with new curriculum, and technology to assist improved instruction, and provide students records to assist in making decisions and bring ideas together with other stakeholders. Ash and Persall (1999) clarified that this investigation and its outcomes may also demonstrate usefulness to school leaders concerned with improving attainment, and that pupil learning must be the importance of learning hard work, while school managers should generate universal transformation to the study, as the influence of transformational leadership characteristics towards school environment and school achievement as evaluated by tutors and the school manager at the level of secondary school is explored.

Modifications existing in-between academic institutions regarding size, demographics, and school manager and tutor skill were learned. School managers may use the facts to appreciate a school's separate principles and how to nurture or modify an already prevailing academic setting. Teachers may use the outcomes to understand better which managerial traits develop an assured academic setting and increase academic improvement. The supplementary investigation is needed to control the relationship between managerial ability, academic setting, and academic improvement because excess information exists differently on them. At the elementary level, the supplementary investigation could offer correlational information between teacher management, academic improvement, and setting.

1.11 Operational Definition

For the sake of easy assimilation of this research, the following terms are being clarified, as they are used in the research, not as their original meaning. It is strongly believed that the presentation can ease the understanding of readers.

1.11.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has been described as a managerial ability that stimulates and motivates subordinates to exhibit assurance to a collective dream. Managers take part in actions that connect with high prospects to subordinates and inspire collegiality and cohesiveness. Teacher manager ship as it was used in this study refers to transformational leadership. Teacher managership is focused on refining classroom exercise as the school needs to have (Zandralyn, 2006). Change manager was first defined in James Burns' (1978) work researching political managers. He described the Transformational Leadership as enacting change within

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an establishment through changes in the insight of Leadership standards and improvement.

1.11.2 Transactional Leadership

The leader in functional management involves in active management and interferes when subordinates have not met criteria or if any problems arise. Functional management refers to a management trait that transpires when managers intervene to make some improvement and involves positive criticism and desirable support.

1.11.3 School Improvement

Hopkins et al. (1994) describe school improvement as a plan for improving the school's competence for delivering an excellent education in times of change, by observing discrete move towards the change that heightens learner's results as well as consolidates the school's ability for handling the change. He further explains that school improvement is about fostering student achievement due to concentrating on the teaching-learning process and the situations that support it.

1.11.4 School Environment

The general setting of a learning environment is what we usually call a school. It is a place where learning of all types takes place. The acceptability and amalgamation of three basic factors concerning the school system that comprises of the student, tutor and the curriculum are what is referred to as school environment. Moreover, in the context of this study, it is used as academic settings. It was believed that environment is a word that attempts to apprehend the unplanned, tacit, and often cracked down the side of any human society. An academic setting should be

favorable for effective learning to take place, i.e., the atmosphere must be calm, noiseless, well arranged and beautified with flowers, good sitting arrangements, well equipped with books and other learning materials. Wherever academic environment or classroom environment is mentioned in this study, it is referring to the school environment.

It is also described by (Deal & Peterson, 1999:166) as the subversive tributary of standards, ideals, principles, civilizations, and customs that have built up over time as people work together, solve problems, and confront challenges. To the utmost believe of (Sackney, 1998) environment is simply seen as the general human belief and understanding of their place of work. An environment is also a place that should provide full internet service for adequate learning experiences. An academic environment should be located or situated in a noise-free zone, that is, a place far away from the hustle-bustle of cities, far away from the market and other unwanted social centers where the attention of learners could easily be distorted. This academic environment should equally be safe and sound, that is it should be located where there is no anticipated danger or cases of theft, armed robbery or commercial sex.

1.12 Summary

The abundant literature used in this section of the research vindicates that learning institutions are under close inspection to teach all learners to advanced educational values. School managers were constantly keen for methods to increase learner attainment. School managers should arouse tutors to the accomplishment of positive practices of training to contain all learners and regulate their managerial abilities to comprehend the desires of their tutors, workers, and the public. The collected works management experts confirm that school managers can encounter these judgments of

diverse pupil populaces with a strong positive academic setting which comprises of specialized development and collective principles. The up-coming Section 2 of this research work offers an assessment of the literature that offers to back for further growth and illumination on how managers could rise certain managerial traits for the willpower of increasing a positive academic setting and materialistic students' improvement. The chapter also delivers further examination of managerial ability and academic setting and their effect on academic improvement.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

The primary objective of this investigation was to discover the impact of transformational leadership and school environment towards school improvement in federal government colleges in Nigeria. This chapter provides the literature review particularly on past research useful to this study. Review highlighted includes literature on leadership concepts and definitions, leadership roles, various types of leadership, environment, leaders shaping the environment, school environment, and school improvement, and leadership and student performance.

The use of some relevant discussions by scholars and experts on leadership aided this work to perfection and had given the researcher a bigger opportunity to study the impact of managerial ability and academic setting towards academic improvement in some selected federal government colleges in Nigeria. Studies in leadership styles are currently applied to fields as diverse as school environment and school achievement.   Discussion on leadership theories followed subsequently with a transformational leadership theory chosen to assist regarding monitoring and supervision to achieve the desired school achievement in Nigerian unity schools. The literature reviewed analyzed issues ranging from past research work on leadership theories to the studies of leadership in relation to successful school improvement**.**

2.2   Leadership

Various scholars have attempted to define the meaning of leadership in the literature. Leadership is a complex term, a difficult or phenomenon that is relative to

management. To this scholar (Ibrahim, 1993) a leader is described as a person that exists within a specific unit or society, who is directed by the law to exercise the power that can boast the ego of the school or organization and direct activities aimed at achieving the set goals of the school he is leading. Another definition by (Pierce & Newstrom, 2006) states that leadership is exercising intentional authority on individuals with the intention of attaining some important objectives; that is supported in the group. Every leader is supposed to interact with his followers as frequently as possible by listening to their problems and directing them towards success. It is on this basis that effective leaders are respected by their followers whom they provided with the feelings of freedom (Dvir et al., 2002).

It is considered a concept that makes individuals have the ability to guide, direct and convince others to be more objective working together towards success (Peretomode, 2012). Leadership can also be defined as a way that leads and put in order entities (Kotter, 1990). Many scholars including (Burns, 1978; Depree, 1989; Gardner, 1990) view leadership as the art of bringing together relationships in both certified and uncertified ways by arousing other members the interest to improve and complete the duties assigned to them, and acquire the knowledge by performing the duties. Garfield (22:1986) wrote of top actors that are always proud to be improving on their jobs and are a concern and committed to making it a habit of upholding assignment giving to them and gaining from the assignment. Bennis (1989) wrote, that leadership is something that is very pleasant and enjoyable that is normally so difficult to describe, but whenever you come across it you will know that this is perfect leadership at work. Covey, Miller, and Miller (1994) highlighted that for a total and excellent program to surface in any institution there must exist a qualitative leader taking charge of situations. Another scholar, (Sergiovanni, 1990:18) further

explained that in every situation, all schools that are perfectly achieving are doing so as a result of the existence of a perfect and qualitative leadership differentiating between normal and strange leadership performance. Sergiovanni further concurred by saying, "Administrative authorization starts with distinct authorization, and this provides the reason why right inside our minds and sincerity the moves are so important" (Sergiovanni, 1990: 202).

In a fresh study conducted by (Bolman and Deal, 1984) the two scholars maintained the view that a constructive administrator must understand and fit in the groupings of an organization. The groupings are reflected in four borders of an establishment: physical, human resources, administrative, and figurative. All of these borders originates from volatile units of establishments. An operational manager must have the understanding to recognize and magnificently exhaust each border within that specific establishments.

In a research conducted by (Levine & Lezotte, 1995) it was reported that Positive school leaders remain noticeable, well-informed, and are optimistic advocates of plans and talent. Active school administrators offer a strong and shared dream that considers students' needs at first instance and see that his dream is linked clearly and efficiently to all participants. School improvement needs modification at all times in conformity to the way in which the school operates. Cohesion as an attribute within workers that also encourage a creative setting and teamwork.

Leaders take on even improved situations in times of change (Leithwood, 1994). Leaders must set the progression of the institution so that it can improve managers' contribution in displaying the viewpoint of their institutions through management so

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that teachers are prepared to understand their national assigned standards for improvement. Management can be different in many ways. Howard, (2006) described management as a way of swapping ideas (verbal and non-verbal) that encompasses underpinning, inspiring/stimulating, leading/controlling, and joining /recommending others" (p. 384). Howard (2006) additionally recognized four styles of managerial ability: Type-A (Detail Grounded), Type-B (Originality Grounded), Type-C (Sensation Grounded), and Type-D (Regulator/Influence Grounded). Some group of scholars and Kurt Lewin in 1939, recognized three key managerial ability that most students are familiar with today (Cherry, 2012).

The attributes of managerial ability as listed below are: the practice of management, that includes visualization, demonstrating, rekindling, outcome, impact, and acceptance; and technical know-how of management, which comprises of board configuring, collaborations, assessment, refurbishment of peace, training, and reserve allocation.

Marsh, (1992) conducted a research in a leadership academy in California coming out with two stunning opinions concerning instructional leadership: process oriented; this is the inclusion of tutors in matters of management in the procedure of management and resolution. This opinion was inclusive; that comprises of the educated comment of tutors and the inspection of an academic setting, as they are both influenced teaching. School administrators who assumed an inclusive opinion displayed a comprehensive idea of instruction.

In his description of leadership (Sergiovanni, 1990) described the process as comprising of four ideas: exchanging (exchanging), erecting (building), connecting

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(attachment), and investment (speculation). Exchanging delivers the creativity to beneficent things, while structure (establishing) and connection (joining) provide for the backing and motivation wanted in academic improvement. Investment assures a utilization of school enhancement efforts.

2.3   Historical Overview of Leadership Positions

The career of school administrator come into being around the 1890s when a team of twelve initiated a proposal to expand organizations by adding professional management by apportioning people to become school administrators (Sweetland, 2000). School administrators imitate the administrative styles that are practiced in the business sectors. They anticipated instructors to impart the syllabus. Managers struggled to be appropriate, determined, objective, and indifferent. While they considered themselves as administrators of a school and their ideas focussed on finances, constructing provisions, and plans.

Concerning matters of education, it is important that colleges are controlled by capable trailblazers whose inspiration is vital for the achievement of school's goals. Very many factors were responsible for school's success, this comprises of tutors, pupils, amenities and the educational settings. Intelligent pupils that are provided with good teachers and functional amenities will surely contribute immensely to the successful performance of the school. However, research has indicated that the managerial abilities of the school administrator can facilitate a huge impact on the attributes and realizations of an educational institution, the students' presentation, and even teachers' competences.

A study was conducted on effective schools, were Hussein (1993) reported that school administrators must play their crucial function efficiently so that the school can continuously struggle for peculiarity, and that the mission of the school administrator is always stated as a fundamental factor in the bearing of school's success. In his recent study (Yahya, 2005) mentioned that Capable school administrators could educate and oversee the growth of the school because they are the leaders with the control and power to lead the school. They are also people who are always likely to be in the lead particularly when facing any challenging situations that affect the school.

The administrative bounds were resolutely harmonized and collaboration was official, careful, bias-free, and from the hierarchical order. Deputy Managers firmly co-ordinated the administration of schools from a middle position. School administrators were directed by determining guidelines. A barrier between administrators and heads was created by Wolcott (1984) in a book he authored that explains the concept of educational administration. An administrator, as the name implies, is an individual who directs other people and earns his salary at doing just that. Moreover, this is the professional taking care of individual workers that is an old and reputable method of social action that is as old as the Neolithic era. Interestingly, Wolcott (1984) suggested that a director is different from a head. The manager's word is backed by power; the leaders by the willingness of persons to follow. (Wolcott, 1984).

Walcott, (1984) additionally clarified that a manager is measured in the collected works as one who stimulates the activities of the group but does not lead the managerial group toward a joint vision or objective. Managers design, systematize,

and display, which is all part of the roles of a school manager; however, managers do not comfort, counsel, and convince. However, in the words of (Marshall, 1988) he clarified that the major variance between bosses and front-runners is that bosses are concerned with guiding and heads are bothered with inspiring.

The two ideas of managerial ability and management are in need of each other and are equally consistent. Another scholar (Schein, 1992) recommended the necessity for strong management and strong administration in his studies be that if the institution is to be healthy, and further explained that strong managerial ability and weak administration may generate disorder, while strong administration and feeble management may develop a transformational-resilient institution that ultimately becomes weak. He writes that today's school managers have reverted from bosses in the 1950s to the instructional leaders of the 1980s and the change managers in the 1990s.

It was assumed by (Schein, 1992) that the transition from boss to front-runner, and manager-teacher to change manager gave school managers new confidences. In a study conducted by (Duke, 1987; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1986) it was exposed that with each modification, there comes a need for different aptitudes to be effective in managing an effective school. Teacher-manager view school managers' consideration on positive operational, instructional actions by closely overseeing teachers' and students' learning activities in class.

Another detection was made by (Rowan, Bossert, & Dwyer, 1983) have they recognised school managers increasing more vague approaches to education, and lessening managerial practices. McEwan, (1998) reported that the instructional

leader consists of the traditional management leadership with an added social factor. He further explained that traditional managers were absorbed in preparation, time management, management theory, and structural development. The human component consisted of interactive, motivating, and abridging roles of the school managers (McEwan, 1998)

2.4   Contemporary Views of Leadership

There is always need for a new focussed leadership in our academic institutions due to the needed school improvement, in his investigation, (Senge (1990) reiterated that schools want a new attention on management and described managers as inventers, agents, and instructors in control of learning. He further explained that such managers couldnot be knowledgeable just from workshops or be particular training. However, the ability of such people to be expected leaders, only come into reality from a lifetime effort to develop theoretically and the art of speaking, to replicate on individual standards and to make even personal actions with ideals, to learn how to attend and to increase the worth of others and other's ideas. Another scholar (Gepford, 1996) conducted a study of superficial managerial ability in low financial status elementary schools in South Carolina. He used forty-five principals and two hundred and twenty-five teachers as models that had been employed in their present positions for at least six years. The Multifactor-Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (Bass & Aviolo, 1990) was the tool given to teachers and school managers. Evidently, his findings showed that no single particular managerial ability of the school manager measured the success of a school.T he findings of the investigation disclose that school managers use a difficult style of management appropriate to the academic setting and assume for academic improvement. In another study carried

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out by (Cheng, 1991) a study of the link between managerial ability and academic effectiveness in Hong Kong was done in sixty-four secondary schools. His findings were surprising enough were he found that school managers displaying high connection and high early prearrangement were the most operational collaboration between tutor and school manager and that which happened between tutor and tutor.

However, some studies conducted by some schools is pointing at the risk of frequent transfers of principals from one school to another not minding the consequences attached. According to McMillan (1998), the recurrent relocation of school managers from one educational institution and another led to frustrating of efforts and helplessness to expedient changes or include in long-term decision-making with staff. As school managers amplified their capabilities of their schools (due to prolonged stay) their visions is upgraded and can became more perceptive on what was attained, thus, decreasing pressure (McMillan, 1998) managers with partial focussed experience of their school (due to short period of service) tend to adjust their beliefs about school, an adjustment that could constrict their imaginations and judgements on adequate exercises in their sphere of management (McMillan, 1998).

While examining the differences between primary and secondary school managers, a discovery was made by (Stroud, 2005) that primary school managers that spent a good number of years in the same school concealed trouble engaging in school improvement and teacher progress, as opposed to new managers who would like to expedient their hallucination of the school. It was also uncovered that long-term working in school by managers seems prostrated and uninteresting, school managers occasionally got bored with their job and might like to spend their services and drive in something else (Stroud, 2005). The purpose of this performance according to

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(Wood, 2003) was that primary school managers built self-assurance in themselves, saw themselves as familiar and inexorable on what had already been accepted, tolerated resistance to change and might find it difficult to represent power to tutors.

In one of his studies on management (Stroud, 2005) declared that school managers that stayed long in a school will have high determinations, susceptible to adjustment and were quite aware of their managerial skills. In their study of career phases and operation of school managers (Earley & Weindling (2007) professed that school managers with long working skill in one school did enunciate accomplishment in their undertakings and relationship with tutors. This augmented partnership from the numerical investigation of (Vanderhaar, Muñoz & Rodosky, 2006) discovered that secondary school managers who work for an extended period in the same school administratively did better than school managers who spent a few years in the same place. Long-serving school managers had time to interconnect and understand the desires of their tutors and were present able modifications for their development and academic progress (Earley & Weindling, 2007).

Thus, secondary schools managers who spent more years in the same school may see themselves as appreciating and applying change abilities. They saw themselves as being able to meet encounters that revitalized fast for school development (Earley & Weindling, 2007). Nevertheless, this separated itself with the research done by (Fidler & Atton, 2004) who put presumption that long period of job in the same rank crashed the level of job performance and fulfillment. From the viewpoint of (Fidler & Atton, 2004) it would mean that school managers length of job can unfavorably be connected to the views of their competence to use change management skills.

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An investigation in the Nigerian setting would, therefore, shade more light into the association between school managers' consciousness of their change management skills and the number of years they functioned in the same school. It could stimulate more investigations in a different setting and might be helpful to the ministries and boards of education in their understanding of the impacts that encourage concern and talent of secondary school managers.

Research conducted by (Covey; Miller & Miller 1994) advised that in a bid to obtain a whole excellent program; the manager must possess personal quality. Moreover, (Sergiovanni, 77:1990) further tally up that, no matter how skilfully managed a school may be, it is the added excellence of management that makes the change between normal and strange performance. He also further recognized that, managerial approval starts with separate authorization. That is why Sergiovanni posited that working on our profound innermost life and honesty are so significant. Moreover, in another development (Bolman & Deal, 1984) took a stand that a successful manager must understand and integrate the alliances of an establishment. The scholars explained the four pillars of an establishment. These four pillars include bodily, human resources, managerial, and illustrative. All of these pillars are found in different marks in all establishments. A real manager must know to recognize and positively use each pillar within that specific institute.

The following scholars (Grace, Buser, & Struck, 1987; Levine & Lezotte, 1995) all concurred that all successful school administrators are noticeable, conversant, and are constructive organizers of core curriculum and talent. They further explained that constructive school managers bring a vibrant and collective idea that considers learners first, and see that this vision is linked clearly and efficaciously to all

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stakeholders. The consistency among staff that reassures a creative setting and partnership are also important qualities. This was totally agreed upon by (Sizer & Sizer, 1999) were they stated that the specialists are working in an institution usually hypothesis their ideals by the way they address its problems in normal and strange times.

Therefore, school managers who can self-control a range of problems without misplacing image of their morals best encourage and assist the school community and that are the depiction of a much greater school manager (Day, 2000). In addition, (Deal & Peterson, 1999) reported that school managers that work and realizes the managerial vision and values form the school's assignment and determination, disclosing the fragile drives that inspire tutors to impart, school managers to lead, pupils to acquire, and parents and community to have guarantee in their school thus persuading the significance of attainment that would become more positive.

In their recent studies, (Maehr & Midgley, 1996) anticipated that academic institutions should operate based upon how they have clear their resolution. Whereas (McCall, 1994) saw the school manager as the decisive influence for recognizing the best standards to direct the academic institution to success. McCall later also put in that the purpose of the school is resolute by the school managers standards with those of other stakeholders. In a related development (Sergiovanni, 1995) further explained that School administrators contribute a lot to what values, ideals, and or views that are most significant in the prevailing academic setting. They regulate what is related to whom, who accepts reserve shares, and who is receiving rewards and punitive action.

A meta-analysis of one hundred and twenty-four empirical studies was made between, 1904's to 1947's, using correlation statistics, and studying particular traits of leaders that achieve and those that do not achieve, concluding that situations determine leaders ability, not group efforts. Specified traits of successful leaders with those of unsuccessful leaders to determine leader's ability were compared to determine if those qualities were fundamentals for operational leadership. Stogdill (1948).

Reproach went on in the late 1980s. Smith and Peterson (1989) for example reviewed the traits research and criticized the studies for not having a unified structure. More recent studies have also failed to find any consistent pattern of characters that describe administrators in every situation Glasman and Glasman (1990). Many researchers responded to the limitations and criticism of the traits theories by investigating the behaviors of leaders, and that gave rise to the theory of behaviorism.

These studies focused on the study of leader's behavior, not on their habits. Behaviourism approach states that examining leaders begins with the observation of behavior which later makes them available for scientific examination. Precisely by the 1950s, the emphasis on study was given on what effective leader's do, not on their personality (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Gradually, the behaviorist theorists started identifying both the behavior of the leader and its effect on outcome and job satisfaction of followers.

Three universities Iowa University, Ohio University and university of Michigan conducted three important studies on leadership behavior. In Iowa University, three

different styles of leadership were discovered; authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-fair. Each according to how they handle decision making Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1989). Despite the criticism of the Iowa studies, Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004) contested that the Iowa studies still have meaningful contribution in the field of leadership studies. Moreover, since they were the first to have discovered the three leadership styles, Razik and Swanson (1995) said that the Iowa researchers still have respect in the field of school management.

The study conducted in Ohio state university on the same leadership styles discovered two more types of leadership style, namely labeled as the consideration and *the ability to initiate structure* (Mouton & Blake, 1984). Here, 'consideration' was conveyed to mean the rate at which a leader describes the expression of trust, respect, warmth, support, and concern for the welfare of dependents (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). The latter was expressed as how far the leader sees the school's goal performance, define tasks and evaluate group performance (Razik & Swanson, 1995). The Ohio studies show that leaders can add more efforts on the job performance of their followers through demonstration of recognition and respect for individuals (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

The third important leadership studies took place at the University of Michigan, where (Likert, 1967) attempted to study the similarities that exist between a leader's behaviors, and how the leader fared in a group and team work. This led to another scholarly discovery, where (Razik &Swanson, 1995), experimented on leadership and made a stand that all effective leaders are connected in presentation and do have certain characters in common. There was contestation on the above breakthrough (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004) and they drew the conclusion that situational factors

were not considered by earlier researchers in drawing such conclusions because there are bound to be differences in task completion, group formation and the kind of external environment that operates. On similar argument, (Leithwood & Jantz, 1998) said, to practice leadership in schools, the type of behavior or manner of interaction must be taken into consideration.

There was a common ground between leadership scholars of Michigan and Ohio University on leadership construct. They both agreed on a common ground that relationship-oriented leadership, task-oriented leadership and initiating structure model are similar. Hence the emphasis shifted from the positional leader on the top to the one provided by the stake holders in the school (professionals). These professionals are considered as the pivot of leadership because they strike a difference between today's leader and the earlier one considered at the top. Hence, the Contingency Theory was founded.

At this juncture, it was assumed that there was ill attention to 'context and situation' by the behavioral school (Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). Therefore the Contingency Theory came to the rescue to address the lapses. A theory came out in 1960 propounded by Fiedler which explains the effectiveness of leadership as something depending on style and how favorable it comes to the leader. Favourableness was taken as a situation warranting the leader to exact such power on the followers. The theory agreed on three issues that contribute to favourableness as;

Leadership-followership relation: This explains how far followers agree and respect or how they feel and support the leader; Task structure: Which explains how clear task is explained to the followers by the leader, e.g., goal achievement procedure,

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how the organization progress and how successful they become; and finally

Position power: Which explains how skillful the leader uses the concept of punishment and reward to energize the followers?

Fielder (1967) went further to attempt to study leadership by examining the situation of people, the task they perform and the organization itself. He stated that leaders could improve their effectiveness by changing their leadership style to fit the situation they found themselves in. His findings came-up with an important issue regarding interactions between leadership style, and situational variables. Immediately after him, in the 1970s, the study of leadership styles reflected more on a holistic approach to leadership behavior. House (1971) developed the Path-Goal Theory and explained that the model was developed because of 'Expectancy Theory of Motivation". House focused on the ability of the leader to convince their followers on attainment of goals. He later suggested that to be successful, there is need to apply an appropriate leadership style (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). At this juncture, House attempted to explain and recommend that a leader should be in good association with his subordinates in a way that he is not harsh and he is not equally soft or weak to fail the achievement of goals. A leader according to House should be autocratic, and at the same time democratic.

There are clear similarities between the path-goal models of leadership. The study conducted at Ohio and Michigan recommends that an effective leader be one who practices production-oriented, directive, imitates structure and also seen as one who is employee-centered in his administration. Around the 1970s, researchers made an effort in studying specific behaviors attached to leadership effectiveness putting into consideration teaching-learning situation (Glasman & Glasman, 1997). Studies

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between the 70s to early 80s shows there is a strong administrative and instructional leadership in schools. These were a component of schools with high student achievement (Cotton, 2003). The importance of principal's influence on student achievement and school improvement was first discovered in the 1970s to the early 1980s. Two important studies were made on effective school research and the role of the principal in instructional leadership.

Those that subordinates give so much trust because they were provided with the freedom to associate are considered good leaders (Dvir et.al2002). Active leaders ought to be capable of balancing many variables while conveying the establishment's assets in the quest for an envisioned objective (Hackman & Johnson, 2000). They additional propose that to attain such aims, it needs the amalgamation of determination for both manager and subordinates. Whereas (Winston, 1997) stated that there is no need or urgency to defend any particular trait, or leadership style in other to achieve balance in any organization.

However, ability to relay more on the ability of the leader to examine the state of affairs and embrace a managerial method that summons subordinates is much more important. Thus, change management becomes apparently the best managerial ability that is suitable for school managers to build schools to the zenith of excellence. In another development (Barth, (1980) suggested that in reaction to administration and association dealings and the size and difficulty of the contemporary academic institutions, the role of the school manager is uninterruptedly clear.

The position of a school manager in our school system is vital because it is his or her contribution to the subordinate (teachers) that can bring about steady school

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achievement in our institutions. Principals pre-empt the manner of joint action in their schools by making strong indications to other (stakeholders) as to the prime or envisioned styles (Blumer, 1971).The principal is seen and considered as the pivot of their schools. This is because their leadership styles assist in no small measure in creating a conducive working environment in school that encourages and enhance the performance of teachers and other stakeholders and hence, school achievement is attained (Yahya, 2005). Another scholar by name (Mulyasa, 2009) reported that Principals are supposed to create ways of improving the skills and professional growth of teachers in their schools, which definitely would include making a school environment that is pleasant enough for learning and provision of counselling for teachers on how to bring about operational teaching paradigms such as collaborative teaching and the moving class structure.

The principal and his Leadership style is the source of success in secondary school administration, because it is highly dependent on the school manager to realize the specified aims or intentions, as it all depends on him as the overseer (Adegbesan, 2013). Principals as leaders are supposed to be at the forefront when confronted with difficulties in their schools so that the school can continue to work for excellence because they are entrusted with the mandate to head the school (Yahya, 2005). In management and managerial skills of the academic institution, the professional development of tutors are normally tempered with by leaders of their schools. And this made some scholars like (Syariffah, 2010 & Adegbesan, 2013) to report the result of their investigation by stating that where government fail to satisfy the desires of the teachers, they will engage in private practice (PP) instead of reading and get the lesson plan prepared for the next lesson, believing that they function without necessary support.

Literature also suggested that some school principals also may not perform their duties of implementing their managerial roles in their academic institutions. In a related issue (Mojgan, 2012) reported that principals as transformational leaders could reassure motivation, tolerance and enable situations and issues that can bring about the creative environment for copy technology to encourage tutors to use technical-know-how in their academic engagements. The learner's and tutor's level of output in an academic institution is regulated by how operative the school manager's managerial roles and managerial abilities are (Adegbesan, 2013).

Nevertheless, sometimes conditions may not be conducive and make it difficult for the principal leader and his stake holders to function effectively. Thus, corrections may come for many reasons depending on situations (Blumer, 1971).investors on education (principal and his staff and the general community) may fit their acts to one another in orderly joint action on the basis of consensus as they may use one another to achieve their goals (Blumer, 1971). At this juncture, it is significant to state that school administrator is the main fulcrum in which success is achieved. The managerial ability of the school manager is recognized in his actions which makes him recognized as the manager of the separate group. Many people powerfully trust that even when there are decent academic plans, decent school plan, satisfactory staff and students facilities, the establishment needs an excellent managerial ability to organize all these for the advancement and accomplishment of the school (Adegbesan, 2013). Therefore the duty of the principal as a leader is that of making teachers contribute their quota in effecting the desired changes in student's attitude (Ibukun, 1997).

In support of the above argument, (Ijaiye, 2000) said that teachers in Nigeria had shown more intention and desire to take part in the process of policy making. This has gone a long way in showing the principal's effort in decision-making process with the support and contribution of his teachers.

School leadership is seen as the contribution giving by all he stakeholders at large, that brings confusion in identifying who is more qualitative regarding leadership (Orozco, 1999). This shows that as leadership is the responsibility of all stakeholders, it becomes very difficult sometimes to pinpoint who is more effective. Effective leadership function offered by the school administrator will spearhead the achievement of the institution's aims and intentions. There is a saying to this which says provide the precise fellow in the management occupation, and all your difficulties will be resolved (Adegbesan, 94:2013).This role of leadership is based solely on harmonious and healthy affiliation between the leader and his devotees without any correlated influence (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Leadership style exists everywhere in the world, and in every organization. It is seen as an issue that solely depends on pure individual understanding that creates value (Cashman, 2000). The principal as a focal point in the school should possess the qualities of a transformational leader. Therefore, an additional responsibility of the school manager encompasses welfare services, feeding, medical care, leisure, transport, and responsibility for students' academic enactment which are the characteristic standards in today's academic institutions.

The position of the principal has become ironically more difficult, cumbersome and distorted over the years (Fullan, 1991). In situations, where the managerial abilities of the school manager are useless, even the greatest excellent academic plans, the

greatest adequate assets and the greatest determined staff and students will be reduced unproductively. Hence, the meaning of decent managerial ability in an establishment cannot be overstressed (Adegbesan, 2013).   Clearly, according to (Chell, 1995), the place of the school manager has been in a state of change, advancing from the school manager as a leader teacher, to the school administrator, most recently, as a transformational leader. In the words of (Bollington, 1999) managerial change is observed to possess the competence to transformation an academic setting and to make the circumstances for academic improvement.

2.5   Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was defined by various scholars in different understanding, (Bass, 1985) defined it as "the most effective leadership that can be used whenever success is needed in school's administration." In support of this, (Bass, 1990) further explains that transformational leadership can be learned and equally be a subject of leadership training. Leithwood, Jantz, and Fernandez) supported that "one of the most important duties of a school leader is to excite teachers with vision and encourage them to work in a team.

In a Prevailing proof on the role of neighbourhood for school improvement shows the importance of school transformational leadership in driving educational reform schemes (Bantwini, 2015; DeVita et al., 2007, Leithwood, 2010); with neighbourhood as a medium between government and schools (Bantwini & Diko, 2011; Christie, Sullivan, Duku & Gallie, 2010); and neighbourhood as "established actors" in educational reform (Rorrer, Skrla & Scheurich, 2008).

This body of literature recommends that operational transformational leadership be needed for the success of not only neighborhood themselves but the whole education system and particularly for improved student learning in schools. In addition to the ideas of Bass, Bass & Avolio, (1994) also suggested that transformational leaders have better connections with their administrators and that subordinates or employees of change managers often apply more power toward their establishment's goals. Change leaders can be characterized by four elements. These comprise of individual reflection, intelligent inspiration, encouraging incentive, and perfect influence. Individual deliberation is concentrating on individual needs and identifying where an individual in an organization may be neglected.

Another attempt to explain transformational leadership was made by (James Burns, 1978) in one of his famous work *researching political leaders*. He termed the transformational leadership as indorsing modification within an institution through changes appearing in the insight on managerial standards and improvement, (Bass, 1985) additionally built upon the concepts of transformational leadership by outlining it regarding a change managements-subordinate relationship. He labeled the subordinates of a change manager as emotional trust in their manager that inspired them to do their best to the manager's personality and admiration for personality.

Transformational leadership in its idle form is defined by Kotlyar et al., (2007) as a: "Concept that creates precious and affirmative change in the followers with the result of making subordinates becomes leaders themselves. Moreover, that it is an approach that allows a change in social systems found in the society and the individuals as a whole. They further explain that transformational leadership

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facilitates morale, motivation, and performance of subordinates through different means". Obviously these will include connecting the subordinate's sense of identity, to the collective identity of the schools in the society. The subordinates were always inspired and encouraged by the leaders, because they always challenge the subordinate to take greater responsibility for their work by understanding the abilities of the subordinate. Hence, the leaders can align the subordinates with responsibilities that make their performance to multiply.

Intelligent stimulation from a manager has fortified complication of solving in situations by thinking of solutions to difficulties by utilizing resources in new ways. Management through inspiring motivation has been achieved through the encouragement of individuals in an establishment. Here the manager has exerted an existence of motivation by conveyance of vigor through powerful communication. A manager with perfect influence has attained personal achievement which is demonstrated in the establishment. Since its beginning, change management has been associated with the old system of management that includes self-governing, tyrannical, relations-oriented, task-oriented behaviors (Molero, Cuadrado, Navas, & Morales, 2007), and servant leadership (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). According to (Kanji & Moura, 2001) functional and change management are all needed, and it is harmonizing in building real establishments; however, each has a different resolve in administration and headship. Bass and Avolio, (1994) labeled this interface more exactly as having an increased effect where change management builds upon a basis of a change management traits.

Many definitions of change management have emerged over the years. In his investigation (Burns, 1978) proposed that change management as a process for the

manager and subordinate be to rise the level of inspiration and standards of each other. This scholar (Stout-Shaffer & Larrabbe, 1992) stressed that change management produces managers who are far-sighted, and know what they want at the time they want it by pointing at the direction of achieving the goals. Transformational leadership offers active interaction resulting from trusting each other appear in a positive effect on followers and leaders by generating unity of purpose and wholeness. In the ideas of (Marques & Huston, 2000) they narrated that change management is viewed as an interaction between managers and subordinates united with trust between them, subsequently having the same goals and are consistent with the goals of the group.

Going by the above definitions, it suffices to say that transformational leadership is the common bond between leaders, where leader sort to raise the followers need to perform better and to motivate them to be committed to their jobs. In a study carried out by (Johnson, 1996) He discovered that the transformational leaders of the nineteenth century are themselves leaders who like and practice management and get enticed by other leaders with the efforts they put in the practice of management. Teachers of secondary schools are satisfied with the nature of leadership obtained from their principals because of transformational display of leadership qualities from them, but are not satisfied with the promotions and pay packages (Aspridis, 2013), therefore the leader needs to create a setting that will please the psychological needs of the workers, nurture self-actualization, and allow independence.

As a result of this method, new leaders will arise. In a study (unpublished paper) conducted by Kathlyn, (2010) he expressed an assertion that to retain effective teachers, a school needs strong leadership. He cited Botha (2004:240) as saying that,

"the principal should be less directorial and be more focused on nurturing an environment for successful teaching and learning. The duties in this role include awareness about learners' progress and learning patterns, the background and upbringing of their learners and knowledge about appropriate interventions" The key, then, is how to reform the institutions of secondary schools with disadvantaged learners in order to foster the support necessary to retain effective teachers and strong school leadership.

With this development (Blasé & Anderson, 1995) suggested that encouraged management surges the chance for participation in management and supremacy sharing, and (Blasé & Blasé, 1996) were in total agreement with the above findings were they clarified that sharing supremacy by endowing others with means to increase supremacy to themselves and others.

Blase and Blase, (2000) reported that transformational leadership is connected with liberty to reason and make recommendations. School managers who put consideration in others at the time of exercising their assignments, and impart knowledge and concepts are more potential to give tutors the stake to make selections and be involved in taking decisions. This is one distinctiveness of school management that brings about tutor inspiration and pleasure. In their examination of tutor contribution in decision making, (Rice & Schneider, 1994) cited Alluto and Belasco, (1973) as submitting that discouraging tutors the chance to take part in decision making might lower the level of their job satisfaction. This opinion gained strong support from (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004) when they proclaimed that lack of support and appreciation from co-workers and management might lead to tutors' discontent.

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In another study, it was revealed that more and more care had been encouraged in the areas of demography and change management style since it has been systematically proven that change management (as the most projecting management model) improved managerial performance and outcomes (Ozaralli, 2003). This inquisitiveness was determined by gender reorganization feminist theories that stressed on the insight, consistency, and difference between men and women in the society (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). The control of manhood supported domination on the ground of educational management for a long period, during which women were preoccupied in school management (Larusdottir 2007). This might have harsh outcomes in school management. On the other hand, there has been an increase in the number of women in management positions in academic institutions and other establishments (Kark, 2004).

Approximately, previous academic investigation of the link between management and gender in the system of academic institutions discovered men as more impressive and rigid while women were more co-operative and balanced (Limerick & Anderson, 1999; Tacey, 1997). Nevertheless, some investigations have shown high-level pessimism regarding rigid managerial abilities of male school managers (Grogan, 2000; Coleman, 1998). Collard (2001) recognised in his investigation that gender dissimilarities in academic management were not reliable across school levels. At the primary level, female principals were found to be more subtle to the needs and problems of their teachers and students, either as individuals or as in groups (Collard, 2001). Unfolding gender feeling from this point of view, one would accept that female school leader were more sensible in change pertaining to their managerial abilities than their male associates.

On the other round, male school leaders in secondary schools were found to be more complex to the needs of teachers and students than their female colleagues (Collard, 2001). Henceforth it would mean that transformational leadership style at the secondary school level was more distinct in schools where men were school leaders than in schools where women were at the helm of affairs.

Collard (2001) viewed the relationship between gender and management as being at the mercy of numerous issues, such as school site, type of school (co-educational or single-sex, private, and church or government school) and the socioeconomic nature of the place of the school site. This would mean no conclusive evidence of one direction-finding statement on the link between gender and managerial ability of managers. This is coherent with the views of (Kark, 2004) that the answer to the question is miscellaneous irrespective of the fact that display of change management traits have a tendency to back female managers, Some findings have highlighted on the feminist viewpoints of the men's supremacy in managerial ranks in most establishments (Kart, 2004). It would be of attention to remark that (Carless, 1998) discovered from wards, that there were no gender dissimilarities in change management abilities of institutional managers. It would also be of inquisitiveness to know what the significances of this research would show concerning the association between gender and school managers' understandings of their talent to use change management talents in the Nigerian school system.

In a research conducted by change manager and employee behavior (Sergiovanni, 1995) recommends that the employees be always motivated to a higher level of competence, expertise, and commitment by their leaders. Hallinger, (2003) visualizes change management as focusing on developing the establishment's

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capability to modernize. Rather than focusing exactly on direct management, control, and observation of curriculum and instruction, change management seeks to build the establishment's ability to select its determinations and to upkeep the expansion of changes to practices of teaching and learning. Moreover, he further stressed that change management might be regarded as a spread in that it focused on developing a shared vision and shared a commitment to school change.

Potential leaders are always encouraged by transformational leadership by increasing their prospects and satisfying their higher order needs. In a study conducted by (King, 1989) the studies displayed a substantial measure of gratification and efficiency in school settings where change management was practiced. She studied connections between two hundred and eight tutors in an American state Louisiana and their visions on management found within the K–12 and higher knowledge organizations that they were joined with. Using the Political leadership questionnaire (PLQ), she revealed that change management had a quantifiable, incremental effect in the confidence of tutor gratification and efficiency. Another scholar (Bass1985) also used the term *transformational* instead of *transforming*; he added to the initial ideas of (Burns, 1978) to help clarify how change management could be measured, as well as how it impacts supporters of motivation and habitual tendency.Leithwood (1999) further elongated Burns' study and reflected change management as devouring its place to the field of education and fashioned it as the most all-embracing picture that perfectly portrayed institutional change management. Leithwood and his contemporaries worked together to convince a three group, nine practice clarification of change management. This clarification included the categories of (a) locating direction (building an idea, rising specific goals, and conveying opportunities; (b) advancing people (providing intelligent stimulation,

offering adapted support, and demonstrating desirable practices, and standards), and (c) reshaping the organization (emerging a collaborative school culture, creating constructions which foster contribution in school decisions and creating creative community interactions (Leithwood, 1999).

Research further identifies four change management gauges: (a) perfect attributes, (b) stimulating motivation; (c) intelligent stimulation; and (d) adapted consideration, that includes three management traits: change (TF), functional (TS) or Permissive (LF) (Le Clear, 2005). Contingent reward and management-by-exception were functional management traits scales, and permissive management was the non-leadership component. The literature is reliable on the position that strong management by the school manager is needed with regard to an important facet of the academic institution, its culture (Sackney, 1998).

More precisely (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1998) pointed at some features of management which out rightly becomes a foundation for changing the academic institution. These include: Founding a clear dream for the academic institution; Appreciating task-relevant skill; Structure positive relationships between managers and subordinates; Obligation to widespread participation in decision making; Two-way vertical and horizontal message patterns; and Reception that management is a function to which many staff contributes rather than a set of responsibilities vested in an individual.

Management has a joint effect. Some experiential sign has shown how change management and functional management are operative on tutor's role of making judgments with his co-workers (Talbert & Mclaughlin, 1993). Change management

was gotten from functional management. The manager uses change management to develop the subordinate's needs that are obtained from the functional management. Bass, (1985) expressed that active managers must join functional with change management in order to achieve stated goals.

2.5.1 Transformational and Transactional leadership compare

Bass (1985) stated that these two concepts are used according to situational needs due to technicalities. However, Burns (1978) pointed that transformational is differentiated from transactional in the following points. Transactional leadership Transactional leadership is considered on most occasions by several researchers as a predetermined or discussion process between leaders and their subordinates (Jung and Avolio, 2000).

The transactional leader are classified with specific subordinate's prospects and provides complete substitute or rewards for his followers performance (Daft, 1999) They (the followers) also tend to get things that can be considered as "conditional" trust from followers by a reliable or dependable contract implementation or exchange (Meyerson. al, 1996). As presented earlier on, the functional manager motivates subordinates based on conditional support (Jung and Avolio, 2000). As long as the functional manager progressively identify with subordinates routine and delivers worthy rewards, he or she will likely be temporarily trusted for at least being steadfast (Jung and Avolio, 2000).This is an interaction model between manager and subordinates based on mutual understanding and benefits therein. Functional management comprises of Contingent reward. This provides rewards for followers in recognition of efforts and good presentation; Controlling by exception. This upholds

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the true position, when the subordinate fails to reach an acceptable level of performance corrective action is initiated to improve performance (Hackman, 2009).

Change management was first understood as a theory in the general management literature during the nineteen centuries (e.g., Bass, 1997; Howell & Avolio, 1993). It exposed amenable audiences in the educational community during the 1990s as part of a general feedback against the ranked guiding principles and ambitious changes that prevailed in the 1980s. In their research (Hallinger & Heck, 1996a, and 1996b) highlighted that it was also a response to the instructional model that was derived from the active school's investigation. Substantial research that followed was directed in education using the change management theory.

The concept of change management came across many critics from various scholars, yet it does not appear to suffer from theoretical and definitional issues to the same degree as split up management. The conceptual differences between the terms *teacher/manager* and *change/manager* rest on the definitions that have grown over time. However, my suggestion is that several criteria may be useful in identifying their distinctive features, hierarchical or top-down vs. bottom-up focal point on a method to school enhancement. First-order or second-order objective for modification. Managerial or transactional vs. transformational relationship to staff.

Very many parts of the change management models have been recognised as challenging: Concurring to detractor's ideas, (Stewart, 2006) reported that the theories place too much recognition on the change qualities of the manager, thereby giving much emphasis on the school manager because it was always considered as the major attribute of school's management. However, according to (Leithwood &

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Jantzi, 2000), their change management model did not make the school manager the only source of management in the school and is consistent with the sharing of management with tutors and other stakeholders. In a study done by (Yukl, 1999) he has pointed at several conceptual weaknesses in change management models. These include un-clarity in the course of classifying the effect of change and functional management. He advised that these ways, which are used to explain the outcomes of the manager on his/her subordinates, should be identified. Yukl also points to unclearity in change management traits resulting from somewhat concurring content and high-affiliation. Further harms were seen concerning the omission of important behaviors from the MLQ resulting from models and inquiry on authentic management and the inadequate attention paid to the role of situational variables.

This style of management when compared to functional management have a different approach. Change management encourages the subordinates to have more needs in satisfaction and compliance through improving Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The manager will motivate the subordinates to realize needs and classifying the importance and values of intentions and the means of realizing goals. The leader must always brainwash the standards of the collective drive more so than individual benefits. With the above effort from the manager, subordinates now respect, trust, admire and become loyal and faithful to him.

After several years of research by scholars on change and functional management, a huge number of the meta-analysis showed that both styles of management can positively and widely predict performance actions and the organizational, group and individual variables (Bass & Bass, 2008). Generally speaking, the literature

concerning change management reflects mostly on operational issues that comprise of issues concerning linkages to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

In a bid to recapping investigations on change management for almost two decades in change management, Bass (1999:18) pin-pointed the following hitches attached to the MLQ: "multicollinearity of its scales, lesser than the needed steadfastness below certain conditions for effective managing-by-exception, and inquiries on the general acceptability of the vibrant preparation of the paradigm of complete series of management." Most, if not all, cases of quantitative survey research are more or less linked to the said methodological fears or measurement found in the study of change management. Taking this into account, (Hallinger, 2003) reported that it must still be recognized that the measurement of the effects of change management on educational results remains a challenge. Further explaining he said knowing that intellectuals have had partial victory in assessing the results of a particular leader on results, the dimension of the effects of change management is even more challenging since it does not assume that management is focussed on the school manager alone.

A relative on their detections in Australia, Barnett et al. (2001) requested that disagreeing to the theories of Bass and Avolio (1997), change management behavior has no concrete alterations that can be easily noticed. In their findings, tutors could not identify any discrepancy amongst the change management behavior of personality, astuteness enthusiasm (Intelligent inspiration) and inspirational motivation. The actual range of change management factors are four as explained below; Modified Consideration – the level at which the manager listens to every subordinate's needs, performing like a guide or coach to the subordinate and listening to the feeling of their anxieties and needs. The manager provides empathy

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and patronage, keeps communication open and places challenges before the subordinates. This also includes the need for esteem and celebration of the individual contribution that each subordinate can offer to the team. All subordinate have the determination and ambitions for self-development and possesses essential driving force for their tasks. Intelligent Stimulation – This is the extent, to which the manager tests postulations, take risks and seek for subordinate's ideas. Managers with this style inspire and boost resourcefulness in their subordinates. They cherish and increase people who think self-sufficiently. For such a manager, education is a worth and unanticipated circumstances are seen as prospects to learn. The subordinates inquire, think deeply about things and figure out better ways to achieve their responsibilities. Stimulating Motivation – this shows the level at which the manager enunciates a dream that is attractive and motivating to subordinates. Managers with inspirational motivation task subordinates with high principles, link hopefulness about on coming goals and offer a sense for the task at hand. Subordinates require possessing a strong sense of commitment if they are to be inspired to act, the use of purpose and meaning provide the liveliness that drives a group forward. The creative aspects of management are reinforced by communication skills that make the vision understandable, precise, powerful and engaging. The subordinates are ready to devote more energy to their responsibilities; they are encouraged and positive about the future and believe in their abilities.

Faultless Influence – Provides a role model for high ethical behavior and instills pride, gains respect, and trust. Change management model is best suited for this research because it has been recycled, tested and proven on several occasions to test the impact of school managers on student's improvement. Two scholars of renown positions by name (Shatzer et al, 2014; Begler, 2005; Waters, 2003) reported that

change and teacher/management models offers many pull factors and attracted most attention of scholars in recent times. Hence, school manager should weigh the theory which may be able to fit their managerial skills and students learning outcomes.

There is a clear indication that teacher/management carries more weight more than change management in students' academic improvement (Robinson et al. 2008). Management models in the form of change management or functional management focuses on the school as an organization was inadequate to explain behavior that was altruistic or subordinates focused (Patterson, 2003).The acceptance of servant-leadership on the other hand, which is focused on a subordinate, explains better the altruistic behavior that is displayed by the leader (Russel, & Stone, 2004). Ball, (1984) stated that a proposed or perhaps imposed the type of the methods of social dealings between manager and the subordinate is accepted by the staff. Joint action will then be able to continue smoothly with regularity and stability. In educational settings, McGregor, (1978) as cited in Bollington, (1999) introduced that change management refers to an approach to management which emphasizes engaging people in a collective vision for the establishment. For Southworth, (1998), change management is concerned with school development. He argued that change management is about authorisation, team management, development, learning, and vision. Moreover, again, he compared change management to functional management, as an approach where managers provide some returns or inducement as a benefit for the achievement of goals. He viewed the two approaches as harmonizing and accompanying.

In his opinion, functional management focuses primarily on the maintenance functions of a school, while, as noted before, change management is concerned with

school development. Liontos, (1992) considered functional management as management for an exchange of services from a tutor for quick returns (such as a salary) which the manager, at least in part, controls. Some scholars share the same view point, like (Mitchell & Tucker, 1992; Liontos, 1992), regarded this form of management as working only when both manager and subordinates understand and are in agreement about which tasks are important.

To achieve the reforms meant for school reorganization, scholars of education bring open a model of change management. Change management focuses on looking at problems, solving the problem, and joining with co-workers with the intention of refining managerial routine (Hallinger, 1992). To build on the collective strength of the organization and its connections to appreciate these results, change management seeks for participants' level of commitment (Burns, 1978) to inspire them in the attainment of their bursting imaginations (Bass & Avolio, 1993), and to support them in reaching their own self-interest for the better (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Zarins, & Bishop, 2000).

Change management confirmed the usefulness of the school manager's reform role, particularly in introducing innovation and determining managerial atmosphere (Conley & Goldman, 1994; Leithwood, 1994). While focussing on renewing the organization and its personnel, change management needed an open attention on curriculum and instruction (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1998). While functional management is sufficient for maintaining the expected position of things, change management is development oriented for change as cited and agreed by (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006). According to (Scheerens et al. 2007) these perspectives of educational management are inspired

by the concept of the learning establishment and do not create a sharp break with the longer existing conceptualizations of educational management. Rather it emphasizes on the cultural and the staffing mode of schooling.

Functional and change management provide incentives and create consensus on goals for staff motivation. The change managers are divided into four: transformational, charismatic, revolutionary and political leaders who work in various ways to change the society in one way or the other (Burns, 2004).

The Goleman's theory is yet another theory that was founded by a scholar in 1995. This theory focuses on issues that build the features of a visionary manager. This theory relayed heavily on the theory of emotional intelligence to determine behavioral conducts of principal leaders. Among the pointed factors are self-awareness, self-regulation, social skills, empathy and motivation amongst school manager's management.

The change management model explains further the individualized support, vision, shared goals, environment building, and intellectual stimulation, high expected ability and records and modeling. As a result, the Leithwood change management model was born. Apart from the conceptualization of (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1998), other influential authors include Bass & Avolio, (1993), Leithwood, Tomlinson, and Genge, (1996), and Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999). Their conceptualization of change management is built on the idea that in many schools tutors worked independently and was in a neglected manner. This brings a barrier to the development of tutors and the school as a whole. This implies that the school manager should not intervene directly with curriculum and instructional affairs, but

primarily indirectly by transforming the school in such a way that collegial planning, partnership and investigation in school improvement become possible. The main task of the school manager is to create a work setting in which tutors come together and, consequently, they and the school develop. A similarity between these authors concerns the features assigned to change management expressed into dimensions. Leithwood, Tomlinson, and Genge (1996) distinguish these into three dimensions: Inspiring teachers to be betrothed in their work by developing, identifying, and articulating a particular vision; Separate consideration. Apprehension and respect for the personal feelings and needs of teachers; and Intellectual stimulation. Stimulating teachers advocate learning, and together they learn.

Consequently, (Leithwood, et al. 2006) believed that change management is more ideal for school managers because tutor/manager lacks a uniform model. In recent time schools reform needs a leader with change abilities; hence, Leithwood is of the opinion that change management is more than teacher based management. The Leithwood's model suggests that it is not only the school manager that changes situations but rather it is the co-operative dual actions of stakeholders that create such conditions. This is because management is collective between teachers and the school manager (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). The model starts from a motivational hypothesis because individualized support, intellectual stimulation and personal dream suggested that the model is showing the needs of individual staff rather than coordinating and controlling them towards the desired goals. Very many definitions of management surfaces within scholars but without clear and explicit explanation or practice. Glasman & Glasman, (1997), states that human interaction occasionally is a necessity to shape the meaning of school management. The vibrant nature of our society explains that there is need to redefine management. There are numerous

definitions of management as attributed by many scholars; e.g., management was equally viewed as efforts exacted to influence people that you are using to achieve specific goals (Bass, 1990). A manager is also seen as someone vested with authority over one or group of people to exercise that authority to accomplish a particular set of goals. Here, the manager is advised to be a little autocratic, (Pierce & Newstr, 2006).

Every manager supposed to interrelate with his or her subordinates on a daily basis by listening to their problems and directing them toward a visible success. It is on this basis that good managers should be trusted by the subordinates as a mark of stewardship (Dvir et al., 2002). In pursuit of a common bond, the manager as effective as he may be should be able to bring together various skills in harmonizing the resources of the establishments (Hackman & Johnson, 2000). In another study, there is no need to relay on any managerial traits in other to achieve balance in any establishment, but to rely more on the ability of the leader to read situations by using a unique type of manager to take the attention of his subordinates (Winston, 1997). Successful managers are more than the less successful ones due to the existence of behaviors like adaptability, empathy, and integrity which makes others follow those (Glasman et al., 2002).

Team performance and managerial ability are also similar in causal effects and definition. Management talks about duties and commences from the start to the end serving people. This type of management has people in mind and is always ready to be held responsible for performance (Hybels & Hodges, 1999). Management is also defined as a new understanding that creates action collaborating with each other and

learning together to construct meaning and knowledge to reflect and make sense of beliefs existing in the society (Lunbert, 1998).

As in any other organizations, school management can be viewed from the perspective of teachers, students, supervisors, parents, and community. This might complicate the process of confirming the most important qualities of management (Orozco, 1999). Also, management is also seen as an issue, involving non-coercive influence based on the positive feelings existing between managers and their subordinates (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). The managerial ability exists everywhere in the world and every establishment. It is seen as an issue that defends solely on the pure individual understanding that creates significance (Cashman, 2000).

2.6   School Environment

The academic setting as differently understood by scholars is seen as the school psychological setting (Roeser et al., 1996). Others have mentioned to it as the school code (e.g., Good & Weinstein, 1986; Rutter, 1983), the school philosophy (Maehr, 1991), the school-level environment (Rentoul & Fraser, 1986) or the school climate (Andersen, 1982). Managerial culture and climate have been described as consistent ideas by theorists (Miner *1995*). Hoy *et al*. (1991) offered a distinction between climate and culture when compared with colleges or managerial surroundings being experiential from a psychological viewpoint and school culture viewed from a historical viewpoint. Dissimilarities between school climate and culture are highlighted in managerial studies. Often the climate is regarded as a behavior, while culture is understood as encompassing the standards and customs of the school as an institution (Hoy 1990, Heck and Marcoulides 1996). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004) described managerial climate as the entire ecological excellence contained in an

establishment believing that the recent attention to the effectiveness of community schools and their philosophies has sheltered more attention on the significance of setting.

The relationship between culture and setting was supported by Schein (1985, 1996) as he stated that norms, standards, rites, and climate are all displays of culture. Also, the relationship of culture and climate is further supported by McDougall and Beattie (1998), and the early studies of Schneider and Reichers (1983). This research uses the term *school environment* to highlight that it is the meaning of environment to the individual that is being considered. In this case, the term academic setting in this research means the learners understanding of the school setting where learning is taking place and most importantly how they behave in the said environment. Managerial theorists have for a very long time paying attention to academic settings is the most important action that a manager can perform.

Educational theorists have likewise reported that the school's managers' impact on school's activities is intermediated in the academic setting of the school and is not a direct effect (Hallinger and Heck 1998). Watson (2001) warned us that if the academic setting is not hospitable to learning, then student improvement cannot be attained. Fink and Resnick (2001) recapped that school managers are responsible for establishing a universal academic setting of teaching and learning in each school.

A closer look at the relationship of specific aspects of academic setting to student learning is needed. However, this study brings about three categories of schools based on the academic improvement of students. These categories are Exemplary schools, Recognized schools, and Acceptable schools, as measured by the State of

Texas Accountability Rating System. These three categories of schools are then compared on the ten dimensions of academic setting as measured by the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI).

It is clearly provided and justified in this study that the school manager must understand the so-called academic setting before thinking about bringing change. (Leithwood *et al.* 2001). Bulach (1999) stated that a manager must be aware of a school's existing setting before attempting to change it. Leonard (1999) studied the subtleties and difficulties of an academic setting when tutor standards were well-matched or in a clash with school systems, with expectable results. Mortimore (2001) warned us that we should focus on creating more awareness about the multifaceted relations between academic setting and schooling.

Lakomski (2001) studied the claim that it is necessary to change an organization's standards to provide managerial change and accomplished that there is a fundamental affiliation between the function of the manager and managerial or structural learning. Taylor and Williams (2001) contended that as responsibility through tests has become a risk, school managers need to labor on long-term educational objectives to reinforce the learning setting. Fullan (2001) challenged that the perception of instructional manager is too partial to bear school improvement. He encouraged the idea that school managers operate as revolution agents to transform the teaching and learning setting of the school.

Two scholars of high reputations by name (Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1984) revealed in their research that if a manager is to manage, then it is vital for the manager to have an exciting reflection of the accessible setting. They further stressed that

management itself is an appearance of environment, therefore, management as environmental display seek to shape harmony and instruction within an establishment by giving strong much concern to determination, ancient and theoretical tradition and guidelines and customs which define the way of life within the establishment and which provide the supports for socializing members and earning their agreement. They further sighted some instances were academic setting can increase and foster managerial charge patterns and standards signifying a response to needs of individuals and groups for order, stability, and meaning.

Evidence from positive school managers recommends that focussing on the expansion of the school's philosophy as a learning setting is central to enhanced teacher self-esteem and student improvement. Nomura (1999) advised that school managers understand their school's philosophy. Reavis *et al*. (1999) studied how a new school manager at a historically low performing high school brought about changes in the academic setting and how it positively affected student improvement. Kytle and Bogotch (2000) examined school reorganization attempts through a reculturing, rather than a restructuring, model. They found that actual and continued change is more readily achieved by first changing the academic setting of the school, rather than by simply changing the structures of the way the school operates and functions. School managers who choose to spearhead rather than just manage must first appreciate the school's culture. It is important to become conscious that culture is complicated because it has unique and idiosyncratic ways of working. When an establishment has a clear understanding of its purpose, why it exists and what it must do and whom it should serve the culture will ensure that things work well. When the complex patterns of beliefs, values, attitudes, hopes, philosophies, and behaviors in an establishment are unsuitable or incongruent, the culture will ensure that things

work badly. Successful school managers understand the hazardous role that the organizational culture plays in developing a successful school. A study conducted by (Schein, 1992) reported that when an establishment faces an unfamiliar danger, dispute, or problem, stakeholders will always fall back to the leader for solutions as the group has limited or no knowledge of how to resolve the problem. He further said this is because Vision and values are the foundation of academic setting; core values, implicit or explicit, reside in the sentiment of every institution or establishments.

Academic settings is also accomplished through amenities and procedures. School managers can figure and pattern the academic setting by contributing and inspiring the facilities that rejoice important standards within the separate school (Deal & Peterson, 1999).Various studies in academic settings also pointed that academic settings are complex as reported by (Schmoker, 1996) he figured that practices are an extension of the regulations, they are complex, usually specialized way to rejoice success, connect standards, or to identify social supports of staff and students. This assertion got the backings of (Deal & Peterson, 1999) were they reported that these celebrations provide an effective means of educating a goal-oriented philosophy where development efforts are protected and documented. In a separate study (Bolman & Deal, 1991:22) reported that formalities give a purpose to meaning, and provide the school community a chance to replicate on the beliefs and standards associated with those rites. They further reported that without ritual and ceremony, transitions remain incomplete, as it will only turn to be an order of comings and goings. On the same issue (Deal & Peterson, 1999) agreed with the above assertion saying that these important ongoing events often become traditions as the academic settings as it strengthens with the schools.

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Deal et al. further commented that environmental patterns and traditions evolve, as they are initiated when the school was founded and after that shaped by dangerous occurrences, forged through arguments and struggles, and preserved through victory and misfortune. The important forces behind this process are the school manager who rules the environment in one direction rather than another; this is because academic setting takes form as, over time, people come with problems, stumble onto routines and ceremonies, and create traditions and rites to strengthen fundamental principles and attitudes.

A positive academic setting can boost staff accomplishment, stimulate higher morale, and expand student improvement (Freiberg, 1998). Heck (2000) and Goddard et al. (2000) linked academic setting and student improvement. The academic setting may be one of the most important components of a fruitful instructional program. Without an academic setting that creates a pleasant and well-functioning school, a high degree of academic improvement is difficult, if not highly impossible to come by (Hoyle, English, & Steffy, 1985:15).

Bulach, Malone, and Castleman (1995) found a significant relationship between student improvement and academic setting; also, (Bulach & Malone, 1994) concluded that school setting is a significant factor in successful school reform. Urban (1999) stated; "Unless students experience a positive e and supportive setting, some may never achieve the most minimum standards or realize their full potential" (p. 69). Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990) found that long-term improvement in school improvement was related to schools with strong academic emphasis within the context of healthy and open academic setting. Birdin (1992) and Zigarmi, Edeburn, and Blanchard (1991) found strong positive correlations between effectiveness

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scores and selected academic setting. What strengthens this process are the managers in that specific direction who rule the academic setting fully focussing on the right direction. A positive academic setting can enhance staff performance, promote higher morale, and improve student accomplishment (Freiberg, 1998). Heck (2000) and Goddard et al. (2000) linked academic setting and student academic improvement. As presented by the following scholars (Hoyle, English, & Steffy, 1985, p. 15) it was found very glaring that academic setting may be one of the most important elements of a successful instructional program. Without an enabling academic setting that creates a harmonious and well-functioning school, a high degree of academic improvement is difficult, if not highly impossible to come by. Bulach, Malone, and Castleman (1995) found a significant connection between student academic improvement and academic setting; also, (Bulach & Malone, 1994) concluded that academic setting is a significant factor in successful school reform. Urban (1999) stated that unless students experience a positive and supportive academic setting, some may never achieve the most minimum standards or realize their full potential" (p. 69). Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990) found that long-term improvement in academic improvement was related to schools with strong academic emphasis within the context of healthy and open academic setting. Birdin (1992) and Zigarmi, Edeburn, and Blanchard (1991) found strong positive correlations between effectiveness scores and selected environment.

In a study undertaking by (Schein, 1992) he clarified that managers must be conscious of the environment they are operating upon. In consonance with Schein, Bulach, (2001) asserted that school managers who fail to recognize the importance of that environment they are working with would meet with a very serious difficulty of leadership. That was why (Glickman, 2003) reported that managers must know

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the widely recognized potential managers in a school as well as the less visible people who may make the school more successful or can be the greatest obstacle.

2.6.1 Leaders Shape Environment

Research has established relationships among managerial ability, academic setting, and effective academic improvement. In this study, we compared association's in-between designated scopes of managerial abilities and measures of academic setting in elementary schools. Also, school manager' perceptions of their managerial ability were compared with teachers' perceptions of their school manager's managerial abilities. Results indicate that teachers' perceptions of their school manager's effectiveness are related to the academic setting. (Kelly, 2005). Managerial ability and academic setting are intimately linked.

An academic setting can be established, motivated, and accomplished (Trice, 1993). Many different management models are effective in determining an optimistic academic setting that continuously improves a school. Sashkin and Sashkin (1993) suggest that manager's model academic setting and build values. School managers have the power, authority, and standpoint to impact the academic setting of the school, but many lack the feedback to improve. If school managers are highly skilled, they can improve feelings of trust, open communications, collegiality, and endorse effective feedback. Operative managers must not forget the parable of The Blind Men and the Elephant.

If school managers are sightless to critical information about their schools, then they could make erroneous decisions. In the complex and dynamic academic setting of schools, all school managers need to understand effective managerial behaviors and

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teachers' perceptions of their actions. School managers must know and understand how to provide the basis for creating an atmosphere favorable to change. Managers must be able to correctly envision the needs of their tutors, authorize them to share the vision, and enable them to create a real academic setting. (Kelly, 2005).

They suggest that managers reweave old traditions and stories into present realities and new vision. The actions of a building school managers are central to the development of an academic setting that is conducive to high levels of academic improvement and learning (Firestone & Wilson, 1995). School manager is molded and shape academic setting on a daily basis. "What is often labeled as 'fluff' is more often the stuff of management and academic setting" (Deal & Peterson, 1999). Schein (1992) writes satisfaction concerning managerial ability, or academic setting management is unacceptable because they are both central to understanding organizations and making them effective. Progressive management can change the academic setting by changing the expectations on which the academic setting is built.

The manager who sets out to do this must know the current academic setting and be aware of the establishment's key anxieties. The goal will be to re-create a positive shared vision and trust. (James, 1996) A school manager, more than any other individual, is accountable for an academic setting. Deal and Peterson (1999) wrote that the school manager, being in the managerial position, has great influence on an academic setting. It is overbearing to recall the challenging nature of school manager's unofficial power to redesign school academic setting toward an 'ethos of excellence.' Additionally, the manager's struggles to make excellence an authentic part of the daily exercise of school life can change the school for betterment. School

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manager has a profound impact on the work habits and perspectives that mark a successful school. Reitzug & Revves, (1992) described empowerment as a way of determining academic setting. Empowering teachers enable them to inspect and critique their situations with a view of improving educational situations. Blanchard, Carlos, and Randolph (1996) wrote that enablement must start at the top or it will go nowhere. Management is no longer top-down. School managers should make a school academic setting in which results are made collaboratively. A school manager's primary task should focus on analyzing and understanding the current academic setting and being aware of tutors' needs, emotional state, insights, and attitudes (a'Campo, 1993).The role most critical to successful change is that of the school manager.

In a successful organization, common vision, shared attitudes, and right-hand management is entwined (Saphier & King, 1985). However, it is the favourable academic setting that keeps work absorbed on meeting and exceeding customer success and satisfaction. A change in academic setting is achieved in large part due to the intrinsic inspiration of all members, a socially-defined vision, and a guarantee to ceaseless improvement and success (Snyder, Wolf, & Acker-However, 1995). A manager who is thoughtful in role modeling, teaching and coaching encourages a positive culture (Schein, 1992).

School manager must impact the establishment and maintain a positive academic setting for schools to be productive and must be dedicated so that the academic setting can grow and endure (Lezotte & Bancroft, 1985; Snyder, Wolf & Acker-Hocevar, 1995). Elmore (2002) wrote that the job of a managerial front-runner is mainly about improving the skills and knowledge of people in the establishment,

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creating a collective academic setting of prospects around the use of those skills and knowledge, holding the various pieces of the institute together in a creative relationship with each other, and holding individuals accountable for their assistances to the cooperative result. School managers begin this process of influencing academic setting by employing and choosing tutors with shared norms and values. Building collegiality and teamwork on the shared goals and values, cheering staff growth that is student-oriented, demonstrating performances that encourage academic improvement, and rejoicing and satisfying tutors by distribution stories of success and accomplishments are also positive steps toward the building of school academic setting (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Lightfoot, 1996; Peterson, 1988; Schein, 1992).

2.7   School Improvement

Hopkins et al., (1994) describe school improvement as a plan for improving the school's competence for delivering an excellent education in times of change, by observing discrete move towards the change that heightens learner's results as well as consolidates the school's ability for handling the change. He further explains that school improvement is about fostering student achievement due to concentrating on the teaching-learning process and the situations that support it.

School improvement is more than just classroom change (Hopkins, 1990) while change may simply mean any amendment of the core curriculum, teaching and learning styles. It includes all facets of change such as vibrant goals and frequently collective high expectations, students' routine, social behavior , teachers/parents and school leaders' dealings, resources, the buildings and anything related to the learning circumstances of the pupils. School improvement leads to school efficiency.

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However, to achieve efficiency, Austin and Reynolds, (1990) noted that there is need to improve the learning, and internal conditions, through joint planning, a sense of community and mutual relationships.

The key and most accepted constituent of achieving school improvement is a successful leadership (OFSTED, 2000). School development and change are keenly derived from a powerful impact of leadership (Hopkins, 2001[a]). Schools facing challenging circumstances are better equipped with a transformational leadership practice in other to achieve the goals of school improvement (Hopkins, 2001[b]).

School improvement is more than just classroom change (Hopkins, 1990) while change may simply mean any amendment of the core curriculum, teaching and learning styles. It includes all facets of change such as vibrant goals and frequently collective high expectations, students' routine, social behavior, teachers/parents and school leaders' dealings, resources, the buildings and anything related to the learning circumstances of the pupils. School improvement leads to school efficiency. However, to achieve efficiency, Austin and Reynolds, (1990) noted that there is need to improve the learning, and internal conditions, through joint planning, a sense of community and mutual relationships.

School improvement and efficiency are important in the perspective of global burdens that expose education system routines to public analysis, through well-known international tests and rankings. According to Spaull (2013), South Africa's performance in these international tests has been consistently poor, when compared to its emerging economy equivalents, while the local tests reveal gross disparities within the education system. These educational outcomes have awful consequences

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for the inexperienced democracy and a stressed economy, aggravated by a spreading socio-economic gap. Educational funding is inadequate in Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2011) this is further justified by a survey conducted by the World Bank in twenty sampled countries in terms of education financing, insufficient funding of education in Nigeria has hindered reaping the dividends of education for the fact that the fund being allocated is not adequate to cater for the needs and demands of both teachers and students (Taiwo, 2012). The position of education thus remains central to abating this situation, hence the country's savings in education and the attendant role of state and local policy makers in educational resource allocation (Bantwini & Letseka, 2016). Bantwini and Letseka (2016) identify leadership as playing a crucial role in ensuring great returns in the investment. It is against this setting that we hunted to investigate the role of Transformational leadership as an arbitrator between government and schools, and particularly the styles of leadership used for school improvement. The importance of Transformational leadership in rising schools and student learning is crucial to propelling educational improvements and accomplishing greater educational quality in the developing economies.

However, Hallinger and Heck, (1996) reported that principals who can manage change in difficult circumstances are entirely different from their leadership approach and practice. Blank supported this assertion, (1987) were he pointed that in recent times, leadership practice of principals in American schools differed sharply in the kind of leadership they provide.

School improvement can be described as another connotation for school achievement, as may be otherwise imagined; it mainly discusses the relationship between variables like school management and a measure of student learning at one

point in time across a sample of schools (Hallinger, 2014). Liebermann, (1990) detected that school improvement is a school focussed effort to improve instruction in the following patterns: Improved student learning; Lively democratic practice; Larger commitment by staff to the mission of the school; Increased professional development; and bundle development. Therefore, these study or investigation aims at linking the bearing of transformational Leadership style on school environment towards school improvement in some unity and non-unity schools in Nigeria.

2.8   Application of Transformational Leadership Styles to School Improvement

Does managerial ability affect academic improvement? (Maxwell, 1998) reported that, one of the most significant facts that one can learn from Burns (1978) over the years is this: whatever you say or do, management remains management, where ever you go or whatever you do Life is lively and vibrant, expertise moves ahead, and philosophies or beliefs differ from place to another. But the definite features of management as a concept are inflexible – whether you're looking at the peoples of the old Greece, the Hebrews of the Scriptural context, the militaries of the last three hundred years, the monarchs of contemporary Europe, the priests in local churches, or the business men of today's world-wide economy, principles of management stand the test of time. They are indisputable.

Two types of managerial abilities that have been corporate in unfolding positive versus negative managers are a functional manager and the change managerial traits. In contrast, functional managers are more worried about the daily operations of an institute and making sure that rules and guidelines are followed, whereas change managers are negotiators of change within an institute.

Change management has often been compared with functional management with change management often being more appropriate. The change manager as a mediator of the academic setting and academic improvement is indicted with the duty of rising and starting programs that will check the job of school managers and tutors as they influence modifications in the performance of academic institutions (Hallinger, 2014). Studies on change managers and their behavior on academic institutions are on-going (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Valentine & Prater, 2011). Additionally, change management inspires subordinates to seek to fulfill the school's task and dream, inspires them to better performance, advances subordinates who take on more managerial obligations, and is linked with a lot of optimistic school outcomes (Avolio et al., 2009).

According to Perilla (2013/2014), "Improving school manager's efficiency is vital to refining academic improvement in our nation's lowest-performing schools …" Likewise, a Wallace Foundation report stated, "in the absence of talented management, there is no single case of an institution refining its academic improvement record" (The Wallace Foundation, 2012: 9). Change management has been found to be related with academic' innovative setting (Moolenaar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010) and has related effects on student academic improvement (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 2006). Leithwood and Sun (2012) suggested that change management produces perfect chances for individual growth through inspiration and that this "has an optimistic impact on [one's] ability to attain more and achieve better." Leithwood and Sun (2012) recommended that change manager generates ideal chances for individual growth through inspiration and that this "has a positive impact on [one's] ability to achieve more and perform better." There are a small number of management practices that influence the pledge and effort of managers

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and subordinates toward the improvement of managerial objectives, but "the standards and ambitions of both manager and subordinate are improved by these practices" (Augspurger, 2014).

The views for school manager have cultivated from the 1920s across the 1970s when the said manager was expected to be the school manager (Valentine & Prater, 2011) to today's expectation that school managers be instructional, curricular, stimulating and change managers. As Common Core State Standards (CCSS) are piloted, it is projected that principals will be innovators, technology leaders, visionaries, and reformers. Majority of researches conducted on principals was noted to have an indirect impact on academic improvement (Dretzke, & Wahlstrom, 2010; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008), the school manager has an outcome on structures that directly impact academic improvement. Studies have shown that the impact of a school manager on the academic setting, tutor improvement, tutor inspiration and academic confidence, can impact learners outcomes (Finnigan, 2010; Eres, 2011; Eyal & Roth, 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi; Jacobson, 2011). Coupled with the above factors, studies into school manager's features and exercises has confirmed the importance of trust between the school manager and tutors in order to develop other school factors that lead to improved outcomes for learners (Hoy, 2012; Finnigan, 2010). Additionally, Onorato (2013) stated that change management in institutions played important roles in managing the institutions to reach high-standard levels and equally facilitate the school's performance just like common business organizations do.

The yard stick for such measurement is the experimental modifications in learner's performance or improvement. Here the political manager will code institutions to

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either high achieving or low achieving institutions and reserved the pleasure to sanction the low achieving and upgrade the high achieving with incentives and other motivational factors.

A school accountability program is used to measure the school performance. The old-style policy intentions for academic improvement has been on classroom-level factors (e.g., scientifically based curricula and teacher quality), and closely so, but the national view is now turning to what the school manager can do to increase academic improvement. This is an important change, because actions taken to understand better and increase the impact of school managers on the improvement of learners in their schools have the potential for widespread benefit, as individual improvements in school manager practice can impact thousands of students. It is in this light that potential direct effects of school manager practices should be revisited. Studies have designated that the affiliation between school manager and academic improvement is multifaceted and resolved through teacher practices (Bruggencate et al., 2012; Hallinger, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008;   May, Huff, & Goldring, 2012). Principals have an unswerving bearing on such teacher effects as efficacy, academic optimism, and relational trust (Hoy, 2012; MacGuigan & Hoy, 2006); these are features necessary for successful change.

One element of active management renowned in many research findings is the school manager having high hopes for the improvement of all learners (Marks & Printy, 2003; Hoy, 2012; Finnigan, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010; Shields, 2010). Nettles and Herrinton (2007) discovered a relationship between positive improvements in academic improvement and the school manager's consistent high hopes. There is consistent communication of those hopes by school

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manager in effective schools, hopes that staff can prioritize academic improvement, and expected high levels of instructional practice.

The intense performance requirements of federal and state responsibility initiatives alone beg that the direct impact-however small-of school manager be understood and exploited. This is especially true now that improvement data are routinely disaggregated by learner's subgroups. In addition to overall student population effects, recent evidence points to the potential for school managers to have a significant direct relationship with the reading achievement of students with disabilities and those who are not yet proficient in English (Nettles & Petscher, 2006). These groups are two of the most challenging in all of the education, and every available resource should be directed at tailoring an effective educational environment for these students. Further research may substantiate additional direct effects of principals on subgroup populations. For many schools, small improvements within and among student subgroups can be the difference between making Adequate Yearly Progress or not.

If school managers can show a direct effect in these areas, the contributions will be of great importance. Interest in this type of research should stem from the practical importance of results which is an area that requires research attention. More practitioner focused work in the area of management that is necessitated to enhance a better understanding of management role and its impact on schools success and the variables investigated (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). The need for more intervention-minded research is particularly critical when considering school leadership positions for which substantial support from the academy has been sparse. Concrete research-based strategies to help school manager understand and capitalize on potential direct

effects of student achievement could result in considerable measurable improvement (Nettles & Petscher, 2006). For instance, if direct effect results can be further substantiated, professional development activities for principals-based on evidence of direct effects should be designed to guide principals in their organizational and instructional practices.

Overall, it is not the intention of this research to downplay the importance of sympathetic and earning from what have learned regarding the indirect effects of principal behaviors on academic improvement. By far, the most robust impact that a school manager can hope to have is via the mediated relationships within a school. However, it is vital that all possible foundations of school manager influence on academic improvement be carefully assisting these school managers in building size for ongoing presentation and development in their schools. Further, researchers and policymakers should provide school manager with every possible advantage in meeting the instructional responsibilities of this critical position if there is to be a serious effort to approach current federal and state accountability goals.

2.8.1   School Improvement the Scholar's perspective

Academic Improvement was defined in various forms: ascertain position of skills obtained in education, or specially acquired skills in schools that are not measured through examination (Kohl, 1975). It is also seen as a mark of progress obtained for a better tomorrow and using it as a yardstick to move to the next level. Research has also shown that intelligent students in the school system usually incline to uphold their height in their field of studies. Academic improvement has a tremendous effect on personal examination of the student (Reis et al., 1984).

It is important for tutors and institutional managers to review the components of academic improvement and its consequences in other to reach the peak of excellence in educational endeavors. Binet's first attempt to bring out academic improvement was from their intelligence test. A general belief established intelligence as the most important pointer of academic accomplishment (Karnes et al., 1984). There is a relationship between intelligence and achievement, (Thorndike, 1963). Evidently, many researches have already shown that there is a relationship between intelligence and academic performance. Theory subjects were found to be higher on achievement than practical's subjects (Holper & Helen, 1986). Collective expectancies built by learners also play a crucial role in their performance. Belief in internal control is positively related to academic performance (Tesiny, et al., 1980).Teacher's behaviors and method of approach is yet another important factor in student's performance. Students like a democratic teacher better, because of freedom of expressing their view which increases their chances of better performance in class.

The same result stated that; instructors who are successful in making or creating effective care and support could attract greater pupil's performance (Hsu, 1983). Effective control in academic institutions, at the household level and with peers brings about greater academic improvement. Tutors score on the locus of control was directly related with academic improvement (Murrry& Staebler, 1979).Nevertheless, teacher attention on students was positively related with academic improvement, confidence, and motivation (Stake & Norman, 1985). Differential treatment from the teacher and his communication pattern as perceived by the student is another determinant of student achievement (Marshal & Weinstein, 1986).

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As for teachers personality, research has shown no clear connection amongst behaviour and learner's accomplishment because there are other important overriding factors like teaching techniques, age, sex and interest of the learner, etc., that may play a role and be considered Whenever instructors or scholars want to know the reason for the outstanding achievement of introverts, few important reasons emerged to facilitate the academic achievement of extroverts. It was felt that the low achievement of extroverts could be due to their low interest which makes it difficult for them to pay attention for long periods required for the successful academic study.

Teaching method has also been established as an important factor regulating the performance of the assertive person. It was found that assertive persons profit more from old-style teaching methods, while shy person learns better in formal learning settings with old-style instruction approaches (Leith, 1974& Shad bolt, 1978). Pears, parents, and teachers are the three basic socializing agents of enhancing academic achievement (Gauthier, et al., 1984).These three agents are used to perfect improvement in academic achievement.

2.8.2 School Improvement and Leadership Styles

In his study on leadership, (Murphy, 1998) reported that Students Achievement is tired of Leadership. Whereas, (Huff, Lake, & Schaalman, 1982) examined the association in-between a school manager's managerial personalities and pupil's academic improvement. The results of their findings supported the hypothesis which said that the qualities of a school manager in high achievement institutions are entirely different from qualities obtained from their equals in low achievement

schools. For instance, it was established that in high achievement institutions, school managers possess tougher emotional personalities, reasoning, and coherent abilities. They equally found high achievement institutional managers absorbed and intricate with modification. In one of their findings (Beare, Caldwell, & Milliken, 1989) establish that those managers with greater managerial quality always appeared as a key and characteristic part of the respective outstanding schools. Also, Davis, (1998) reported that effective leadership includes a complex procedure that is distinct through both personal and impartial measures of the leader behavior, and his or her influence on the structural procedures and results.

Reporting on a research they under took (Jones et al., 2014) explained that the concept of management as apparent from widespread writings is classified in countless means, reaching beginning with its old-fashioned connotation of a solitary front-runner/director footage, solemnising and schematizing relations, and systems amongst individuals, up to embryonic classification of management that resembles shared idea which includes contact in-between diverse associates in different stages. This scholar by name and his colleague (Jones et al., 2014) expressed their feelings that within secondary schools (SS), more modern research opposes for a need to reconsider the old-fashioned management methods rising from varying management, pupil, and public pressures.

Rytmeister, (2009) reported that the out-of-date methods, some contend, might not essentially replicate SS's single role in rising unique and advanced theorists. While in the view of Eddy and Vanderlin den (2006), who approved the idea of Secondary School literature, recommended that traditional managerial abilities, when swapped with another managerial approaches, bring innovative and diverse (and possibly

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superior) conducts of understanding management. Increasing to the argument, (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2012) confirm that, for accurate management to happen, the circumstances must support the construction of upcoming managers, who then improve the dimensions to 'figure an administration's setting and produce designs of successes. In another development (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2012) added that to groom future managers, it becomes indispensable to incorporate them in managerial discussions and decision-making procedures, together with the procedures mixed up in planning educational backgrounds in educational institutions. A study by (Andrew & Soder, 1987) stated that the actions of teacher-managers compressed the presentation of academic achievement, especially low performing students.

The result of the studies presented an attainment of grades in reading and mathematics showing important enhancements in academic institutions that have vibrant teacher managers matched to academic institutions that have insubstantial teacher managers. A somewhat dissimilar technique in reviewing the connection in-between managerial abilities of school managers and improvement results were put on by Fuller (1989) when he explored what school managers' do in their struggle to improve learners improvement. School managers involved in the sample had to display two features: (a) they must have to be in the academic institution for a minimum period of four consecutive years, and (b) there has to be a continuous increase or decrease of pupils third grade scores on reading writing and mathematics between 1985-1988 as prescribed by the California achievement reading, writing, and mathematics program mean scores. Fuller uses a well-adjusted result offering performance apparatus to request institutional managers' reminiscences about what they did on the difficulties faced in pupil's academic improvement of their respective schools. Institutional managers with prosperous pupils academic improvement

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scores labeled it was their personal goal to raise pupils grades, motivated to own the problem more than school managers in schools with declining pupils academic improvement scores, and also documented that the setback was multifaceted and wanted in-depth examination.

In distinction, institutional managers in the institutions with deteriorating achievement grades, inclined to give tasks in sharing with the problem to assert that it was not under their control, or to curtail the magnitude of the problem. In the words of (Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1996) they reported that no direct effect of managerial ability on academic improvement, but they did recommend that there is an indirect effect on the said academic improvement through actions that form the school's academic setting. Three renowned scholars (Heck, Larsen, & Maccoulides, 1990) submitted that the connection in-between a school manager's managerial abilities and levels of student academic improvement are extremely complex. Rather than a specific style, they found school managers of high-performing institutions demonstrating more degrees of including staff in decisions and parents in programs, shielding faculty, united goals and projections, identifying success, monitoring tutors, safeguarding resources, and assessing programs. Their discoveries specified the connection in-between management and improvement is secondary schools.

Hallinger and Heck (1998) directed an investigation is searching for the relationship between managerial ability and academic improvement for a period of fifteen years that is for the years 1980 through 1995. Their results presented that managers have an inferior, but quantifiable, impact on how well learners' attain in their schools. The uppermost impact the school manager work out was through the growth and exhibition of a clear vision, an articulate task and achievable goals. The connection

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in-between the managerial ability of a school manager, viewpoint, and student academic achievement is more indirect. A study conducted by (Griffith, 1999) gave an indication showing that school managers impact student improvement indirectly through generating institutional objectives, setting high pupils and staff prospects, inaugurating classrooms, handing over resources, indorsing an optimistic and organised learning academic setting, and interactive with all the stakeholders of the said institution rather than directly through preparing teachers to better teach, visiting classrooms, and making recurrent teacher evaluations. However, (Eberts & Stone, 1988) stated that it is highly resolute that a school manager's impact on academic improvement results from his/her relations with his teachers.

The connections comprise of recognizing vibrant intentions, expending time in classrooms, providing sustenance and direction as well as recompenses and inducements. A study by (Brewer, 1993) shows that the principal admits responsibility for student achievement. As previously mentioned, knowledge of political leadership in education can be applied in educational settings such as effective teaching and academic environment. In this section, I will discuss transformational leadership in education as applied in these domains. When transformational leadership in education is applied in effective teaching, the focus is an optimal academic achievement and good student's performance.

2.8.3 Teaching as a Transformational tool for School Improvement

In an effective teaching context, teachers are expected to take the initiative to maintain and adopt behaviors that will enhance their teaching skills. There are some models of behavior that individuals engage with that offers an opportunity for them

to change their behaviors to adopt better ones. One of such models is the social learning theory developed by Rotter, which takes up the environmental characteristics such as reminders from the external environment that one should change his or her behavior. The success of our educational endeavors depends greatly on the instructors who are in charge of planning the educational programs. To be an instructor is as important as to be a part of an exceptional occupation. He or she has to show a unique empathy, persistence, diligence, sincerity, research orientation, honesty, flexibility and other fine qualities. Teachers are expected to display good ethical morality worthy to be modeled by the students in the classroom. Teachers control the students and are sources of inspiration to them. Thus, the important role of instructors in achieving the goal of education is easily identifiable. Knowledge of the needed qualities required in an instructor can help the teacher become an effective practitioner. Five factors of behaviors have been supported by various research studies over the past two decades to facilitate effective teaching (Brophy, 1989). The important behaviors are coherent and open lesson; different teaching method; teacher training; participating in the learning activities and rate of student performance.

A teacher can build good behavior and personality which portrays oneself to success in teaching and establish a good rapport with the students. Effective teaching is only meaningful when there is effective learning (Bhatia, 1977). In schools, learners spend much time in the class together with the tutor, and tutor's type of conduct touches the knowledge condition in the lecture hall. Teacher's personality and teacher's effectiveness are additional qualities that could assist student achievement. Researchers try to recognize the behavior features related to tutors that shine like those that have won many eminent honors etc. According to the findings of (Ryan,

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1960), he recognized such tutors through features likes wanting to focus more on development and the love and caring for children wellbeing. They show a likeness of standards like openness, tolerance, certainty, and justice in tutors, cynicism and prejudice in instructors. They generally appear as teachers who are kind in their valuations of other teachers, and always appreciate colleagues. They show satisfaction with teaching, teacher salary and develop a mind continuing with teaching. They enjoyed study when they were learners. They enjoyed team work but prefer a small group. They are humble partners of a small group. They are always composed more than the typical group of adults. Hamachek (1969) concluded that a teacher as someone who is kind, humble, calm, and at peace with other people. Some of the good qualities that make a teacher good, popular and effective are: Brings feelings of pleasure, kind temperament, with a wisdom of absurdity, happy and motivated to keep the class joyful; love students, keen to assist in times of problems, like to inspire them in their eagerness and welfares; and prepared to clarify things whenever asked, bears pupils faults, always ready to replicate and simplify parts of lessons not comprehended (Bhatia, 1977).

Many research efforts have been pursued by social psychologists, and have gone a long way in expressing teacher's attitudes and how they feel about their students. Teacher's performance determines to a considerable extent how much students will learn (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). In transmitting the expectancy messages, teachers performance are not conscious intentions; they are converged through the non-verbal communication channels (Rosenthal, 1970). The student-teacher interaction also assists academic achievement in no small measure. Good instructors are more successful instructors that emphasize class teaching, lectures and drills and spend less time using the teacher-centred technique (Everstan, 1978).

2.8.4 Specialised Knowledge Groups and School Improvement

Specialised knowledge groups can be considered as a joint group of tutors and managers in an academic institution who are united in their collateral to pupil's learning. They work and learn together to increase academic improvement. Specialised knowledge groups can be seen as an important staff improvement instrument that has the vision of improving instruction and spread academic improvement. Tutors who feel reinforced in their on-going education and teaching practice area are more dedicated and real than those who do not accept such sustenance.

In their discovery, (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993) recommended that when tutors have probabilities for co-operative review and knowledge related to it, they can improve and share a body of perception learned from their exercises. This teamwork can increase their competence as experts so that learners benefit. Based on this declaration (Rosenholtz, 1989) reports that the knowledge group provides an optimistic academic setting for tutor schmoozing, collaboration among co-workers, prolonged specialized roles and amplified teacher efficiency in meeting the needs of all learners.

2.8.5 Characteristics of Students who make the Schools Improve

Scholars in education have always made the distinctive description of students that achieve in school. Montalvo and Torres (2004) described such students as those who: are familiar with series of cognitive strategies and know how to use them through transforming, organizing, elaborating and recovering information; knows how to use mental process to plan, direct and control their personal ego to achieve

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personal goals (metacognition); show adaptability in emotions and motivation through exhibiting self-efficacy and adoption of learning goals. They are enthusiastic and satisfied and show control ability through modifying and adjusting specific task and learning situation; They seek teachers' assistance or their colleagues in times of difficulties, control and plan time that should be utilized on a particular task and knows how to make and adjust situations that can favour learning; participate in team work, show big efforts participating in class work and other academic activities; and they pay great attention in class and avoid any internal or external distraction from affecting their mental development during learning period.

2.8.6 School Improvement and School Environment

Academic success is closely related to student's study habit and attitudes to learning Ansari and Chowdhr, (1990). There are better study habits and attitudes in high academic performers than low academic performers (Sarwar, 2002).Teacher's approach to teaching- learning process affects students learning in tremendous way Shah, (2002). Therefore, teacher training is viewed as an action that can strongly increase teacher attitudes and learners performance.

Can academic setting touch academic improvement? A study by (Brookover et. al. (1978) inspected the associations among a range of school-level setting changeable and despicable academic improvement in a casual trial of Michigan elementary schools. The findings determined that some structures of school academic setting evidently make an adjustment in academic improvement of schools. A positive climate with great hypothetical standards is an indispensable state for high

improvement. The social-psychological climate is a vital component of academic setting and academic improvement.

This research equally recognised that academic institution's arrangement does not essentially regulate academic setting. Sackney (1998) inscribed that academic setting effects psychological processes and improvement and is visible to adjustment as stakeholders' visions change. A study conducted by (Bandura, 1993) stated that tutors who are accredited motivate optimistic academic improvement, and teachers working and sharing in an academic setting high in joint efficiency approve higher levels of academic improvement. In in agreement with Bandura, (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000) established that in their academic settings research of 86 New Jersey middle schools, after welfare status, academic setting was the next most powerful variable in academic improvement.

Tutors who were allowed, reinforced, and appreciated by their school manager and co-workers, displayed higher students' academic improvement scores. An investigation was carried out by (Weber, 1971) where in four inner-city schools in New York, Chicago, Kansas City, and Los Angeles, he studied third graders. These schools were chosen because their reading attainment scores were at, or above the national average score. He decided that schools do make an influence to student attainment. He listed mutual basics found in these positive programs as strong management, incessant appraisal of pupil progress, and an academic setting conducive to learning.

In a literature reviewed of effective schools research in the 1970s by (Murnane's, 1981) he arrived at a related conclusion of schools matter, and more precisely, that

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the key component of a school that delivers the most are the people. Resilient managerial ability can make a change in student learning. These conclusions have clear inferences for school managers.

2.8.7   School performance and School Improvement

This relates to the feelings of competence develop primarily from academic success Wigfield and Eccles (2002). This statement is suggesting that academic success develops feelings of competence and skills in students which results in a person being encouraged to engage intrinsically in a task. The author's belief is that, high grades do not matter, but the one-sided intention of levelling as a knowledgeable matter weighs a lot.

This scholars (Wiggles & Eccles 2002) reported their findings unfolding that key commitments are stimulated whenever a person has acquired new competencies and perceives them as useful in meeting the needed experiments or for pleasing one's inquisitiveness. However, when fitness is well-defined in relation to doing better than others, which means, it is used for the purpose of contrast or of enhancing one's status capability, and then the claim of one's abilities intimidates the determination to study. Perry, Nordby and Vandekamp (2003) describe students who are not successful in academic achievement as those who look for performance indicators (e.g. grades and rewards, social comparison, that is, comparing themselves with the group as to whether they are the best or the worst) to get feedback on their performance.

2.9   Summary

This section of the research reviewed the beginning of leadership theories development and how they were able to make spectacular contribution to the field of leadership studies. Many scholars and their views were discussed; their arguments and unanimous decisions were skilfully used to draw conclusions or theories that stand up today on the shoulders of giants in the field of leadership studies. This chapter has discussed transformational leadership in education with special reference to definition and theoretical approaches to transformational leadership.

The transformational leadership theory was supported by theories like traditional leadership, traits, cognitive and other theories. In addition, this chapter also reviewed the different situations in which transformational leadership in education can impact on academic setting and academic improvement in getting the desired improvement in Nigerian unity schools. Concurrent emphasis on the studies of leadership moved from the individual model to a mere complex model that included sensitive situations, morals, commitment, collegiality and attention of the leader (Glasman & Glasman, 1997). Today the study on leadership is looking at leadership in a distributive form because of the collaborative efforts of stake-holders performing the act with the sole intention of transforming out-put to a better proportion.

Leadership is no longer viewed as a one man's affair in our schools; it is not concerned with individual's talents, skills or capabilities, but concerned with creation of collective activities in a collective manner concerning every stake- holder for learning and development of leadership capacities(Harris, 2002).The National policy on Nigeria's education viewed education as an instrument for effecting desired or needed changes for national development, hence fostering the ambitions

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and intentions of the policy, the school manager has a meaningful role to exercise in the attainment of such viable issues. The extent of the teacher's role performance to effect these changes is an issue worth discussing (Aghenta, 2000; Ige, 2001).

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This chapter is intended to provide information on the research methodology and processes adopted for this study. Namely, quantitative research design is the primary methodology used to pursue this research. This chapter is divided into many sections to explain the rationale for the chosen methodology, strategies in data collection, research design, and data analysis.

It is imperative to have clear objectives on the choice of methodology to address all the important Pre-search activities to achieve success (Kothari, 2008). The research used quantitative research method to explore the influence of leadership styles and school environment towards school achievement in Nigerian unity schools. Data was collected through survey method to explore the core issues on students' performance in this research.

It is imperative that the method and pattern employed in this research provides an objective of the researcher's intention. A good method, either in measurement or data collection is important to ensure validity and reliability to the study (Awang, 2012). The chapter will include questionnaire reliability according to initial study conducted to test how effective those questionnaires function during the actual data collection. And it will equally test the usability of the questionnaires that will be inspected by an expert in the field of leadership studies.

3.2   Research Design

There are basically three types of research design as described by (Zlkmud, 2000, 2010). He reported that; "The classification of research design falls within three categories; Survey design, comprising of interviews and questionnaires; experimental design carried out in research laboratory and, historical design, which explores the utilization of secondary information and observation respectively.

In investigating the influence of transformational leadership and school environment towards school improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools, non-experimental design was used. This is because the researcher will not have control over the predicting variable (IV) that determines their effects on the criterion variable (DV). The research setting in this type of study cannot be interfered with by the researcher, but could only influence the measurement.

This study is driven towards relating the features of the population that is the principals, in the unity and non-unity secondary schools situated in north-western part of Nigeria. As stated by Sekaran and Bougie, (2010) descriptive design is embark on in order to be able to illustrate the features of the concern variable in a given situation. Since this study is focused on transformational leadership performance, the survey method will be more suitable to accomplish the goal. Cross-sectional design is chosen for this research setting, this involves collecting data at a point in time and only once throughout the study period so as to be able to meet with the research objectives (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001; Bichi 2004). The advantage attached to the cross- sectional study is that it is efficient and saves a lot of time (Sekaran, 2003; Wilson, 2010).

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3.3   Study Population and Sample Size

The most important part of this methodology section is population and sampling. McMillan, (84:1996) reported that, the first subsection of methodology describes the subjects that data are collected, as such it is necessary to understand who the subjects are and how they were collected.

3.3.1   Populations

The population is made up of a collection of data whose properties are to be assessed in a given research situation (Sekaran & Bougie 2010). Cavana, Delahaye and Sekaran (2001) defined population as a collection of subject of interest to be studied. Creswell (2012) described population as a group of individuals who have the same characteristics and other common features that the researcher can identify and study. The population of the study is based on data collected in 2015, data which comprised of 1,400 teachers in the north-western region of Nigeria.

Table 3.1

Types and number of Schools used

School Category	Number of Schools
Unity Schools	7
Non-unity Schools	7
Total	14

3.3.2   Samples Size

A sample is a subset of the population that is available for selection in some stage of the sampling process. It is part of the population of interest to be studied; it can further be referred to as a sub-collection that is picked from the population of interest. Sampling is the process through which a group of representative elements or individuals are selected from a given population. However, Creswell (2012) defined a sample as a sub-group of targeted population that the researcher plans to study for generalizability about such a target population. In other words, a sample represents a segment out of the total whole which is selected to represent that whole. Reasons for using sample includes; the impossibility of collecting data and information from each population studies using a sample rather than the entire population are likely to produce better and reliable results; fatigue is reduced and fewer error in data collection (Sekaran & Bougie 2010).

Based on the data collected in (2015) survey report, there were 1400 teachers in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools, hence, according to Krejcie and Morgan sample determination 320 teachers were selected to serve as the sample. However to minimize error in sampling and to take care of none response rate issue, the sample size was multiplied by two (Hair, Walfinbarger & Ortinall, 2005). Therefore, 600 sets of questionnaires were administered.

3.3.3   Sampling Technique

The systematic sampling technique was adopted in this study. Systematic sampling is a process that involves randomly selecting an initial starting point on a list, and thereafter every element in the sampling frame is selected (Hair, Money, Samuel &

Page, 2007). Ziktnund *et.al, (2010)* described systematic sampling as a procedure in which a starting point is selected by a random process and then every nth number on the list is selected. 'The sampling interval is regarded as the number of population elements between each unit selected from a given sample. The sampling interval for this study is considered to be (population/sample) $1800/600 = 3$. At a starting point the researcher selected a number between 1 and 3, and then the sample would be the sampling elements numbered 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 and so on up to the last sample to be selected, that is sampled element number 600.

Table 3.2

Population and Sample

School Category	Teacher Population	Sample
Unity Schools	900	350
Non-unity Schools	900	250
Total	1800	600

Some of the benefit attached to this type of sampling technique are simple to use, the systematic sampling technique allows a researcher to add a systematic element in to a random selection of subjects; the researcher is guaranteed that the population will be evenly sampled; it reduces the potential bias in the selection of cases to be included in the sample; and it allow the researcher to make statistical conclusion within the sample Sekaran (2003) Hair et. al, (2007); Sekaran and Bougie (20 10); Zikmund *et al.,* (201 0).

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Table 3.3

Teacher Population

School Category	School	Teacher
Unity Schools	7	900
Non-unity Schools	7	900
Total	14	1800

3.4 Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis represents who or what is being studied in a given research. Social science research has the following kinds of unit of analysis as individual, organization and group (Creswell 20 12; Kumar, AbduI Talib & Ramayah, 201 3). The unit of analysis for this study is all the teachers in the unity and non-unity schools in the north-western part of Nigeria who are the respondents.

3.5 Instrument Translation Procedure

There are three considerations to ensure the instrument's ability to capture the desired data. These include the process of questionnaire development; the validity of the instrument (through pre-testing) and the ways the questionnaire were administered (Hair et.al. 2007). Initially, the instrument used in this study is an adaption from the established instruments available.

For the purpose of clarity and understanding, one translator (an expert in Educational leadership and management) who is considered a professional and familiar with language and leadership terminology covered by the instrument (Questionnaire) was employed for the purpose of translating the instrument. Forward and back translation was used because using forward and back translation is a well-established method to achieve this goal of clarity of

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instrument (Jane K, Dixon, 2004). The expert used conceptual equivalent not a word for word translation, he was simple and clear by using fewer words, he avoided technical terms and colloquialism, idioms or vernacular terms in other to avoid confusing respondents.

The instrument was translated back to English using the same approach in the forward translation by an independent translator, who is an expert and a professional in English language who has no knowledge of the questionnaire. Back-translation was limited to selected items that were identified in two ways, the first being items selected by the FME based on those terms / concepts that are keyed to the instrument, or assumed to be unexceptionally subtle to translation efforts amongst nations.

These items were distributed when the English version of the instrument was distributed. The second consisted of other items that were added on as participating countries identify words or phrases that are problematic. These additional items were submitted to FME for review and approval.

As in the initial translation, emphasis in the back-translation was placed on conceptual and cultural equivalence and not linguistic equivalence. Discrepancies were discussed with the editor-in-chief and further work (forward translations, discussion by the bilingual expert panel, etc.) that was recapitulated as many times as needed until a satisfactory version was reached. Exceptional tricky words or phrases that do not totally pick up the idea tackled by the original item was brought to the attention of FME.

3.5.1 Instrumentation

The segment that offers the full aspect on the measurement of variable and the measurement of scale is that part called instrumentation. (Creswell, 2012; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund *et al.*, 2010) described the most appropriate means for the measurement of variables (instrumentation) as a tool or mechanism that describes specific properties of the variables of interest in a study by assigning numbers in a reliable and valid manner

Generally, most of the variables were measured in interval scales. Interval scale is relatively more powerful than the ordinal and nominal because the scale is able to tap the order and the magnitude of the variable differences as suggested by Sekaran and Bougie, (2010). Specifically, the actual population used for this important study were the Unity and Non-Unity School teachers by the use of multiple regression investigation on their perceived responses regarding the administration of schools using (MLQ), (SLEQ) and (SIQ-II). In the process of this study, an important factor of the administrative set-up, Leadership Style was properly investigated in association with its influence on academic system, the learner or the learning institution itself. To inspect the supposed association between Leadership style of a School leader and School Environment on School Achievement, all information gathered using the relevant instruments mentioned above were examined.

For this numerical exploration study using multiple regression inquiry, the dimension of Leadership Style was accomplished using the *Multifactor leadership Survey* (MLQ Form 5X; Bass & Avolio, 1990), a 45-item survey. The dimension of School Environment was the *School* Level *Environment Questionnaire* (SLEQ) a 56

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item instrument, while that used for School Achievement was the *School Improvement Questionnaire* (SIQ-II; Webb & Pajares, 1996), a 76-item survey, using only the 54 Likert questions and removing the 22 demographical questions.

Information gathered from the tutors in unity and non-unity schools for this study see the sights of connections among managerial ability, school setting, and academic improvement to establish which type of managerial ability makes an environment that produces higher academic improvement. In order to investigate and identify the problem, the 155 survey questionnaires adapted from three source (Multifactor leadership questionnaire "form 5X" (MLQ), School Improvement Questionnaire "SIQII" and School-level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) would be employed for this study. Factor analysis would be performed to determine the actual number of items to be retained for each of the instrument adapted. This section fully explains the three instruments used to test the three variables in this research. For further clarification, below is how each item is scored according to how it appeared on its constructs:

3.5.2 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X)

This study used the MLQ (Form 5X) version of Bass' and Avolio (1995) leadership conceptualization. The MLQ 5X contains 6 transformational leadership elements. All the 7 factors were used in data collection. The 7 factors were:

1)   Idealized influence-Attributed=4 items and Behaviour=4 items;

2)   Inspirational motivation 4 items;

3)   Intellectual stimulation 4 items;

4)   Individualized consideration 4 items;

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5)   Contingent reward 4 items;

6)   Management-by-exception –Active 4 items=Passive-4 items; and

7)   Laissez-faire 4 items Extra effort-3 items, Effectiveness-4 items and satisfaction 2 items.

Basically, school manager's leadership traits, can be categorized as one of the following: transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. There are total of thirty-six (36) questions that help define these leadership styles. It is expected that leaders and servants or followers assist or join together in actualizing the achievement of success by raising one another to higher ranks of morality and motivation. These types of leaders also tend to increase the awareness of subordinates by holding to their higher standards and ethical values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace, and humanitarianism.

The MLQ describes these leader conducts as Idealized Influence–Attributed, Idealized Influence–Behaviour, and Inspirational Motivation. Transactional leaders motivate subordinates by attracting with their self-interest. Transactional leadership includes values, but these values are related to the discussion process, such as honesty, fairness, and responsibility. In disparity, laissez-faire leadership represents an avoidance of responsibility and action by the leader. In addition to the transactional/transformational factors of leadership, According to (Bass, 1985) there are three factors that contributes to an organizations effectiveness, hence, he developed three contextual factors that indirectly supplement an understanding of an organization's effectiveness relative to leader's style. These three contextual factors are extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. The MLQ includes 9 questions that address these factors; therefore, 36 and 9 equals a total of 45 items.

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It is a total of six factors that explains the functions of a transformational leader, here they are and their operational definitions: (1) Charisma/ Inspirational—offers adherents of leadership with a vibrant wisdom of resolution that is invigorating, it is a role model for moral behaviour and it shapes empathy with the leader and his or her voiced idea; (2) Intellectual Stimulation—develops adherents to question the irritated and factual ways of resolving difficulties, and inspires them to demand the means they use to develop upon them; (3) Individualized Consideration— emphases on indulgence for the requirements of each adherent and works uninterruptedly to get them to improve on their full imaginations; (4) Contingent Reward—simplifies what is anticipated from adherents and what they will receive if they meet predictable levels of accomplishment; (5) Active Management-by-Exception— emphases on checking task implementation for any difficulties that might arise and modifying those problems to uphold present accomplishment levels; and (6) Passive–Avoidant Leadership—inclines to respond only after setbacks have become severe to take curative action, and often escapes making any choices at all.

Table 3.4

MLQ Dimensions and their items

Dimensions	No of items	Items
Idealized influence (Attributed)	4	10,18,21, and25
Idealized influence(Behavior)	4	6,14,23 and 34
Inspirational motivation	4	9,13,26 and36
Intellectual stimulation	4	2,8,30 and 32
Individualized consideration	4	15,19,29 and 31
Contingent reward	4	1,11,16 and 35
Management-by-exception (Active)	4	4,22,24 and 27
Management-by-exception (Passive)	4	3,12,17 and 20
Laissez-faire	4	5,7,28 and33
Total	45	45

3.5.3   School-level Environment Questionnaire

The School Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ) was adapted to measure the school environment as a variable under investigation in this study. Rentoul and Fraser developed the SLEQ, (1983) the instrument has 8 construct and 56 items. The 8 constructs or factors are as follows:

1.   Student support;

2.   Affiliation;

3.   Professional interest;

4.   Staff freedom;

5.   Participatory decision making;

6.   Innovation;

7.   Resource adequacy; and

8.   Work pressure.

Each of the factors listed above has seven items, thus making a total of fifty-six items in total. In fact the instrument undergoes several modifications by some scholars where the items are either reduced or modified to suit the research intention. The SLEQ was validated with three clear samples from Australian schools with 83 teachers from 19 metropolitan elementary and secondary schools in Sydney; 34 secondary school beginning teachers in New South Wales; and 109 elementary and secondary teachers in Tasmania. Results indicate that each SLEQ scale displayed satisfactory internal consistency with satisfactory discriminant validity results, suggesting that distinct, but somewhat overlapping, aspects of school environment were measured. The SLEQ was used, in the Tasmanian sample to determine differences in the climates of elementary and secondary schools. It was also used to

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evaluate teachers' efforts to improve school environment in a study of 15 elementary teachers in a pro-test/post-test evaluation of improvement efforts. Our work with the SLEQ grows out of previous work with Moos's (1981) Work Environment Scale (WES), including the use of a strategy for promoting school improvement. For teachers and schools, the SLEQ has three major advantages over the WES. These advantages are as follows:

1.   It is more accessible for teachers;

2.   It has been designed specifically for use in schools; and

3.   It is somewhat more economical in terms of testing and scoring time.

Rentoul and Fraser, (1983) explained the scales for SLEQ according to the Moor's three broad dimensions:

1.   All human environment;

2.   Personal development; and

3.   System maintenance and system change.

The SLEQ undergo series of development and validation with the latest version conducted by Johnson et al (2007) that was done to measure school climate. This study is maintaining the 1983 version of Rentoul and Fraser because all the 56 items that came out of 8 factors clearly measured school environment.

School Level Questionnaire (SLEQ) (School Environment)

Dimensions

1. Student support; 2 Affiliation;

3. Professional interest; 4. Staff freedom;

5. Participatory decision making; 6.   Innovation;

7. Resource adequacy; and 8. Work Pressure.

Table 3.5

SLEQ Dimensions and their items

Dimension	No of items	Items
Student support	7	1,9,17,25,33,41 and 49
Affiliation	7	2,10,18,26,34,42, and50
Professional interest	7	3,11,19,27,35,43 and 51
Staff freedom	7	4,12,20,28,36,44 and52
Participatory decision making	7	5,13,21,29,37,45 and 53
Innovation	7	6,14,22,30,38,46 and 54
Resource adequacy	7	7,15,23,31,39,47 and 55
Work pressure	7	8,16,24,32,40,48 and 56
Total	56	56

3.5.4 School Improvement Questionnaire (SIQ-II)

The SIQ-II was developed by some group of scholars from college of education, university of Florida as part of an on-going research effort made to boast school climate by using some of the Sweatband's dimensions of collegiality, collective and personal efficacy as seen in an article by Sweetland and Hoy, (2000) that comprised of 54 Likert scale items relating to six school climate factors listed as follows:

1. Collegiality;
2. Collective efficacy;
3. Personal efficacy;
4. Job satisfaction;
5. Policy-say so and,
6. Teaming.

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According to a study conducted by (Sweetland & Hoy, 2000) Collegiality stresses academics and professional growth. Teachers set high reasonable leaning goals for their students as well as themselves, encouraging positive growth and a culture that is conducive to learning. They further explained that collective efficacy and personal efficacy are characterized by satisfaction and respect for the competence of colleagues, warm and friendly interactions, and engagement in the teaching task. And that there is a commitment of each individual and the entire faculty for academic excellence and professional growth. Whereas policy-say-so and job satisfaction according to (Sackney, 1998) is the process of power sharing amongst stakeholders. Policy say-so addresses shared decision-making and empowerment; it is processes by which administrators share powers and help others use it constructively to make decisions affecting themselves and their work, while Job satisfaction increases when teachers feel valued as professionals.

When teachers have a vigorous role in scheduling the school's goals and making verdicts regarding curriculum and instruction, hence, satisfaction is higher. Teachers are empowered and know that their expert judgment is appreciated and cherished. Teaming decreases teacher seclusion and enhances teacher teamwork. This results in greater shared motivation and pledge toward the school's mission and goals, increased satisfaction, and a willingness to put forth extra effort for the good of the group. The research seek for permission to use the SIQII tool from the proponent of the tool Wayne Hoy, (2000) which I got, and was further directed by him to look for the scoring keys from university of Florida but all efforts proved abortive (Appendix f). The difficulty encountered for SIQII scoring keys was solved based on some literatures the researcher came across, Table: 43.6 below shows the extracted part

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of the six dimensions in use which were attached to their corresponding items. The
Table and the explanation cum definition of the dimensions as used by Le Clear,
(2005) was used to fix the items to the dimension they belong.

Table 3.6

Sample of original scoring keys

Dimension	Item
Collegiality	Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas.
Collective efficacy	There is a great deal of cooperation among teachers at this school.
Personal efficacy	My job provides me with continuing professional stimulation and growth.
Job satisfaction	I feel little loyalty to the teaching profession.
Policy-say-so	How much say do you have in policy making at your school?
Teaming	How much can your colleagues influence what you teach?

In their investigation, (Sweetland & Hoy, (2000) highlighted that collegiality stresses
on academics and proficient growth. Teachers set high practical leaning goals for
their students as well as themselves, inspiring positive development and a
philosophy that is constructive to learning. Collective efficacy and personal efficacy
are branded by accomplishment and respect for the skill of co-workers, sincere and
friendly relations, and pledge in the teaching job. They further highlighted that there
is a pledge of each individual and the entire faculty for academic wisdom and
specialised development They equally explained that policy say-so addresses shared
decision making and empowerment; it is a process by which administrators share
powers and help others use it in constructive ways to make choices involving
themselves and their work Whereas, (Sackney, 1998) theorized that job satisfaction

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rises when teachers feel valued as professionals, and teaming reduces teacher isolation and enhances teacher collaboration. This results in greater collective motivation and commitment toward the school's mission and goals, increased satisfaction, and a willingness to put forth extra effort for the good of the group. Therefore, going by the above definition of the six dimensions, the items were scored according to how they were asked.

Table 3.7

SIQ Dimensions and their items SA

Dimension	No of items	Items
Collegiality	9	1, 4,26,27,28,29,31,34 and 52.
Collective efficacy	9	3, 10,12,53,48,39,38,37 and 35
Personal efficacy	9	8, 11,19,21,24,25,41,47 and 54.
Job satisfaction	9	7, 13,14,16,17,18,20,22 and 23
Policy-say-so	9	6, 9,15,32,33,40,44,45 and 46
Teaming	9	2, 5,42,43,49,50,51,36 and 30
Total	54	54

3.6 Questionnaire Design

A structured questionnaire consisting of close-ended multiple choice questions was used in the survey. Despite some studies in the literature that used four, six, aid seven point's Likert scale, the researcher favours five point Likert scale. Previous researchers argued that using a scale with midpoint provides better and accurate result (Krosnic and Fabrigar 199'7). And it enable respondent to comfortably show their stand more precisely. Schunan and Presser (1981) also stressed the need of

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having scales with mid-points as they give a wider chance for respondents to better express their stand more comfortably. The study of Elmore and Beggs (1975) indicated that five point scale is preferable and increase in the number from five to seven or nine as the case may be do not guarantee improvement in the reliability of rating. This is also in line with the argument of Neuman and Robson (2008) who asserted that five point scales is the most appropriate and provide better results. Hence, five point Likert scale was adopted for this study. Additionally, there is evidence that previous studies used a five point Likert scale, few among includes Boumarafi and Jabnoun (2008); Noor (2012); Wahab, Noor and Ali (2009); Goaill, Perunmal and Noor (20 14); Awang et al., (2014), Shehu and Mahmood (2014).

The questionnaire used in the survey has four sections. Section A consists of 6 Questionnaire regarding the bio-data of respondents, Section B regarding the First variable (Transformational Leadership Style), containing 45 questions, section C regarding the second variable (School Environment), containing 56 questions and section C regarding the third variable (School Improvement), containing 54 questions..

In order to have the completed questionnaires returned within the stipulated possible time, the hand delivery, collection method was used, so as to suit the peculiarity of Nigerian teachers, and it was anticipated to produce a high response rate. The hand delivery, collection is a good device in settings where a sound research culture is not recognized. Empirical evidence shows the rate of return of -postal questionnaires in Nigeria is very low as the response rate is between 3 percent and 4 percent respectively (Asika, 1991; Ringim, 2012).

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The survey was conducted through self-administration of questionnaires. The chosen, survey method is costly compared to a postal survey; notwithstanding, the researcher favours this method because of its outstanding benefits. One of such benefit is that the researcher can collect the entire completed questionnaire within a short period of time. Another benefit is that, the researcher can give additional explanation on items that need clarification by the respondents. Additionally, the researcher can persuade the respondents to take part in the survey and can give their sincere opinions (Bichi, 2004; Sekaran & Bougie, 20 10).

3.7   Data Collection Procedure

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3.8   Technique of Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed as a method of data analysis. Descriptive statistics are used to explain the characteristics of data quantitatively. It is always used to summarize a sample rather than taking the whole population (Bichi, 2004). It provides a simple summary about the sample and the observation being made. Therefore, both multiple regression and hierarchical Regression technique was used in the data analysis. This study examined the influence of transformational leadership, school environment and school improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools.

3.9   Reliability and Validity

3.9.1 Reliability

Reliability of a size represents the degree to which a calculating instrument is free of error and therefore, consistent and stable across time and also across various items in the scale (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The most common test of inter-item consistency reliability is the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, hence, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed in this study to measure the internal consistency of' the instrument.

3.9.2   Validity

The validity of the measuring instrument refers to the extent to which the instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure. There are two major ways of assessing validity (Huck, 2004). First, is the content, through face validity, which is based on expert assessment (Green, Tull & Albaum, 1488). Content validity also serves as a

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process of consulting small sample and or panel of expert to judge on the suitability of 'the items chosen to measure a construct (Hair *et a!.,* 2007; Sekaran & Bougie, 20 10). Secondly, construct validity; this involves an exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis and varimax rotations that were carried for ascertaining the construct validity.

Factor analysis is seen as a set of technique for studying the inter-relationship among variables, and it is used to verify items loading on the correct factors as identified by previous researchers (Venkatraman, 1989). It equally reduces a large set of variable into meaningful, manageable and interpretable set of factors (Cavana, *et al.,* 2001).meanwhile, factor analysis was conducted to validate the scale and assess the extent to which the data met the structure of the study. PCA with varimax rotation was used to extract and rotate the factors. Eigenvalue greater than 1.0 was considered.

Hair et. Al., (2010) and Tabachnich and Fidell (2014) suggested that factor loading above 0.3 are considered to meet a minimal level loading of' 0.4 are regarded as more important and 0.5 and above are considered practically significant. However, Tabachnich and Fidell (2007, 2014) stated that the choice of the cut off for loading is the preference of the researcher. Based on this guideline a loading of 0.3 and above was considered as significant factor loading of this study.

3.10 Pilot Study (Test)

In order to determine the reliability of the study, a pilot test was conducted to test and ensure the reliability by using the alpha Cronbach test. It was conducted on thirty samples. Thirty staff were randomly selected to answer the questionnaire

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during working hours. The researcher visited the school about five times giving fifty questionnaires to teachers, but at last only thirty teachers were visible on the last day who attempted to complete the questionnaire. Only twenty were returned. The findings of the pilot test found that there is relevance between the studies to the sample group chosen.

The output of the tested alpha Cronbach of the reliability is listed accordingly based on the variables in the table below. Therefore, this section discusses the findings of the pilot study. Firstly, the response rate has been examined; keep on by the descriptions of the respondents. The result of the reliability test of the variables was highlighted and the section ends with regression analysis.

3.10.1 Response Rate

A total of 30 questionnaires were completed and returned out of fifty given. However, as reported in Table 4.1, all 30 representing 100% questionnaires were valid and utilized for pilot purpose.

3.10.2 Respondents Profile

This section deals with the description of the respondents of the pilot study. It contained the description of the respondents' profile. The characteristics analysed include the gender of the respondents, age, qualification, specialization/department, years of experience and appointment type.

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Table 3.8

Demographic Information

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	19	63.3
Female	11	36.7
Age		
20-30	6	20.0
31-40	5	16.7
41-50	13	43.3
51 and above	6	20.0
Qualification		
Degree	11	36.7
Masters	15	50.0
PhD	4	13.3
Specialization/Department		
Social sciences	5	16.7
Art	19	63.3
Sciences	6	20.0
Years' Experience		
1-10	21	70.0
11-20	9	26.7
Appointment Type		
Part time	4	13.3
Full time	26	86.7

From the table 3.1 the result shown that out of 30 respondents, 19 of the respondents were male or constitute 63.3% of the population, while female were represented by 36.7 percent. Another feature of the sample is age, which the result shows that 20% of the sample fall under the age of 20-30, 16.7% fall within 31-40, 13 respondents or

43.3% fall between 41-50 age group, and lastly the age of 51 and above were represented by 20% of the sample.

The reason for this result may be due to the fact that, the majority of the respondents are masters' holders constituting 50% of the sample followed by undergraduate constituting 11 respondents i.e. 36.7% and finally PhD's that constitutes 13.3% of the sample.

Another important aspect regarding the sample is specialization. The result from table 3.1 revealed that 19 or 63.3% of the respondents are teachers from Art discipline; 6 teachers or 20% of the respondents are from science specialization while social sciences teachers was represented by 16.7% each.

Moreover, table 4 also reported years of experience of teachers in any teaching service. The researcher asked these questions in order to know the extent to which self-employed teachers influence their student's attitude. The result highlighted that, 21 or 70% of the respondents has teaching experience of between 1-10yrs. In addition, teachers with 11-20yrs teaching experience constitute 8 representing 26.7% of the sample.

3.10.3 Statistics of Study Variables

This section explained the mean score as well as the standard deviation of the three variables of the present study by using a 5-point Likert scale. These variables are; Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Achievement.

Table 3.9

Descriptive Statistics of Research Variable

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Leadership Styles	45	183.40	9.690
School Environment	54	224.67	11.553
School Achievement	25	102.83	8.754

From table 5 the result shows that variables leadership styles, school environment and school achievement) have their mean score of 183.40, 224.67 and 102.83 respectively. Whereas these variables have standard deviations of 9.690, 11.553 and 8.754 respectively. Based on this result, the school environment shows a higher score of the mean of 224.67 which is above the remaining variables, followed by leadership styles with the mean score of 183.40 and finally, school achievement has the mean value of 102.83.

3.11   Reliability

This section described the reliability test employed by the researcher. Reliability can be defined as "the frequency at which every total result gotten in an assessment are free from errors of dimensions" (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007, p. 200), measurement error reduces the reliability (and therefore the generalizability) of the scores obtained for a researcher from a single measurement (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). The present study employed "the internal consistency reliability test" which is found to be the common technique used by many researchers while testing reliability (Litwin, 1995).

The Table 3.10 below shows how the three variables each with their items were cumulatively casted in the SPSS (Ver 18) to test the reliability. Transformational Leadership as a variable with 45 items was tested, and (α .664) was recorded, School

Environment with 56 items recorded (α .714) and School Improvement with 54 items has (α .765). The Cronbach's Alpha is expended to quantify the reliability of the instruments in the research and the most shared methods of internal consistency reliability coefficient are amongst two scores ranging from 0 to 1.00. According to Sekaran (2003), Cronbach's Alpha has been very frequently used as an indicator for representing the appropriate indication levels related to reliance and internal consistency. It is agreed by most scholars that the widely accepted value for Cronbach's alpha turns to be 0.70, although it may decline to 0.50 in some exploratory studies (Hair et al., 2006).

In investigative research, the shared compassionate limit is 0.60 and usually accepted upon a lesser perimeter for alpha 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010) and most of scholar require cut-off 0.80 for a decent measure (Dawson and Trapp 2004). According to Bougie and Sekaran (2010), frequent reliability coefficient that measured poor in the range of 0.60, 0.70 are acceptable and 0.80 are mirrored wall. Therefore, the limit alpha for this study during pilot survey is 0.70 and any measures below 0.70 will adapt to guarantee the questionnaire is clear and silent by observers. Therefore, the reliability test conducted made the three variables valid for this thesis.

Table 3.10

Reliability Statistics of the Research Variables

Variable	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Leadership Styles	45	.664
School Environment	56	.714
School Achievement	54	.765
Total	155	.605

From the table above, the result shows that all the measures reached average and high reliability coefficient ranged between 0.66 and 0.77. Expert in research

suggested that reliability of 0.60 can be considered as average coefficient, whereas 0.70 could be regarded as high reliability coefficient (Hair *et al*., 2006; Nunally, 1978; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Sekaran 2003) thus this pilot study conclude that the variables are reliable for further study.

3.11.1 Pearson moment Correlation

The Pearson correlation is believed to be the primary analysis of the multiple regressions. It was argued that, the items that were designed using one dichotomous and one continuous variable are measured using Pearson correlation (Pallant, 2002).

3.11.2 Correlation Analysis

This section describes the correlation analysis of the pilot study. Table 3.11 demonstrates the 6 relationships between the variables. Firstly, from table 3.11 below, the result shows that all the independent variables; school environment and school achievement have positive and significant relationships with the dependent variable leadership styles (r = .525 and .588, p <.01, each). Moreover, table 3.4 also reported the correlation among the independent variables, school environment and school achievement are positive and significantly related at (r =.741 and p<.01).

Table 3.11

Correlation Analysis of the Instruments

Variable	LS	SE	SA
Leadership Styles	1		
School Environment	.525**	1	
School Achievement	.588**	.741**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).			

However, the correlation analysis does not always provide details regarding cause and effect of the variables.

3.11.3 Data Screening

In research, regression analysis is carried out for better understanding of the contribution of independent variables to the dependent variable. However, for this pilot study, the research utilized several tests to ascertain the data validity and reliability. These tests include; normality test and multicollinearity assumption (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SPSS V. 20 was used to screen the data for many values.

Similarly, another test to check for possible outliers was conducted. The result shows that the data was free from any outlier. Furthermore, to test whether the data were normally distributed, the normality test was carried out by using normal probability plot and the result shows good result; hence the assumption of normality was not violated. Thus, the pilot study concludes that, the data is normally distributed.

Lastly, the present study followed the assumption of multicollinearity, whereby the data were tested to ensure that the assumption was followed accordingly. This was conducted using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance to detect the highly

Correlated variables. However, table 3.5 below shows the result for multicollinearity that the value of VIF for school environment and achievement is 2.896. Hence, following the suggested guidelines for testing multicollinearity (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012) VIF < 5 / tolerance > 0.20; condition index <30, Table 3.5 exhibited that the assumption of multicollinearity was full filled.

Table 3.12

Collinearity Statistics

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Leadership Styles	.345	2.896
School Environment	.345	2.896

From the table above, the result shows that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) of entire independent variables is 2.896 indicating that all the variables are accepted for analysis because the threshold of multicollinearity is >10 thus the pilot study conclude that, the data is free from multicollinearity problem.

3.11.4 Multiple Regression

According to Pallant (2002) multiple regressions is categorized into three. These are standard or simultaneous, stepwise and hierarchical or sequential multiple regression. Therefore, the pilot study employed multiple regressions to determine the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In summary, the SPSS V.2.0 was used in conducting the analysis.

3.11.5 Regression Investigation

In order to examine the relationship among the existing variables, the study conducted a regression analysis. Two predictor variables that includes the school environment and school achievement contributed significantly to transformational leadership styles. Table 3.6 exhibited that $R^2 = 0.364$, which indicates that the predictor variable contributed 36% to transformational leadership styles.

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Furthermore, the pilot study used one-tailed test and evaluate the relationship between the variables. Also for estimation of variable's significant level, the pilot study used t-value as suggested by several previous researchers (Lind, Marchal & Wathen 2013, Talib & Ramyah, 2013).

They argued that, if the t-value exceeds 1.645, it indicates that there is a significant relationship hence the hypothesis could be accepted. Table 3.6 demonstrated and summarized the result of the multiple regressions analysis conducted in this study whereby leadership styles stands as dependent variable.

Table 3.13

Model Summary

Model	R	R square
1	.603	.364

From table 3.6 above, the result demonstrated that the predictor variables school environment and school achievement contributed about 36% of leadership suggesting that the remaining 54% are were contributed by other variables which this study did not cover.

3.12 Survey Instrument Response Rate and Data Collection Process

This study has Unity and non-unity schools as unit of study. Four hundred (400) questionnaire was administered to the unity school's teachers out of which 388 were found to be completely filled and returned, amounting to 97.0% of the total administered. And again another data was collected in the non-unity schools for the purpose of matching the achievement levels of unity schools and that of non-unity

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schools in Nigeria which were located in research question two and hypothesis two, 200 questionnaires were distributed for that purpose and 175 were returned amounting to 87.5%. Therefore, the total population of the study comprises of 7 unity and 5 non-unity schools giving a total of 12 schools with 400 teachers in the unity schools and 200 in the non-unit y totalling 600. The total number of questionnaires sent are 600 and 563 were returned, with the unity schools having 388 and the non-unity schools having 175.

Table 3.14

Response rate of both unity and non-unity schools

Response	Frequency
Number of distributed questionnaire	600
Total returned questionnaire	563
Useable and completed questionnaire	563
Response rate	94%

3.13 Data Screening

3.13.1 Data inspection

Analysis of data collected was in complete sway with the assessment and evaluation of such data in order to regulate its suitability for faultless analysis. It was considered appropriate and most suitable to follow the process recommended by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) so as to carry out faultless and in-depth data analysis, which will contain examining data designs that were missed out and sticking to statistical assumptions, identification of outliers and a review of skewness and kurtosis.

3.13.2 Missing Data

It is a common issue or occurrence to come across missing data in any research that is embark upon. Hair et al. (2006) stated that missing data indicates a point whereby valid or accepted values acquired as a result of measuring one or more variables are not present for data analysis, mostly in a multivariate analysis. Sekaran, (2006) detected that state of affairs like this usually occurs when respondents fail to answer some items in the questionnaire by leaving the item blank. Also this situation on the part of the respondents could be a result of absence of appreciation of the interrogation, unawareness of the answer, reluctance to answer etc. However, it is always important to take note of the missing data because of their necessary impact on the examination. In imperative to efficiently deal with the issue of the misplaced information, Hair et al. (2006) detected that the most significant apprehension is to convey out the designs and dealings underlying the occurrence, although the extent of missing data is a secondary issue in most instances.

The practical impacts of missing data are reduction of the sample size available for analysis but then overview becomes difficult because data bias is present. In fact, there is no particular way of solving the problem as it depends on patterns, relationships and degree of emotion. However, Sekaran (2006) is of the view that the best way to handle the phenomenon irrespective of its characteristics is to omit the case, especially if the sample is big.

For instance, if only two or three items are left unanswered in a questionnaire of 40 items or more, this case can be dropped. And again, Hair et al. (2006) equally note that the issue of missing data could be frustrating enough and damaging when not

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properly handled. Hence, they identify a four-step process of identifying and solving this problem. These steps are: defining the type of misplaced information; defining the degree of misplaced information; analyse the unpredictability of the misplaced information procedures and choice of the citation technique.

However, the general rule of thumb on missing data is enumerated by Hair et al. (2006) which comprises that misplaced information under 10 percent for an individual case or remark can generally be overlooked but the number of cases with no misplaced information must be adequate for the designated examination method. Variables with as little as 15 percent misplaced information are candidates for removal, but higher levels of misplaced information, for instance 20 percent, can often be alleviated. After bearing in mind the above endorsements the researcher found no misplaced information.

3.13.3 Means and Standard Deviations

Utilization of a table of means and standard deviations is the ideal way of analyzing a multivariate data. The five-point Likert scale was used to measure the data in order to obtain the results of the descriptive statistics, which indicates that some respondents were dissatisfied with some items. Minimum and maximum scales indicate no out-of-range entries. The results also revealed that the mean of all variables range from 3.25 to 4.22 on a five-point scale; an above than average mean indicating that majority of the respondents are agreeable or are averagely satisfied of the services.

Many scholars are of the opinion that descriptive statistics are good in detecting outliers. The proposed test for outliers is to change data into standardized scores to

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determine values over 2.5 for small samples and values over 3 or 4 for large samples (Hair et al.,2006), Z-scores' inspection will enable the identification of outlying cases which is invaluable in data screening. Z-scores over +3 and less than -3 are outliers (Coakes & Steed, 2007). Using the recommended test outlined above, the researcher did not find any outliers.

3.14 Summary

The findings of this pilot study have clearly shown some futures of transformational, transactional and laisses- faire leadership styles that and school environment that touch academic improvement. The information acquired has delivered some precise indication that academic settings and managerial ability is meaningfully connected to academic improvement as shown in the SSCE/NECO results and managerial traits. These results will be made clear and fully explained in the subsequent chapters after information gathering and examination. The gathering of information and examination encouraged the investigator to go on board upon another investigation action that explains how the data was collected during the actual field work, and how the response rate assisted the research to arrive at the findings. Activities like data screening, data inspection, missing data, mean and standard deviation, reliability test and factor analysis were conducted to clean the collected data and to equally actualize the reliability and validity of the collected data for further testing.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this Chapter, the research presents the statistical interpretations of the data collected and use with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS ver. 20) to analyse the data. The chapter consists of Descriptive Analysis Variables including the Demographic Characteristics of the respondents presented in Frequencies and Percentages. Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were used for the variables analysed in relation to the Influence of Transformational Leadership Style and School Environment towards School Improvement in the selected Unity and Non-unity Schools. Further analyses were conducted with the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Procedure, ANOVA and Multiple Regression using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method. Findings from the analysis of the variables and tests of the hypotheses are resolved at the end of the chapter.

The result of the data analysed is explained in the following categories:

I.   Demographic Analysis of Respondents

II. Descriptive Analysis of Variables used in the Study

III. Hypothesis Testing – Evaluation on decision to accept or reject the alternative and research hypothesis

4.2 The Initial Screening

It is very easy and normal to committee error at the course of entering or keying data in to the SPSS (Pallant, 2007) it is therefore very important for researchers to check for errors or mistakes at the time of keying data into the SPSS. Two things are very

important at this juncture: one should check for errors at the first instant and then follow up with correcting the errors that are found in the data files (Pallant, 2007). It is observed that errors encountered in data keying can mess-up the results obtained He further advised that researchers should at all times try checking for errors at the time of going in for data analysis so as to detect and correct the errors found.

A rigours and thorough inspection was conducted in this study using descriptive analysis technique as advised by (Pallant, 2007). This process enables the researcher to obtain the minimum and maximum values that are supposed to be in a particular data set. Verily, at the time of the inspection, the result revealed that there were no data set with any error. Out of ranged data were also checked, such as data that are out of scale like a scale 1-5. The results maintained its position of being within range. This exercise provides a headway for the next analysis.

4.2.1 Preliminary Analysis

In the words of (Pallant, 2007) the preliminary analysis always includes checking for the outliers, normality and multicollinearity which are needed first at the time of conducting any analysis like correlations and multiple regressions. Pallant emphasizes that this first-hand activity of conducting the preliminary analysis is very important because they are conditions that must be fulfilled before conducting analysis. Therefore violating this procedure can cause a lot of problems including prevention of further analysis of correlations and multiple regression analysis. For instance, there is the need to conduct checks for outliers to see if some particular data sets are showing low or high figures above its data set while the normality helps to ensure that data collected are well distributed without skewing to one side. In this

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research, boxplot and histogram were adopted to check for the outliers and normality cases at the same time as advised by (Pallant, 2007). The results received indicated that all the conditions for conducting correlations and regression analysis were met.

4.2.2 Treatment of Outliers

(Pallant, 2007) described outlier as any numerically distant data that is far away from the rest of the data. Therefore, according to him this data is seen as the data that are remarkably deviating from the rest of the data. Outliers are caused either by chance, measurement errors or heavy-tailed distribution. Treating this kind of problems in research requires several methods as suggested by Pallant, (2007); Osborne & Overby, (2004); & Sekaran and Bougie, (2010). Through this method, one can check and detect data set for errors or abnormalities. For instance, one can use the mahalanobisor, boxplot or histogram. There are various understandings between authors concerning the presence of outliers in a data as to whether they can affect results or not Pallant, (2007). For Osborne & Overbay, (2004) the appearance of outliers may not affect the result of the study conducted while Pallant, (2007) and Sekaran & Bougie, (2010) emphasized that the appearance of outliers in a study are a serious menace to results. However, since outliers checking is a precondition for conducting analysis such as regressions, which is of great importance to this study, the research run an empirical checking using three methods of histogram, Mahalanobisor and boxplot.

All the histograms and the Mahalanobisor were plotted, and the result through the inspection of the histogram and the scanning of the Mahalanobisor showed that there are no cases of outliers in the data set. To treat outliers in a data set two methods are

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suggested by Pallant, (2007), which include deletion and score assigning (which means that any variable found with outliers is assigned another score). The inspection of Mahalanobisor and boxplot indicate that there is an outlier's presence in data sets.

The outliers were identified and deleted accordingly (Pallant, 2007). In this study, a total of 4 items out of 563 were identified and deleted leaving 559 from the data set. After the deletion, the histogram and boxplot were again plotted to see if there are still cases of outliers. Even though the data presented outliers again, as they are not extreme cases, and are not significant, they were however not deleted. This was done on basis of suggestions offered by (Osborne & Overbay, 2004) and (Pallant, 2007) that says outliers without extreme cases are not to be deleted as they are not significant and may not affect the result of the analysis.

4.2.3 Test of Normality

The assumption to normality is in line with considering the different multivariate strategies like multiple regressions. For the purpose of carrying out a successful factor analysis, it is imperative that outliers and linearity are first addressed.

Kurtosis and skewness are two of the main tests that are basically carried out for univariate normality. They are signifying to the characteristics of the distribution methods and are best used together with interval and ratio scale data. The whole values for kurtosis and skewness usually turn out to be zero in situations where the observed distribution is shown to be normal. On the contrary, positive values of skewness predict positive skew while positive values for kurtosis shows a very high level of distribution characteristics. On the other hand, a negative skewness value

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shows negative skew and negative kurtosis values shows an encomium distribution.

However, normal distribution is not overbearing for factor analysis but is applicable for varied multivariate statistical techniques such as multiple regression and some alternative descriptive statistics concerning measures of variability and central tendency. These assist in determining the normality of the distribution systems (Hair et al, 2006). This however, does not mean that lack of normality cannot affect the analysis as correlations which are the basis of factor analysis that can be compressed. Normality was tested in the present study by using normal probability plots (p-p plots) Examination of data was based on the above guidelines and is considered to be acceptable. The whole variables were tested using skewness and kurtosis levels to determine normality. According to Hair et al. (1998), the acceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis is between -2.00 and + 2.00 at the significance level of 0.05.

It is clear that none of the variables showed skewness or kurtosis over 2.0, which implies that the data was suitably distributed. It indicates that analysis of skewness and kurtosis at univariate levels results to prior confirmation of multivariate normality only.

4.2.4   Test of Multi-Collinearity

Before the above assumptions, multicollinearity is another assumption that is considered to be a significant one to make sure of multicollinearity's absence. In accordance with the processes of Collinearity, Collinearity is carried out for the assessment and determination of multicollinearity problems of predictors. To achieve such a process, Tolerance Value and the Variance inflation Factor (VIF) were analysed. According to Hair et al. (2006), the tolerance values ranges between

0-1. A value of 1 indicates the variable's non-relation with the other variables while a value of 0 indicates the variable's perfect correlation with another variable. VIF has a standard cut-off value of 10 with all the predictors required to have a VIF value of less than 10. The present study's multicollinearity test values are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Tolerance Value and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Test

Independent Variable	Collinearity	
	Tolerance	VIF
Leadership	.089	11.292
Environment	.089	11.292

From the Table 4.1, it is clear that Multicollinearity does not exist amongst all independent variables as the tolerance values register less than 1.00 and VIF values are less than 10.0. Hence, the resulting data can be explored through the use of multivariate techniques like the relevant regression analysis.

4.2.5   Testing of Linearity

In order to achieve the actual intention of Linearity Assessment, this study employed the use of normal plot diagram. Figure 4.6 below shows the actual outcome of the linearity analysis. Normal distribution of data is highly impossible to obtain in an accurate manner. Some cases are not taking into consideration because they differ greatly either above or below the diagonal lines while the observed values do not display any substantial variation. Therefore, the resulting residual are treated as

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normal. It can be narrated that the needed results associated to the linearity test are satisfied and they can be examined again.

4.2.6 Homoscedasticity

This is yet another kind of test undertaking in relation to assumptions. Verification is made through the use of scatter plots of regression; standardized residuals v. regression standardized predicted values. The random plot patterns indicates that the assumption relative to homoscedasticity is correct.

4.2.7 Independence of Error Term

In order to make an accurate and valid assessment of the independence of error assumptions, the Durbin-Watson Statistics were utilized. Based on the Coakes and steed (2003), the independence of error term is considered invalid if the Durbin-Watson values are between 1.50 and 2.50. For the present study, the Durbin-Watson value is summarized in a Table attached to appendix C. The result shows that the value declined among the acceptable values, indicating that auto-correlation problems are not found.

4.3 Demographic Analysis of Respondents.

This section deals with the description of the respondents of the research. It contained the description of the respondents' profile. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed in both unity and non-unity schools, 400 questionnaires were distributed in the unity schools while 200 were distributed to non-unity schools. However, a total of 563 questionnaires were returned, 388 from unity schools and 175 from non-unity schools. In this section, a total of 563 respondents participated in

the study. The characteristics analysed include the school type, gender of the respondents, their age, educational level, work experience or duration in the school, department and status of work. Nevertheless, all the personal data selected along the opinion on influence of leadership style and school environment towards schools achievement in the selected Unity Schools in Nigeria were selected and each of the variables is classified in frequencies and percentages.

Data cleaning was performed which later changed the structural number of respondents leaving the data with a new sum of 384 respondents for unity schools equivalent to 68.7% 175 with 31.3% respondents initially obtained from non-unity schools with a total of 559. For the purpose of this study, two types of schools were chosen, they are Unity and Non-Unity schools. There are total of 7 Unity schools with a total of 384 equivalent to 68.7% respondents and 7 Non-Unity Schools having 175 equivalent to 31.3% respondents all located in the north-western part of Nigeria.

Gender is among the greatest and most important factors frequently used in analysis of data obtained from researches, it is significant because in many situations the need of males differs from those of females and that can affect data analysis positively or negatively. The total respondents of 331 equivalent to 59.2% were male while the female were 228 equivalent to 40.8%. This classification though not equitably distributed, revealed that the opinions of male and female respondents were solicited.

This helps to tackle the gender bias aspect of the study more so the influence of transformational leadership style and school environment towards school achievement in the selected Unity Schools would not be assessed on the bases of gender. For the ages of the respondents, only 47 or 8.4% were between 20-30 years.

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Those who were between 31 and 40years were 198 or 35.4% while 235 or 42.0% were between the range of 41 and 50years with 79 or 14.1% above that ranged of between 51-60 years. This distribution is attributable to the fact that all the respondents were adult of working age. Their opinion on the influence of leadership style on the school environment and students' academic achievement in the selected Unity Schools would therefore be expected to reflect this age bracket.

Education is a socio-economic characteristic that has a tremendous effect on the general behaviour of individuals. For the purpose of this study, this section of the research has categorized educational qualifications of teachers in Unity and Non-Unity Secondary Schools to four levels i.e. National certificate of education (NCE), First degree, Masters and PhD. By educational qualification, 30 or 5.4% staff have (NCE), 270 or 48.3% are first Degree holders and 213 or 38.1% have Master's Degree. Only 46 or 8.2% of them have Doctorate Degrees. The predominance of first degree is associated with the requirement for teaching qualification in the selected schools. Only 68 or 12.2% of the respondents are on part time, while 491 or 87.8% are on tenure appointment in the schools. The respondents cut across all disciplines in the selected Unity and Non-unity Schools.

Similarly, Table 4.2 reported some descriptions of the respondents regarding work experience, where teachers with 1-10 years' experience are 399 that equivalent to 71.4% of the sample and 11-20 years have 130 teachers that constitutes 23.3% of the sample, and 21-30 years' experience had 24 teachers representing 4.3%, while 31 and above work experience had 6 or 1.1% teachers. Additionally, in term of respondent's department 105 respondents or 18.8% are from Voc/tech, 233 or 41.7% are from science department while 221 or 39.5% are from Arts department. Finally,

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the result from the same Table 4.2 also revealed that, all the 559 respondents were of Nigerian nationality representing 100% while non-Nigerians were zero with zero percent.

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variable

S/R No	Factor	Frequency	Percentage
1	**School Type**		
	Unity	384	68.7
	Non-unity	175	31.3
2	**Gender**	331	59.2
	Male	228	40.8
	Female		
3	**Nationality**		
	Nigerian	559	100
	Non-Nigerian	00	00
4	**Age**		
	20-30	47	8.4
	31-40	198	35.4
	41-50	235	42.0
	51-60	79	14.1
5	**Educational Level**		
	NCE	30	5.4
	Degree	270	48.3
	Masters	213	38.1
	PhD	46	8.2
6	**Department**		
	Voc/Tech	105	18.8
	Sciences	233	41.7
	Arts	221	39.5
7	**Work Experience**		
	1-10	399	71.4
	11-20	130	23.3
	21-30	24	4.3
	31-Above	6	1.1
8	**Status**		
	Part time	68	12.2
	Full time	491	87.8

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics was computed in the form of means and standard deviation for the constructs. This procedure was considered adequate since the variables were measured on interval scale. Sekaran and Bougie, (2010) suggested that the most collective measure of central tendency is the mean, which is signifying to the typical quantity of the data set. Standard deviation is the square root of variance and a measure of range or spreading, which provides a catalogue of variability in the data set. Both mean and standard deviation are important descriptive statistics for interval and ratio scale. This research used five point Likert scale, and Nik, Jantan and Taib (2010) understanding of the level of score is modified. They suggested that marks of less than 2.33 are low level, 2.33 to 3.67 are moderate level, and 3.67 and above are regarded as high level. Table 4.3 below explains the levels and scores as recommended by the scholars.

Table 4.3

Level of Measurement

Marks	Level
Below 2.33	Low
2.33 to 3.67	Moderate
3.67 and above	High

Furthermore, the dimension (IV), Leadership Style was found to have tremendous effect on the dependent variables of School Environment and School Improvement. Descriptive statistics is a pattern and general trends in a data set. Table 4.3 indicates that leadership style was measured by multifactor leadership questionnaire using a five point Likert scale from 1-5, whereas the school environment was measured by

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school environment questionnaire also having five point Likert scale. The school improvement is another dependent variable that uses school improvement questionnaire as an instrument of measurement also with five Likert scale. In all, the measurement recognizes 1 as lower score while 5 is representing a high score.

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics for Transformational Leadership

The result of Table 4.4 below presented the descriptive statistics for the independent variable (Transformational leadership) as used by Bass and Avolio,(1990). This measurement has a potential maximum population of 384 in the unity schools and depressed in the non-unity schools with just 218. The sample in this study has a means of 3.77 with .39 standard deviation in transformational leadership as overall, and the sub- dimensions has a mean of 3.82 and SD of .39 in the unity school and 3.68 as mean with .39 also as SD in the Non-unity schools. This indicates that base on overall transformational leadership the, Unity School records higher than the Non-unity School. The mean for Contingent reward for unity school is 3.80 with .55 as SD and 3.89 for non-unity school with .51 as SD, Management by exception combined gives a mean of 3.85 for unity with an SD of .64 and the non-unity has a mean of 3.63 with an SD of .58. Then Laissez-faire had 3.45 as mean for unity with an SD of .71 and non-unity had 3.59 with an SD of .56.

And Idealized influence (Attributed) has the overall of 3.85 as mean with .57 as SD, but in Unity School it records 3.95 as mean with .55 as SD, Non-unity School has 3.64 as mean with .55 as SD which clearly shows that in terms of idealized influence, Unity School is higher. Idealized influence (behaviour) record 3.79 as mean with .51 as SD in the general perspective, but in Unity School it has 3.81 as

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mean with .49 as SD while the Non-unity School has 3.74 as mean with .55 as SD. Categorically, looking at the Table 4.3, individualized consideration was excessively used followed by idealized influence to develop the Nigerian schools. And it is glaring that Unity Schools are higher than the Non-unity Schools. The level of transformational leadership therefore is Unity (M = 3.82, SD = .39) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational leadership than Non-unity (M = 3.66, SD = .39). Therefore the level of principal's transformational leadership in unity school is more than that of the non-unity.

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics for Transformational Leadership

Leadership styles			Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Transformational Leadership	**3.77**	**.39**	**3.82**	**.39**	**3.68**	**.39**
Idealized influence (Attribute)	3.85	.57	3.95	.55	3.64	.55
Idealized influence (behavior)	3.79	.51	3.81	.49	3.74	.55
Inspirational motivation	3.56	.57	3.60	.57	3.48	.56
Intellectual stimulation	3.82	.55	3.85	.55	3.77	.54
Individualized consideration	3.83	.57	3.90	.58	3.68	.53

4.4.2   The Level of Principal's Transactional Leadership Dimensions

On the part of Transactional Leadership, Table 4.6 below shows that 3.80 was recorded as mean with .47 as SD, in contingent reward, 3.80 was also recorded as means with .55 SD, in management –by-exception active 3.61 was recorded as mean with .72 as SD, in management-by-exception (passive), 3.95 was mean with .57 as SD all in the overall. The comparism obtained in relation to Unity and Non-unity schools shows that management-by-exception passive records higher than the rest

dimensions, hence, the leader seems to be exempting his teachers in the administration of the school. And the Unity schools seem to have the highest treat. So also the laissez-faire recorded 3.50 as mean with.67 as SD as the overall, with the Unity Schools recording 3.45 as mean with .71 as SD and the Non-unity has 3.59 as mean with .56 as SD which shows that the Unity School is less I-don't-care in administration than the Non-unity Schools.. The level of transactional leadership therefore is Unity (M = 3.88, SD = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational leadership than Non-unity (M = 3.63, SD = .46). Therefore the level of principal's transactional leadership in unity school is more than that of the non-unity.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics for Transactional Leadership and Laissez-faire

Leadership styles			Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Transactional Leadership	**3.80**	**.47**	**3.88**	**.46**	**3.62**	**.46**
Contingent reward	3.80	.55	3.89	.51	3.62	.58
Management-by-exception (Active)	3.61	.72	3.58	.78	3.66	.58
Management-by-exception (Passive)	3.95	.57	4.11	.50	3.60	.57
Laissez-faire leadership	**3.50**	**.67**	**3.45**	**.71**	**3.59**	**.56**

In summary, this shows that the leaders have actually demonstrated sense of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration to show their transformational qualities. The leaders equally demonstrated high sense of transactional qualities through exhibiting their qualities in management-by-exception and the award of contingent reward. The laissez-faire was high due to the little freedom given to the teachers for the sake of conformity and dedication to duty.

4.4.3   Descriptive statistics for School Environment

The result of the table above Table 4.6 below presented the descriptive statistics for the dependent variable (School Environment) as used by Bandura, (1997). This measurement has a potential maximum population of 384 in the unity schools and depressed in the non-unity schools with just 218.

The sample in this study has a means of 3.78 with .41 standard deviation in School Environment, the constructs has Student Support with 3.81 as mean with .54 SD, in Affiliation 3.80 as means with .48 SD in Professional Interest 3.71 as mean with .61 SD in Staff freedom 3.83 as mean with .49 as SD, in Participatory decision making 3.77 as mean with .50 as SD, in Innovation 3.86 was mean with .50 as SD, in Resource adequacy 3.73 was mean and .53 as SD and finally, Work pressure has 3.80 with .48 as SD. This shows that the leaders have actually demonstrated skills in the use of the environment to facilitate school improvement.

The leader's quality in relating with teachers was good, having recorded high in the constructs that exhibited sense of affiliation with his teachers, professional interest and wide range of participatory decision making. He initiates resource adequacy to boast sense of innovation through work pressure. The level of School Environment therefore is Unity ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .43$) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational leadership than Non-unity ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .33$). Therefore, the level of principal's School Environment in unity school is more than that of the non-unity.

Table 4.6

Descriptive Statistic for School Environment

			Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
School Environment	**3.78**	**.41**	**3.81**	**.43**	**3.71**	**.33**
Student support	3.81	.54	3.81	.60	3.81	.40
Affiliation	3.80	.48	3.81	.50	3.78	.41
Professional Interest	3.71	.61	3.72	.67	3.68	.45
Staff Freedom	3.83	.49	3.87	.51	3.74	.45
Participatory decision making	3.77	.50	3.85	.49	3.59	.48
Innovation	3.86	.50	3.94	.48	3.67	.50
Resource Adequacy	3.67	.53	3.71	.55	3.58	.48
Work Pressure	3.80	.48	3.82	.47	3.77	.49

4.4.4 Descriptive statistics for School Improvement

The result of the table above Table 4.7 below presented the descriptive statistics for the dependent variable (School Improvement) as used by Pintrich,(1999). This measurement has a potential maximum population of 384 in the unity schools and depressed in the non-unity schools with just 218. The variable (School Improvement) in this study has a mean of 3.81 with .39 standard deviation, in Collegiality it recorded 3.89 as mean with .45 SD, in Collective efficacy 3.77 was mean with .49 as SD, in Personal efficacy 3.88 was mean with .46 SD, in Job satisfaction 3.84 was recorded as mean with .48 as SD, Policy-say-so also recorded 3.73 as mean with .53 as SD and finally Teaming has 3.76 with .53 as SD. This shows that the leaders have actually demonstrated high quality in harmonizing the teachers to work as team which brought about the high score in school improvement. The level of School Improvement therefore is Unity ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .40$) reported

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significantly higher levels of Transformational leadership than Non-unity ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .35$). Therefore the level of principal's School Improvement in unity school is more than that of the non-unity.

Table 4.7

Descriptive Statistic for School Improvement

Variable			Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
School Achievement	**3.81**	**.39**	**3.85**	**. 40**	**3.72**	**.35**
Collegiality	3.89	.45	3.97	.42	3.71	.45
Collective Efficacy	3.77	.49	3.81	.49	3.69	.47
Personal Efficacy	3.88	.46	3.96	.44	3.71	.46
Job Satisfaction	3.84	.48	3.90	. 43	3.70	.53
Policy-say-so	3.73	.53	3.74	.57	3.71	.44
Teaming	3.76	.53	3.74	.57	3.79	.42

4.5   Model summary

The estimated Beta coefficients for determining the functional relationship of the Leadership Styles on the School Environment in the model is summarized in Table 4.8. Multiple Regression Analysis was used to evaluate the effect of independent variables (Leadership Style and School Environment) on dependent variable (School Achievement). The model summary shows R value at .957[a] with square and adjusted R all at .916, while standard error at the level of 11246. Numerous reversion investigations were implemented to evaluate the consequence of sovereign variables (Leadership Style and School Environment) on dependent variable (School Achievement). As depicted in Table 4.8, the regression results revealed the R square value of 0.344. This specifies that 34.44% of variance that explained the DV (School Achievement) was accounted for by the IVs (Leadership Style and School Environment) which are all significant at the level of 1%.

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Table 4.8

Model summary: Durbin-Watson Statistical value

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std of the estimate	Durbin Watson
Leadership	.957[a]	.916	.916	.11246	
Environment					
Achievement					1.787

4.6 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is the act of constructing the summary of the pattern of correlation between the dimensions, and making the variables easily manageable which is carried out for the purpose of decreasing the several variables to a lesser number. It is also intended to check the validity of the questionnaire; hence, factor analysis is tested to see whether the questions are in the right construct.

In the same vein, the instrument items listed in Appendix A were explored to confirm the level of dimensionality. At first, the examination was conducted through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) by utilizing the principal components methods like Principal Components Analysis (PCA), PCA is a factor extraction process that relates to the formation of uncorrelated linear combination of the variables (Everitt & Dunn, 1983).

Also, the first element was revealed to have the Maximum Variance. Successive components contributed to the lesser portions of the variance as they were not correlated with each other. The first factor solution was acquired through the utilization of principal components analysis. Following the suggestions of Coakes and Steed (2003), an individual factor analysis was carried out on each of the scales

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as the ratio of five subjects per item is 5:5. The ratio of five subjects per item (1:5) is capable of running a single factor analysis, but in this situation, it is not so (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 1998). Accordingly, it is clear that the required sample size to carry out the factor analysis for all the items is 505 subjects (101 interval scale x 5 = 505 respondents). But since the subjects amounted to 563, a separate factor analysis had to be conducted. The section below explains the validity of the individual dimensions.

The procedure was conceded in order to delete items lacking of sign representing that the substances are part of an imagined measurement. The items were removed individually using a procedure proposed by several researchers (Hair, et al., 2006; Sekaran, 2006) Viz: Factor analysis is suitable to be carried out on metric variables and in the current study and the most suitable is the Five-Point Likert Scale. Items with a measuring of sampling adequacy (MSA) of less than 500 in the anti-image matrix were erased. Moreover the anti-image connexion matrix has the negatives of the partial correlation coefficients while the anti-image covariance has the rejections of the incomplete covariance. A good factor model is considered by the small form of most off-diagonal elements. The diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix displays the measure of the sampling adequacy of the variable with the acceptable level considered as .5. In the present study, all the three variables are acceptable as they are all over .5.

Items which failed to load with any other items were deleted and for the purpose of the study, the factor matrix loading or correlation between the items and factors was used; Items with loading less than .5 were deleted while pure items having .5 or over .5 loaded on only one factor. Also, items that double loaded (Complex items) were

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deleted because they led to difficulty in interpreting the output. This happens when the factor score was greater than or equal to .500 on more than one factor. Items were also removed if an item loaded on a factor seems unreasonably associated with other items in the same factor.

Generally, variables should extract communalities of over .50 to be included in the analysis. Nevertheless, items as low as .30 have been known to be accepted. In the present study, all the variables communalities registered over 0.50.

Majority of the factors are required to meet a particular percentage of variance clarified: in most cases 60% or higher. In the present study, the alteration for managerial ability academic setting and academic improvement was over 60% (68.43%, 72.67% and 79.45% respectively). The result of Bartlett examination of sphericity is distinguished and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin degree in relative to adequacy of selection is over .6. The latter evaluation of sampling examines whether the partial correlation amongst variables is small or large. Bartlett's test of sphericity tests whether the connexion matrix is an identity matrix, and if it is, it indicates that the factor model is inappropriate. In the present study, the Bartlett test of sphericity was found to be important while Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin degree of specimen competence was identified to be over .6.

The steps followed above were repeated several times. Hence, the final data is the result of several repetitions of item analysis and evaluation. Moreover, if the principal component is carried out with factor analysis while performing the Varimax rotation, it leads to supporting the initial constructs and discriminant validity. Based on Hair et al.'s (2006) recommendation, the least obligation for factor filling assortments from .30- .40, but filling of .50 or above are measured

more important. The detailed factor examination in the present study for all variables is clarified in the following section.

The use of factor analysis in this study became very important because the exercise was used to determine the number of items present in a factor or construct. In other words, it was used to reduce the number of factors from a large number of measured variables (Zikmund et al., 2013). It is usually done to determine whether the instruments were able to measure what they intend to measure. Henceforth the validity of the instruments was assessed using this method, based on this, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) popularly known as Principal Component Analysis and a Varimax Rotation was adopted to validate the entire instrument. The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is the indicator of how well an instrument validates its construct while factor loading indicates how strong a measured variable is correlated with a factor (Zikmund et al., 2013). In this study, the factor loading required for each item to be included in the factor is .30 as suggested by (Pallant, 2007) and (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). All instruments in this study were subjected to SPSS for Factor Analysis according to the construct they measure using the principal component factor analysis and a Varimax Rotation as indicated earlier above. The results are as follows:

4.6.1   Factor Analysis for Leadership Styles

The current study carried out Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on the Leadership Styles comprising three main categories; Transformational Leadership Style, Transactional Leadership Style and laissez-faire Leadership Style. But Transformational Leadership Style is composed of five sub-dimensions as; idealized influence (attribute); idealized influence (behaviour); inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and modified consideration.

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The current research made use of four items each for attributes, for conduct, for stimulating motivation, intelligent stimulation and finally for modified thought. On the other hand, the Transactional leadership Style includes only three sub-dimensions of depending reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). Accordingly, four substances were used for each sub-dimension. Lastly, the laissez-faire managerial ability has one single sub-dimension which is Laissez-Faire. Also, four items were used for laissez-faire.

Table 4.9 shows the number of items for each sub-dimension. The findings from the exploratory factor analysis regarding managerial ability are offered in in Table 4.10. The Table includes of the factor loadings of nine sub-dimensions of managerial items after every process showing either low factor loading (< .50) or double loading; the consequences showed that all items loadings range from .40 to .90.

Table 4.9

Leadership Styles Sub-Dimensions and Number of Items

Sub-Dimensions	No of items
Idealized influence (Attributed)	4
Idealized influence (Behaviour)	4
Inspirational motivation	4
Intellectual stimulation	4
Individualized consideration	4
Contingent reward	4
Management-by-exception (Active)	4
Management-by-exception (Passive)	4
Laissez-faire	4

Table 4.10 below indicates that the percentage of variance explained in & is 56.47%, KMO degree for managerial ability is .724 which designates an adequate high level that is suitable to be used in the factor analysis (Hair, et al., 2006). Bartlett Sphericity's Rate for the examination is large (1618.65) with a difference of 190 and an important level of .000. Both KMO amount and Bartlett test of sphericity

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consequences designate that the items used fulfilled the necessities for the factor examination, hence, suggesting that factor analysis could be made appropriate to the managerial ability's substances. The researcher conducted factor examination through the use of the opinion constituent examination (PCA) along with the Varimax rotation measure which incorporates the Kaiser Normalization methods proposed by Hair et al. (2006). The Varimax rotation concept has its basis on the simplification of the columns according to the factor matrix and contributes in arranging the items linked to a particular factor to be more conspicuous.

According to Hair et al. (2006), generally, it is acknowledge that PCA is linked with determining the number of factors explaining the optimum number of variations in particular information. Based on Everitt and Dunn's (1983) a PCA level with an Eigenvalue level over 1.0 is known to be significant it can be used to control whether the factors can be removed. The outcome of a nine-factor test caused in an Eigenvalue of more than 1. The scree shows that the plan has a slanted tendency from the level of one factor to the level of the following nine factors before following an almost flat tendency.

From the result in appendix c, it is clear that all the 36 items of leadership styles displayed high levels factor loading. Hair et al. (2006) state that factor loadings with a value of more than .50 or greater are considered significant while loadings of more than .40 and. 30 are equally so. In the present research, the factor loadings were over 0.40, indicating that the items significantly correlates with the factors with factor loadings fluctuating from .406 to .931. The examination approve that one set of substances measures the same thing.

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Table 4.10

Exploratory Factor Loading for Transformational Leadership Styles

No of items	Scales	
LS23 My principal considers the ethical and moral results of decisions.	.780	
LS24 My principal keep track of all mistakes.	.726	
LS28 My principal consider an individual as having different potentials.	.762	
LS31 My principal suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	.659	
LS27 My principal direct his attention towards failures to meet standards.	.640	
LS8 My principal seek different perspective when solving problems.	.590	
LS33 My principal emphasized the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	.552	
LS22 My principal concentrate his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.	.546	
LS17 My principal show that I am a firm believer in "if it isn't broke, don't fix it."		.629

Table 4.10 Continued.

LS19 My principal treats others as individuals rather than just as member of a group.	.612		
LS16 My principal make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	.593		
LS21 My principal act in ways that build other's respect for me.	.589		
LS20 My principal demonstrate that problems must become chronic before he take action.	.493		
LS18 My principal go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	.487		
LS35 My principal express confidence that goals will be achieved.		.912	
LS37 My principal use methods of leadership that are satisfying.		.912	
LS39 My principal is effective in representing others to higher authorities higher.		.912	
LS13 My principal talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.			.875
LS12 My principal waits for things to go wrong before taking action.			.875
LS11 My principal discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.			.515

Table 4.10 Continued.

Item	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
LS2 My principal re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.	.817				
LS41 My principal heighten others desire to succeed	.817				
LS6 My principal talks about my most important values and beliefs.		.897			
LS45 My principal avoid making decisions.		.897			
LS4 My principal focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.		.482			
LS43 My principal increase others willingness to try harder.		.482			
LS32 My principal delays responding to urgent operations.		.408			
LS38 My principal gets others to do more than they expected to do.			.931		
LS3 My principal fails to interfere until problems become serious.			.931		
LS42 My principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.				.864	
LS36 My principal is effective in meeting others job-related needs.				.864	
LS40 My principal works with others in a satisfactory way.					.802
LS1 My principal provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.					.776

Percentage	56.47
KMO	.724
Bartlett's Test	190
Sig	.00

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4.6.2 Factor Analysis for School Environment

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the school environment that has twelve constructs as follows: student support; affiliation; specialised attention; staff autonomy; participatory decision making; invention; reserve adequacy; and work heaviness.

There are a total of 8 items used Student backing, 7 for Association, 9 Professional attention, 3 for Staff freedom, 5 for Participatory decision making, 4 for Innovation, 8 for Resource competence and 7 for Work heaviness. The table below explains all the 56 school environment's items by the constructs in which they existed.

The outcome emanating from the investigative factor analysis on the academic setting is represented in Table 4.11 below. The Table show the factor filling of the 8 concept of the academic setting items after every step of the technique that exposed either low factor filling (>.40) or double filling. The result designate that the loadings of all the items are fluctuating from .40 to 90.

Table 4.11

School environment Dimensions, and Number of Items

Dimension	No of items
Student support	7
Association	7
Professional interest	7
Staff liberty	7
Participatory decision making	7
Novelty	7
Resource competence	7
Work pressure	7

The result in Table 4.12 below indicates that the percentage of variance explained in % is 74.94, KMO degree for school environment substances presented a rate of .679 This designates that a commendable competence that is suitable for using factor examination have arose (Hair et al. 2006). The experiential value of Bartlett sphericity is also large 25661.01 with an alteration of 1540 and its related important level is very low .000. The consequences of both the KMO trials and Bartlett examination of sphericity consequences exposed that the substances used in the academic setting evaluation were seen as meeting the circumstances for the given factor analysis. This also suggests that factor examination could be made appropriate for the dissimilar items of academic setting.

Researchers such as Everitt and Dunn (1983) specified that the PCA with an Eigenvalue above 1.0 is thought to be important and can be used to regulate the factors to be removed. The outcomes of the test in this study exposed eight factors with an Eigen value of more than 1. The result reveals that the plan drops sharply descending from one factor to eight factors before it slowly becomes a roughly flat line.

The outcomes in Table 4.12 below demonstrates that all of the 56 school environment items demonstrate larger factor loading. Hair et al. (2006) believe that as a general law, the factor loadings with value exceeding 0.40 or greater are understood as being very helpful and important; while loading that exceeds 0.40 are believed to be more significant; loading exceeding 0.30 is believed to be comparatively important for the outcomes. In this research, all units have been arranged so that they have factor loadings exceeding 0.40 and thus revealing that the

items relate very strongly with the factors themselves. The factor loading ranges from .406 to .902. This investigation demonstrated that one set of items necessarily evaluated only one aspect.

Table 4.12

Exploratory Factor Loading for School environment

No of items	Scales
SE15 teachers have to work long hours to complete their work.	.796
SE7 There is constant pressure to keep working.	.729
SE11 I am not expected to conform to a particular teaching style.	.714
SE43 My classes are expected to use prescribed textbooks and prescribed resource materials.	.666
SE6 It is very difficult to change anything in this school.	.643
SE1 There are many disruptive, difficult students in this school.	.643
SE49 I often feel lonely and left out of things in the staffroom.	.611

Table 4.12 Continued.

SE33 My colleagues seldom take notice of my professional views and opinions.	.480		
SE34 Teachers show little interest in what is happening in other schools.		.801	
SE36 I am encouraged to make decisions without reference to a senior member.		.751	
SE10 Teachers avoid talking with each other about teaching and learning.		.794	
SE32 Students get along well with teachers.		.748	
SE41 I feel that I have many friends among my colleagues at this school.		.664	
SE51I am expected to maintain very strict control in the classroom.		.878	
SE17 I am ignored by other teachers.		.871	
SE13 Teachers are encouraged to be innovative in this school.		.771	
SE55 It is hard to keep up with your work load.			.887
SE21 There is a great deal of resistance to proposals for curriculum change.			.889
SE9 I feel accepted by other teachers.			.829
SE4 I am often supervised to ensure that I follow directions correctly.			.543

Table 4.12 Continued.

SE44 I must ask my subject department head or senior member of staff before I do most things.	..466		
SE5 Decisions on running the school are made by teachers and the principal.	.796		
SE45 There is much experimentation with different teaching approaches.	..502		
SE27 There are few rules and regulations that I am expected to follow.		.709	
SE26 Many teachers attend in-service and other professional development courses.		.614	
SE25 I feel that I could rely on my colleagues for assistance if I need it.		.563	
SE24 There are many noisy, badly-behaved students.		.504	
SE29 Most teachers like the idea of change.		.498	
SE38 Tape recorders and cassettes are seldom available when needed.		.678	
SE16 Most students are pleasant and friendly to teachers.			.902
SE50 Teachers show considerable interest in the professional activities of their colleagues.			.901
SE47 Seldom are there deadline to be met.			.595

Table 4.12 Continued.

SE53 New and different ideas are always being tried out in this school.	.881
SE19 Syllabus and lesson plans are followed in this school.	.878
SE48 Very strict discipline is needed to control many of the students.	.726
Percentage	74.94
KMO	.679
Bartlett's Test	1540
Sig	.00

4.6.3 Factor Analysis for School Improvement

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the school environment that has twelve constructs as collegiality; shared effectiveness; individual effectiveness; job satisfaction; policy-say so and teaming. There are 8 items used for Collegiality, 7 for collective efficacy, 9 for personal efficacy, 3 for job satisfaction, 5 for policy-say-so and 4 for teaming. The table below explains all the 54 school achievement's items by the constructs in which they existed.

The outcome emanating from the exploratory factor analysis on the school achievement is portrayed in Table 4.13 below. The Table show the factor loading of the 8 construct of the school achievement items after every step of the procedure that showed either low factor loading (>.40) or double loading. The result indicates that the loadings of all the items are ranging from .40 to 90.

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Table 4.13

School Improvement Dimensions, Sub-Dimensions and Number of Items

Dimension	No of item
Collegiality	9
Collective efficacy	9
Personal efficacy	9
Job satisfaction	9
Policy-say-so	9
Teaming	9

The result in Table 4.14 below indicates that the percentage of variance explained in % is 75.12, KMO degree for School Achievement substances presented a rate of .540. This specifies that a commendable competence that is suitable for using factor examination have happened (Hair et al. 2006). The observed value of Bartlett Sphericity is also large 29695.81 with a difference of 1431 and its related important equal is very low (.000). The consequences of both the KMO procedures and Bartlett test of sphericity consequences exposed that the substances used in the academic improvement calculation are seen as meeting the circumstances for the given factor analysis. This also suggests that factor analysis could be made appropriate for the diverse items of Academic Improvement. Exceeding 1.0 is thought to be important and can be used to determine the factors to be extracted. The consequences of the examination in this investigation exposed six issues with an Eigen value of more than 1. The result exposes that the plan drops sharply descending from one factor to six factors before it gradually becomes an approximately horizontal line.

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The outcomes display that all of the 54 School Achievement items demonstrate larger factor loading. Hair et al. (2006) believe that as a general rule, the factor loadings with value exceeding 0.50 or greater are understood as being very helpful and important; while loading that exceeds 0.40 are believed to be more significant; loading exceeding 0.30 is believed to be comparatively important for the outcomes. In this research, all units have been arranged so that they have factor loadings exceeding 0.50 and thus revealing that the items relate very strongly with the factors themselves. The factor loading ranges from .452 to .933. This investigation demonstrated that one set of items necessarily evaluated only one aspect.

Table 4.14

Exploratory Factor Loading for School Improvement

No of items	Scales
SA37 How confident are you that student with disabilities assigned to regulate classes will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO reading test this year?	.802
SA35 How confident are you that parents will report being more satisfied with this school than they were last year?	.796
SA42 How much say do you have in deciding what you teach?	.768
SA32 How confident are you that students in this school will have fewer suspensions than they did last year?	.749
SA36 How confident are you that students with disabilities assigned to regulate classes will improve their academic performance this year?	.692
SA40 How say do you have in policy making in your school?	.668
SA41 How much say do you have in how you teach?	.454
SA17 The zone is a source of considerable dissatisfaction with my teaching job.	,400

Table 4.14 Continued.

SA48 How much can you influence the guiding policy at your school?	.925		
SA33 How confident are you that students will report that they feel safe in this school?	.921		
SA13 It will take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this zone.	.914		
SA4 Teachers maintain high standard at this school.	.787		
SA51 How much can your colleagues influence what to teach?		.881	
SA16 I am proud to tell others that I work for this zone.		.880	
SA7 My job provides me with continuing professional stimulation and growth.		.748	
SA8 In this school I am encouraged to experiment with my teaching.		.723	
SA19 At this school, stress and disappointment take the joy of my teaching.		.897	
SA54 How confident are you that students you teach will report being more satisfied with this school than they have being in the last two years?		.893	
SA47 How much can you influence your student's motivation to learn?		.835	
SA24 I adjust assignments to fit the learning styles of individual students.		.648	
SA15 Often I found it difficult to agree with this zone's policies on important matters relating to its teachers.			.897
SA50 How much can your colleague's influence how you teach?			.895
SA2 You can count on most teachers to help out anywhere, anytime-even though it may not be part of their official assignments.			.816
SA14 I feel this zone inspires the very best in the job performance of its teachers.			.836
SA53 How confident are you that student you teach will improve their school attendance rate this year?			.933

Table 4.14 Continued.

SA44 How much can you influence the principals decision?	.879	
SA9 The principal is interested in innovations and new ideas.	.876	
SA45 How much can you influence the discipline policies in at your school?	.851	
SA18 At this school, stress and disappointment take the joy out of teaching.....	.931	
SA20 If I could get a higher paying job, I'd leave teaching.	.511	
SA22 I don't seems to have as much enthusiasm now as I did when I began teaching.....		.836
SA1 Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas.		.664
SA23 I feel little loyalty to the teaching profession.		.881
SA21In general, I really enjoy my students.		.452
SA49 How much can you influence how your colleagues teach?		.811

Percentage	75.12
KMO	.540
Bartlett's Test	1431
Sig	.00

4.6.4 Correlation Analysis

In the words of (Pallant, 2001) correlation analysis can be described as the statistical process that is embraced in unfolding the strong point and bearing taken by the linear relationships amongst two different variables. The extent of relationship relative to measuring the strength and significance of the correlation amongst differences is clearly demonstrated by Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) that has considerable high levels. Cohen's (1988) research forwarded processes in explaining the strengths and the extent to which the relationships amongst two variables that ranges from between .10 to .29 are indications of a low level of correlation; .30 to .49 implies a

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moderate level of relationship; .50 to 1 implies higher levels of relationships, which is demonstrated in table 4.15

As clearly shown in Table 4.15 below, Transactional Leadership Styles are related with School Environment. It was found that the values for Correlation Coefficient in terms of the examined relationships amongst the two variables are .953** which is suggestive of moderate negative Correlation at the well accepted level of $r = .96$, $p <$ .01, which can be termed as a positive moderate correlation at the given levels where $p < .01$. As a significant positive relationship exists, therefore, there is a support for this hypothesis. It is evident from Table 4.14 below that transformational leadership behaviours are related with school Improvement. The correlation coefficient values relative to the examined relationships amongst the two variables leadership and achievement was found to be Transformational Leadership and School Improvement were significantly correlated, $r = .95$, $p < .01$, which can be termed as a positive moderate correlation at the given levels where $p < .01$. As a significant positive relationship exists, therefore, there is a support for this hypothesis.

Table 4.15

The Correlation of Principal's Leadership with School Environment and School Improvement

	p	r
Environment	.955**	0.001
Improvement	.953**	0.001

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Evidently, Table 4.15 above shows that Environment has a relationship with Leadership. It was found that the value of correlation coefficient for the analysed

relationship amongst the two variables is $r = .96$, $p < .01$, which can be termed as a positive moderate correlation at the given levels where p < .01. As a significant positive relationship exists, therefore, there is a support for this hypothesis.

Table 4.16 below provides a summary of the correlation of different variables that is portrayed and supplemented with details for the given hypothesis. It is evidently shown that there is a strong relationship between Environment and Improvement. It was found that the value of correlation coefficient for the analysed relationship amongst the two variables is $r = .94$, $p < .01$, which can be termed as a positive moderate correlation at the given levels where p < .01. As a significant positive relationship exists, therefore, there is a support for this hypothesis.

Table 4.16 below provides a summary of the correlation of different variables that is portrayed and supplemented with details for the given hypothesis. It is evidently shown that there is a strong relationship between environment and Leadership. It was found that the value of correlation coefficient for the analysed relationship amongst the two variables is $r = .96$, $p < .01$, which can be termed as a positive moderate correlation at the given levels where p < .01. As a significant positive relationship exists, therefore, there is a support for this hypothesis.

Table 4.16

The Correlation of School Environment with Leadership Styles and School Improvement

	p	R
Leadership	.955**	0.001
Improvement	. 937**	0.001

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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4.7   Reliability Test

(Pallant, 2003) stated that new trials of scales should have dependability to the level of a minimum of 0.60. Dependability means that the reference to making valuations of the degree to which there is consistency amongst the varied capacities of the variables Hair et al., (2006). Thus, it can be said that this process serves as a means to measure levels of constancies of the given presentation levels and behaviours. According to Sekaran (2003), Cronbach's Alpha has been very frequently used as an indicator for representing the appropriate indication levels related to reliance and internal consistency. It is agreed by most scholars that the widely accepted value for Cronbach's alpha turns to be 0.70, although it may decline to 0.50 in some exploratory studies (Hair et al., 2006).

4.7.1   Reliability for Transformational Leadership

The section discusses how Transformational Leadership as a variable was tested. Table 4.17 below shows that Idealized influence combined (Attributed and Behavior) has 8 subscales (α = .73), Inspirational motivation subscale consisted of 4 items (α = .82), Intellectual stimulation subscale consisted of 4 items (α =.81), Individualized consideration subscale consisted of 4 items (α=83), Contingent reward subscale consisted of 4 items (α=75). Management-by-exception combined (Active and Passive) subscales had 8 items (α=.86) and Laissez-faire is having 4 item (α=.76). The Cronbach's alphas for the 36 items were (α=.80). The Transformational Leadership style was found to be highly reliable.

Table 4.17

Reliability Results Transformational Leadership style

Dimension	No of Items	Cronbach Alpha Scores
Idealized influence-(Attributed)	4	.727
Idealized influence-(Behaviour)	4	.718
Inspirational motivation	4	.819
Intellectual stimulation	4	.809
Individualized consideration	4	.832
Contingent reward	4	.752
Management-y-exception(Active)	4	.833
Management-by-exception(Passive)	4	.883
Laissez-faire	4	.763

4.7.2 Reliability Result for School Environment

The section discusses how School Environment as a variable was tested. Table 4.18 shows below that Student support has 7 subscales (α = .84), Affiliation subscale consisted of 7 items (α = .89), Professional interest subscale consisted of 7 items (α =.85), Staff freedom subscale consisted of 7 items (α=88), Participatory decision making subscale consisted of 7 items (α=72), Innovation subscales had 7 items (α=.70), Resource adequacy had 7 items (α=83) and Work pressure is having 7 item (α=.88). The Cronbach's alphas for the 56 items were (α=.91). The School Environment was found to be highly reliable.

Table 4.18

Reliability result School Environment

Dimension	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha Scores
Student support	7	.837
Affiliation	7	.885
Professional interest	7	.847
Staff freedom	7	.876
Participatory decision making	7	.722
Innovation	7	.704
Resource adequacy	7	.825
Work pressure	7	.884
Total	56	.906

4.7.3   Reliability result for School Improvement

The section discusses how School Improvement as a variable was tested. Table 4.19 below shows that Collegiality has 9 subscales (α = .87), Collective efficacy subscale consisted of 9 items (α = .90), Personal efficacy subscale consisted of 9 items (α =.68), Policy-say-so subscale consisted of 9 items (α=85), Job satisfaction subscale consisted of 9 items (α=84) and Teaming has 9 items (α=85). The Cronbach's alphas for the 54 items were (α=.90). The School Improvement was found to be highly reliable.

Table 4.19

Reliability result School Improvement

Dimensions	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha Scores
Collegiality	9	.868
Collective efficacy	9	.896
Personal efficacy	9	.681
Policy-say-so	9	.853
Job satisfaction	9	.838
Teaming	9	.851
Total	54	.898

4.8 Level of Each Component of Transformational Leadership Style

The study used MLQ 5x as the most appropriate instrument for measuring the principal's leadership capabilities, therefore the 7 constructs of leadership that the research is using are: a. Idealized influence b. Inspirational Motivation c. Intellectual Stimulation d. Individual Consideration e. Contingency Reward f. Management-by-Exception and g. Laissez-Faire Leadership.

Going by the above level of classification, unity and non-unity schools are measured and ranked according to the level they fall on to. Consequently the level of each construct of leadership is presented as below:

4.8.1 Principal's Level of Transformational Leadership

In Table 4.20 below, the results of Transformational leadership for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools are presented. The overall mean of Principal's level of Transformational Leadership is 3.77 with .39 as standard deviation, while the unity

school has 3.82 as mean with a standard deviation of.39, while the non-unity schools has 3.68 as mean with .39 also as standard deviation. By implication the level of transformational leadership in unity school is higher than the non-unity schools; hence, principals of unity schools are more efficient in leadership than the non-unity schools. Table 4.24 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .39$) reported significantly higher levels of transformational Leadership than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .39$).

4.8.2 The Principal's level of Idealized influence

In Table 4.20 below, the results of idealized influence for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools were presented. All the principals level of idealized influence were presented cumulatively (Attribute and Behaviour) without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.88 for unity schools and a standard deviation of .52, while the non-unity schools has a mean of 3.69 and a standard deviation of .55.

With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of unity schools has the highest level of individualized influence than the non-unity schools; therefore in terms of idealized influence the unity schools are high which means that the quality of education experienced in unity schools is higher than the non-unity schools, hence, the level of principal's idealized influence in unity school is higher than that of the non-unity school. Table 4.20 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .52$) reported significantly higher levels of Idealized Influence than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .55$).

4.8.3   The Principal's level of inspirational motivation

In Table 4.20 the results of inspirational motivation for 559 teachers of unity and non-unity schools were presented. All the principals level of inspirational motivation were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.60 for unity schools and a standard deviation of .57, while the non-unity schools has a mean of 3.48 and a standard deviation of .56 With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of inspirational motivation than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of inspirational motivation the Unity Schools are high or which means that the quality of education experienced in unity schools is higher than that of the Non-Unity schools. Table 4.20 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .57$) reported significantly higher levels of Inspirational motivation than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .56$).

4.8.4   The Principal's level of intellectual stimulation

In Table 4.20 below, the results of intellectual stimulation for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools were presented. All the principals level of intellectual stimulation were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.85 for Unity Schools and a standard deviation of .55, while the non-unity schools have a mean of 3.77 and a standard deviation of .54.

With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of unity schools have the highest level of intellectual stimulation than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of intellectual stimulation the Unity Schools are high which means that the

quality of education experienced in Unity Schools is higher than that of the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.20 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .55$) reported significantly higher levels of Intellectual stimulation than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .54$).

4.8.5   The principal's level of individualized consideration

In Table 4.20 below, the results of individualized consideration for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools were presented. All the principals level of individualized consideration were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.90 for Unity Schools and a standard deviation of .58, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.68 and a standard deviation of .53. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of individualized consideration than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of individualized consideration the Unity Schools are high or which means that the quality of education experienced in Unity Schools is higher than that of the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.20 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .58$) reported significantly higher levels of Individualized consideration than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .53$).

Table 4.20

Level of each component of Leadership Style

Leadership styles			Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Transformational Leadership	**3.77**	**.39**	**3.82**	**.39**	**3.68**	**.39**
Idealized influence (Attribute)	3.85	.57	3.95	.55	3.64	.55
Idealized influence (behavior)	3.79	.51	3.81	.49	3.74	.55
Inspirational motivation	3.56	.57	3.60	.57	3.48	.56
Intellectual stimulation	3.82	.55	3.85	.55	3.77	.54
Individualized consideration	3.83	.57	3.90	.58	3.68	.53

4.8.6   Principal's Level of Transactional Leadership

In Table 4.21 below, the results of Transactional leadership for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools are presented. The overall mean of Principal's level of Transactional Leadership is 3.80 with .47 as standard deviation, while the unity school has 3.88 as mean with a standard deviation of .46, while the non-unity schools has 3.62 as mean with .46 also as standard deviation.

By implication the level of transactional leadership in unity school is higher than the non-unity schools; hence, principals of unity schools are more efficient in transactional leadership than the non-unity schools. Table 4.21 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.88, SD = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Transactional leadership than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.62, SD = .46).

4.8.7   The Principal's Level of Contingency Reward

Table 4.21 below, presented the results of Contingency Reward for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity schools. All the principals level of Contingency Reward were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.89 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .51, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.62 and a Standard Deviation of .58. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have higher level of Contingency Reward than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of contingency reward the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of education experienced in unity schools is higher than that of Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.21

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below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Contingent reward than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.62$, $SD = .58$).

4.8.8   The Principal's level of Management-by-exception

Table 4.21 below, presented the results of Management-by-Exception for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Management-by-Exception were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a cumulative (Active and Passive) mean of 3.85 for Unity Schools and a standard deviation of .64, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.63 and a Standard Deviation of .58. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Management-by-Exception than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Management-by-Exception the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of education experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.21 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .64$) reported significantly higher levels of happiness than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .58$).

4.8.9   The Principal's Level of Laissez-Faire

Table 4.21 below, presented the results of Laissez-Faire for 559 teachers of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Laissez-Faire were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.45 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .71, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.59 and a standard deviation of .56.

With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the lowest level of Laissez-Faire attitude than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Laissez-Faire the Unity Schools are lower which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than that of the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.21 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .71$) reported significantly higher levels of Laissez-faire than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .32$).

Table 4.21

Level of Transactional Leadership and Laissez-faire

Leadership styles			Unity School		Non unity	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Transactional Leadership	**3.80**	**.47**	**3.88**	**.46**	**3.62**	**.46**
Contingent reward	3.80	.55	3.89	.51	3.62	.58
Management-by-exception (Active)	3.61	.72	3.58	.78	3.66	.58
Management-by-exception (Passive)	3.95	.57	4.11	.50	3.60	.57
Laissez-faire leadership	**3.50**	**.67**	**3.45**	**.71**	**3.59**	**.56**

4.9 The Level of Each Component of School Environment

The study used the SLEQ because it is the most appropriate instrument for measuring the school environment, therefore the 8 constructs of school environment that the researcher is using are as follows: a. Student Support b. Affiliation c. Professional Interest d. Staff Freedom e. Participatory Decision Making f. Innovation g. Resource Adequacy and work pressure. Therefore, the level of each construct of Leadership is presented as below:

4.9.1   Principal's level of school Environment

In Table 4.22 below, the results of School environment for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools are presented. The overall mean of Principal's level of School environment is 3.78 with .41 as standard deviation, while the Unity School has 3.81 as mean with a standard deviation of.43, while the non-unity schools has 3.71 as mean with .33 also as standard deviation. By implication the level of School Environment in unity school is higher than the non-unity schools; hence, principals of unity schools are more efficient in the maintenance of conducive environment for learning than the non-unity schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .43$) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .33$).

4.9.2   The Principal's Level of Student Support

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Student Support for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Student Support were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.81 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .60, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.81 and a Standard Deviation of .40. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have a higher level of Student Support than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Student Support the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .60$) reported significantly higher levels of Student support than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .40$).

4.9.3   The Principal's Level of Affiliation

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Affiliation for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Affiliation were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.81 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .60, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.81 and a Standard Deviation of .40. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Affiliation than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Affiliation the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than that of the Non-unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M =$ 3.81, $SD = .60$) reported significantly higher levels of Affiliation than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .40$).

4.9.4   The Principal's Level of Professional Interest

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Professional Interest for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Professional Interest were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.72 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .67, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.68 and a Standard Deviation of .45. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Professional Interest than that of the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Professional Interest the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than that of the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .67$) reported significantly higher levels of Professional interest than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .45$).

4.9.5   The Principal's level of Staff freedom

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of staff freedom for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools. All the principals level of Staff Freedom were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.87 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .51, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.74 and a Standard Deviation of .45. With the above results, it is clearly established that teachers of Unity Schools has the highest level of Staff Freedom than the non-unity schools, therefore in terms of Staff Freedom the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Staff freedom than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .45$).

4.9.6 The Principal's Level of Participatory Decision Making

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Participatory Decision Making for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Participatory Decision Making were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.85 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .49, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.59 and a Standard Deviation of .48. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Participatory Decision Making than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore, in terms of Participatory Decision Making the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .49$) reported significantly higher levels of Participatory decision making than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .48$).

4.9.7 The Principal's Level of Innovation

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of innovation for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Innovation were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.94 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .48, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.69 and a Standard Deviation of .50.

With the above results, it is clearly Established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Innovation than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Innovation the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.94, SD = .48) reported significantly higher levels of Innovation than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.69, SD = .50).

4.9.8 The Principal's Level of Resource Adequacy

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Resource Adequacy for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Resource Adequacy were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.71 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .55, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.58 and a Standard Deviation of .48. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Resource Adequacy than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Resource Adequacy the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

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Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .55$) reported significantly higher levels of Resource adequacy than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .48$).

4.9.9 The Principal's Level of Work Pressure

Table 4.22 below, presented the results of Work Pressure for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Work Pressure were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.82 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .47, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.77 and a Standard Deviation of .49. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of work Pressure than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Work Pressure the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.22 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .47$) reported significantly higher levels of Work pressure than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .49$).

Table 4.22

Level of School Environment

	Overall n=559		Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
School Environment	**3.78**	**.41**	**3.81**	**.43**	**3.71**	**.33**
Student support	3.81	.54	3.81	.60	3.81	.40
Affiliation	3.80	.48	3.81	.50	3.78	.41
Professional Interest	3.71	.61	3.72	.67	3.68	.45
Staff Freedom	3.83	.49	3.87	.51	3.74	.45
Participatory decision making	3.77	.50	3.85	.49	3.59	.48
Innovation	3.86	.50	3.94	.48	3.67	.50
Resource Adequacy	3.67	.53	3.71	.55	3.58	.48
Work Pressure	3.80	.48	3.82	.47	3.77	.49

4.10   The Level of Each Component of School Improvement

The study used the SIQII as the most appropriate instrument for measuring the Principal's Leadership capabilities, therefore the 6 constructs of School Achievement that the researcher is using are as follows: a. collegiality b. collective efficacy c. personal efficacy d. job satisfaction e. policy-say-so and f. teaming, therefore the level of each construct of School Achievement is presented as below:

4.10.1   Principal's Level of School Improvement

In Table 4.23 below, the results of School Improvement for 559 principals of unity and non-unity schools are presented. The overall principal's level of School Improvement is 3.81 as mean with .39 as standard deviation which shows that generally, the level is categorized at a higher level. While the Unity School has 3.85 as mean with a standard deviation of.40, while the non-unity schools has 3.72 as mean with .35 also as standard deviation. By implication, the level of School Improvement in unity school is higher than the non-unity schools; hence, principals of unity schools are more efficient in the maintenance of a conducive Improvement for learning than the non-unity schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .40$) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .35$).

4.10.2   The Principal's Level of Collegiality

In Table 4.33 below, the results of Collegiality for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools were presented. All the principals level of Collegiality were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.97 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .42, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.71 and a Standard Deviation of .45. With the above results, it is clearly

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established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Collegiality than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Collegiality the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.97, SD = .42) reported significantly higher levels of Collegiality than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.71, SD = .45).

4.10.3   The Principal's Level of Collective Efficacy

Table 4.23 below, the results of Collective Efficacy for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools were presented. All the principals level of Collective Efficacy were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.81 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .49, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.69 and a Standard Deviation of .47. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Collective Efficacy than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Collective Efficacy the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.81, SD = .49) reported significantly higher levels of Collective efficacy than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.69, SD = .47).

4.10.4   The Principal's Level of Personal Efficacy

Table 4.23 below, presented the results of Personal Efficacy for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Personal Efficacy were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.96 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .44, while the Non-Unity

Schools have a mean of 3.71 and a Standard Deviation of .46. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Personal Efficacy than the Non-Unity Schools; therefore in terms of Personal Efficacy the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.96, SD = .44) reported significantly higher levels of Personal efficacy than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.71, SD = .46).

4.10.5 The Principal's Level of Job Satisfaction

Table 4.23 below, presented the results of job satisfaction for 559 principals of unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Job Satisfaction were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.90 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .43, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.70 and a Standard Deviation of .53. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools has the highest level of Job satisfaction than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Job Satisfaction the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.90, SD = .43) reported significantly higher levels of Job satisfaction than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.70, SD = .53).

4.10.6 The Principal's Level of Policy-Say-So

Table 4.23 below, presented the results of Policy-Say-So for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Policy-Say-So were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.74 for

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Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .57, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.71 and a Standard Deviation of .44. With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools have the highest level of Policy-Say-So than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Policy-Say-So the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .57$) reported significantly higher levels of Policy-say-so than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .44$).

4.10.7   The Principal's Level of Teaming

Table 4.23 below, presented the results of Teaming for 559 principals of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. All the principals level of Teaming were presented without classifying demographic variables, which presented a mean of 3.74 for Unity Schools and a Standard Deviation of .57, while the Non-Unity Schools have a mean of 3.79 and a Standard Deviation of .42.

With the above results, it is clearly established that principals of Unity Schools has the highest level of Teaming than the Non-Unity Schools, therefore in terms of Teaming the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools due to team work is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. Table 4.23 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .57$) reported significantly higher levels of Teaming than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .42$).

Table 4.23

Level of School Improvement

Variable	Overall n=559		Unity School		Non unity School	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
School Improvement	**3.81**	**.39**	**3.85**	**.40**	**3.72**	**.35**
Collegiality	3.89	.45	3.97	.42	3.71	.45
Collective Efficacy	3.77	.49	3.81	.49	3.69	.47
Personal Efficacy	3.88	.46	3.96	.44	3.71	.46
Job Satisfaction	3.84	.48	3.90	.43	3.70	.53
Policy-say-so	3.73	.53	3.74	.57	3.71	.44
Teaming	3.76	.53	3.74	.57	3.79	.42

4.11 The Difference of Transformational Leadership Style by school type

This research studied the Influence of Transformational Leadership Styles and School Environment towards School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools. And again, there was the need or objective to study the difference of Transformational Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools based on School type of respondents. This section provides the difference of Leadership Styles in the demographic variables of School type. It is important to note that this study will view the difference of Leadership Styles by the three available constructs of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire based on the demographic variables of School type. Therefore this section presents the differences of each variable as follows:

Table 4.24 below, reveals that the difference obtained in transactional Leadership is the highest with a mean of 3.88 and a standard deviation of .46 while the lowest was

Laissez-faire with 3.45 and a standard deviation of .71. By implication it shows that both Unity and Non-unity are prone to using Transactional style of Leadership, and are not having the i-don't- care- attitudes in their style of Leadership. Table 4.24 below shows that Transactional ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .46$) reported significantly higher levels of Transactional leadership than Laissez-faire ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .71$), t (5.89) =, p < .01. This shows there is significant difference in leadership styles in the Nigerian Secondary Schools.

Table 4.24

Differences of Transformational Leadership by School type

Leadership styles	Unity School		Non unity School		t	p
	n=384					
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Transformational Leadership	3.82	.39	3.66	.39	4.51	.000
Transactional Leadership	3.88	.46	3.63	.46	5.89	.000
Laissez-faire leadership	3.45	.71	3.59	.56	-2.38	.018

4.11.1 The Difference of Transformational Leadership styles Dimensions by School type

This section provides the difference of Leadership Styles in the demographic variables of School type. It is important to note that this study will view the difference of Leadership Styles by the dimensions of Transformational Leadership.

4.11.2 The Difference of Principal's Idealized influence (Attributed) by School type

Table 4.25 above, describes a classification of Idealized influence (Attributed) that was presented in line with what is obtainable as difference in schools type of Unity and Non-Unity Schools. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%. There were 384 respondents from the Unity Schools representing 68% and 175 in the Non-Unity standing as 32%. In considering the Transformational Leadership difference regarding principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist slight differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Idealized influence (Attributed) are as stated below; Unity Schools has 3.95 as mean with .55 as SD while Non-Unity School was 4.51 mean with .00 as SD, the overall t-value is 6.13 and a p-value of .00 which shows that in terms of idealized (Attribute) there is a significant difference between Unity and Non-unity Schools. Table 4.24 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.95, SD = .55) reported higher levels of Significant difference in Idealized influence than Non-unity Schools (M = 4.51, SD = .00), t = 6.13, p < .01. Supported

4.11.3 The Difference of Principal's Idealized influence (Behaviour) by School type

In Table 4.25 below, a classification of Idealized influence (Behaviour) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%, the number of Males are 331 representing 59% while the Females

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are 228 representing 41%. In considering the Leadership difference of the teachers in both Gender types, there exists a slight difference between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Idealized influence (Behaviour) are as stated below; Unity Schools has 3.81 as mean with .49 as SD while Non-Unity School was 5.89 with .00 as SD, for the overall t-value the dimension has 1.45 and a p-value of .46 which shows that in terms of idealized (Attribute) there is no significant difference between Unity and Non-unity Schools. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .49$) reported significantly higher levels of Idealized influence than Non-unity Schools ($M = 5.89$, $SD = .00$), $t = 1.45$, p $\geq$ .46. Not supported

4.11.4 The Difference of Principal's Inspirational motivation by School type

In Table 4.25 below, a classification of Inspirational motivation was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-unity are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity 388 representing just 68% while 175 was for Non-unity representing 32%. In considering the Leadership difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-unity, there exists a sharp difference between them. The mean of Unity Schools in relation to this dimension was 3.60 and an SD of .57 while Non-unity Schools -2.38 with .02 as SD. The t-value for this dimension is 2.21 and a p-value of .03 and significant at .03. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .57$) reported significantly higher levels of Inspirational motivation than Non-unity Schools ($M = -2.38$, $SD = .02$), $t = 2.21$, p < .03. Supported.

4.11.5 The Difference of Principal's Intellectual stimulation by School type

In Table 4.25 below, a classification of Intellectual stimulation was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type of Unity and Non-Unity. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Intellectual stimulation's difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exists a considerable difference between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to the dimension are as stated below; Unity Schools was 3.85 while Non-Unity School was 3.77 as mean, the Standard Deviation of the Unity School is .55 while that of the Non-Unity stood as .54 the t-value for the overall is 1.64 and p-value is .10 also not significant at .10 levels. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .40$) reported significantly higher levels of Intellectual stimulation than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.20$, $SD = .32$), $t = 1.64$, p ≥.10. Not supported.

4.11.6 The Difference of Principal's Individualized consideration by School type

A classification of Individualized consideration was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table 4.25 below indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Individualized consideration's difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-unity, there exist slight differences between them. The mean of

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each School type in relation to Individualized consideration are as stated below; Unity school was 3.90 while Non-unity school was 3.68 as mean, the Standard Deviation for Unity school is .58 while that of Non-unity school was .53 with a t-value of 4.40 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .58$) reported significantly higher levels of Individualized consideration than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .53$), $t= 4.40$, p < .01. Supported

4 .11.7 The Difference of Principal' Contingent reward by School type

In Table 4.25 below, a classification of Contingent reward was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table 4.25 below indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%.

In considering the Contingent reward's difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-unity schools, there exist sharp differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Contingent reward are as stated below; Unity School was 3.89 while Non-unity school was 4.51, with Standard Deviation of .51 for Unity and .00 for Non-unity with t-value of 5.50 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Contingent reward than Non-unity Schools ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .00$), $t = 5.50$, p < .01. Supported.

4.11.8 The Difference of Principal's Management-by-exception (Active) by School type

A classification of Management-by-exception (Active) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type of Unity and Non-Unity. The Table 4.25 below, indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity have 175 representing 32%. In considering the Management-by-exception's (Active) difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Management-by-exception (Active) are as stated below; Unity Schools was 3.58 while Non-Unity School was 5.89, with a Standard Deviation of .78 for Unity and .00 for Non-Unity and a t-value of 5.50 exist and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.58, SD = .78) reported significantly higher levels of Management-by-exception (Active) than Non-unity Schools (M = 5.289, SD = .00), t=5.50, p < .01. Supported.

4.11.9 The Difference of Principal's Management-by-exception (Passive) by School type

A classification of Management-by-exception (Passive) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table 4.25 below, indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity have 175 representing 32%. In considering the Management-by-exception's (Passive) difference of the principals in both School types, there exist slight differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Management-by-

exception (Passive) are as stated below; Unity was 4.11 while Non-unity was -2.38, with a Standard Deviation of .50 for unity and .018 for non-unity. The t-value is 10.62 significant at .00 level. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 4.11, SD = .50) reported significantly higher levels of Management-by-exception (Passive) than Non-unity Schools (M = -2.38, SD = .016), t = 10.62, p < .01. Supported.

4.11.10 The Difference of Principal's Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles by School type

A classification of Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles was presented in line with what it is obtainable in School type. The Table 4.25 below indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity have 175 representing 32%.

In considering the Laissez-Faire Leadership difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-unity principals, there exist sharp differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Lasses-Faire Leadership Styles are as stated below; Unity school was 3.45 while Non-unity school was 3.59, with a Standard Deviation of .70 for Unity school and .56 Non-unity school with a t-value of -2.38 and significant at the level of .02. Table 4.25 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.45, SD = .70) reported significantly higher levels of Laissez-faire than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.59, SD = .56), t=-2.38, p < .02. Supported.

Table 4.25

Differences of Transformational Leadership dimensions by School type

Leadership styles	Unity School		Non unity School		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Idealized influence (Attribute)	3.95	.55	4.51	.00	6.13	.00
Idealized influence (Behavior)	3.81	.49	5.89	.00	1.45	.15
Inspirational motivation	3.60	.57	-2.38	.018	2.21	.03
Intellectual stimulation	3.85	.55	3.77	.54	1.64	.11
Individualized consideration	3.90	.58	3.68	.53	4.40	.00
Contingent reward	3.89	.51	4.51	.00	5.50	.00
Management-by-exception (Active)	3.58	.78	5.89	.00	-1.19	.24
Management-by-exception (Passive)	4.11	.50	-2.38	.018	10.62	.00
Laissez-faire leadership	3.45	.70	3.59	.56	-2.38	.02

4.12 The Difference of School Environment by School type

This section provides the difference of School Environment in the demographic variables of School type. The overall result on Table 4.26 below shows that principals are smart in their dealings with environments which resulted to high school improvement. The scores that gave credit to these environments are 3.85 as mean for unity schools with 3.72 for non-unity, and the SD for unity schools are .40 while that of the non- unity is .35. The t-value is 3.80 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = .33), *t*=2.94, p ≤.03. Supported.

4.12.1 The Difference of Principal's Student support by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent

100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exists a considerable difference between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Student support are as stated below; Unity was 3.81 while Non-unity was 3.81, with a Standard Deviation of .60 for Unity and .40 for Non-unity with a t-value of 0.16 and not significant at the level of .98. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.81, *SD* = .60) reported significantly higher levels of Student support than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.81, *SD* = .40), *t*=-0.16, p ≥ .98. Not supported.

4.12.2 The difference of Principal's Affiliation by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Affiliation are as stated below; Unity was 3.81 while Non-unity was 3.78, with a Standard Deviation of .66 for Unity and .45 for Non-unity with a t-value of .721 and not significant at the level of .47. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.66, *SD* = .40) reported significantly higher levels of Affiliation than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.20, *SD* = .32), *t* =.721, p ≥.47. Not Supported

4.12.3 The difference of Principal's Professional interest by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Professional interest are as stated below; Unity was 3.72 while Non-unity was 3.68, with a Standard Deviation of .67 for Unity and .45 for Non-unity with a t-value of .562 and not significant at the level of .57. Table 4.24 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .67$) reported significantly higher levels of Professional interest than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .45$), $t = .562$, $p \geq .57$. Not supported.

4.12.4 The difference of Principal's Staff freedom by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

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The mean of each School type in relation to Staff freedom are as stated below; Unity was 3.87 while Non-unity was 3.74, with a Standard Deviation of .51 for Unity and .45 for Non-unity with a t-value of 2.81 and significant at the level of .05. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Staff freedom than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.74$ $SD = .45$), t=2.81, p < .05. Supported.

4.12.5 The difference of Principal's Participatory decision making by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Participatory decision making are as stated below; Unity was 3.85 while Non-unity was 3.59, with a Standard Deviation of .49 for Unity and .48 for Non-unity with a t-value of 5.74 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .49$) reported significantly higher levels of happiness than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .48$), t=5.74, p < .01. Supported.

4.12.6 The difference of Principal's Innovation by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Innovation are as stated below; Unity was 3.94 while Non-unity was 3.69, with a Standard Deviation of .48 for Unity and .50 for Non-unity with a t-value of 5.59 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.94$, $SD = .48$) reported significantly higher levels of Innovation than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.269$, $SD = .50$), $t=5.59$, p < .01. Supported.

4.12.7 The difference of Principal's Resource adequacy by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

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The mean of each School type in relation to Resource adequacy are as stated below; Unity was 3.71 while Non-unity was 3.56, with a Standard Deviation of .55 for Unity and .48 for Non-unity with a t-value of 2.87 and significant at the level of .04. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.71, SD = .55) reported significantly higher levels of Resource adequacy than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.56, SD = .48), t=2.87, p < .04. Supported.

4.12.8 The difference of Principal's Work pressure by School type

In Table 4.26 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Work pressure are as stated below; Unity was 3.82 while Non-unity was 3.77, with a Standard Deviation of .47 for Unity and .49 for Non-unity with a t-value of .95 and not significant at the level of .34. Table 4.26 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.82, SD = .47) reported significantly higher levels of Work pressure than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.77, SD = .49), t=.95, p ≥.34. Not supported.

Table 4.26

Differences of School Environment by School type

	Unity School n=384		Non unity School		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
School Environment	**3.82**	**.43**	**3.71**	**.33**	2.94	.03
Student support	3.81	.60	3.81	.40	.016	.99
Affiliation	3.81	.50	3.78	.43	.721	.47
Professional Interest	3.71	.67	3.68	.45	.562	.57
Staff Freedom	3.87	.51	3.74	.45	2.81	.05
Participatory decision making	3.85	.49	3.59	.48	5.74	.00
Innovation	3.94	.48	3.69	.50	5.59	.00
Resource Adequacy	3.71	.55	3.58	.48	2.87	.04
Work Pressure	3.82	.47	3.77	.49	.952	.34

4.13   The Difference of School Improvement

This section provides the difference of School Achievement in the demographic variables of School type. The overall result on Table 4.27 below shows that principals are smart in their dealings with teachers which resulted to high school improvement. The scores that gave credit to these improvements are 3.85 as mean for unity schools with 3.72 for non-unity, and the SD for unity schools are .40 while that of the non- unity is .35. The t-value is 3.80 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.24 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.72, *SD* = .35), *t*=3.80, p ≤.01. Supported.

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4.13.1 The Difference of Principal's Collegiality

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exists a considerable difference between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Collegiality are as stated below; Unity was 3.97 while Non-unity was 3.71, with a Standard Deviation of .42 for Unity and .45 for Non-unity with a t-value of 6.46 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.97, SD = .42) reported significantly higher levels of Collegiality than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.71, SD = .45), t=6.46, p $\geq$ .01. Supported.

4.13.2 The difference of Principal's Collective efficacy by School type

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Collective efficacy are as stated below; Unity was 3.81 while Non-unity was 3.69, with a Standard Deviation of .49 for

Unity and .47 for Non-unity with a t-value of 2.78 and significant at the level of .06. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.81, *SD*=.49) reported significantly higher levels of Collective efficacy than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.69, *SD*= .47), *t* =2.78, p ≤.06. Supported

4.13.3 The difference of Principal's Personal efficacy by School type

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Personal efficacy are as stated below; Unity was 3.96 while Non-unity was 3.71, with a Standard Deviation of .44 for unity and .46, for Non-unity with a t-value of 5.68 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = .44) reported significantly higher levels of happiness than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = .46), *t*=5.68, p ≥.01. Supported.

4.13.4 The difference of Principal's Job satisfaction by School type

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent

100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Job satisfaction are as stated below; Unity was 3.90 while Non-unity was 3.70, with a Standard Deviation of .43 for Unity and .53 for Non-unity with a t-value of 4.87 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.90, SD = .43) reported significantly higher levels of happiness than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.70, SD = .53), t=4.87, p ≥.01. Supported.

4.13.5 The difference of Principal's Policy-say-so by School type

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Policy-say-so are as stated below; Unity was 3.74 while Non-unity was 3.71, with a Standard Deviation of .57 for Unity and .44 for Non-unity with a t-value of .62 and not significant at the level of .54. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.66, SD = .40) reported significantly higher levels of Policy-say-so than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.20, SD = .32), t=.62, p ≥.54. Not supported.

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4.13.6 The difference of Principal's teaming by School type

In Table 4.27 below, a classification of School Environment was presented p line with what it is obtainable in Schools type. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 338 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Unity and Non-Unity Schools, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each School type in relation to Teaming are as stated below; Unity was 3.74 while Non-unity was 3.79, with a Standard Deviation of .57 for Unity and .42 for Non-unity with a t-value of -1.07 and not significant at the level of .29. Table 4.27 below shows that Unity Schools ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .57$) reported significantly higher levels of Teaming than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .42$), $t=-1.07$, p $\geq$.29. Not supported.

Table 4.27

Differences of School improvement by School type

Variable	Unity School n=384		Non unity		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
School Improvement	**3.85**	**.40**	**3.72**	**.35**	3.80	.00
a. Collegiality	3.97	.42	3.71	.45	6.46	.00
b. Collective Efficacy	3.81	.49	3.69	.47	2.78	.06
d. Personal Efficacy	3.96	.44	3.71	.46	5.68	.00
e. Job Satisfaction	3.90	.43	3.70	.53	4.87	.00
f. Policy-say-so	3.74	.57	3.71	.44	.62	.54
g. Teaming	3.74	.57	3.79	.42	-1.07	.29

4.14 The Difference of Transformational Leadership by Gender

4.14.1 The Difference of Transformational Leadership styles by Gender

This research studied the Influence of Transformational Leadership Styles and School Environment towards School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools. And again, there was the need to study the difference of Transformational Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools based on Gender of respondents. Therefore in this section, Table 4.28 below, presents the differences of each variable as follows:

The mean of each variable stands as; Transformational 3.74 male with .38 as SD, 3.81 for female with .40 as SD with a t-value of -1.96 and significant at the level of.05. Transactional Leadership has 3.76 as mean with .47 as SD for Male and 3.85 mean with .48 as SD for Female, it has a t-value of -2.19 and significant at the level of .03. Finally comes the Laissez-faire Leadership having 3.46 as mean with .68 as SD for Male and 3.55 mean with .65 as SD for Female, it has a t-value of-1.69 and significant at the level of .09. Table 4.28 below shows that Males (M = 3.74, SD = .38) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational Leadership than Females (M = 3.81, SD = .40), t= -1.96, p $\geq$ .05. Supported

Table 4.28

Differences of Transformational Leadership by Gender

Leadership styles	Male n=331		Female n=228		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	value	value
Transformational Leadership	3.74	.38	3.81	.40	-1.96	.05
Transactional Leadership	3.76	.47	3.85	.48	-2.19	.03
Laissez-faire leadership	3.46	.68	3.55	.65	-1.69	.09

4.14.2 The Difference of Principal's Idealized influence (Attributed) by Gender

Table 4.29 below, describes a classification of Idealized influence (Attributed) that was presented in line with what is obtainable as difference in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both male and female are 559 which represents 100%. There were 331 respondents from the Male representing 68% and 228 in the Female standing as 32%.

In considering the Transformational Leadership difference regarding principals in both Male and Female, there exist slight differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Idealized influence (Attributed) are as stated below; Male has 3.81 as mean with .57 as SD while Female was 3.92 with .56 as SD, the for overall t-value the dimension has -2.26 and there is a significant difference between Male and Female principals in terms of Idealized influence (Attributed) at the level of .03. Table 4.29 below shows that Females (M = 3.92, SD = .56) reported significantly higher levels of Idealized influence (Attributed) than Male (M = 3.81, SD = .57), t= -2.26, p ≥.03. Supported.

4.14.3 The Difference of Principal's Idealized influence (Behaviour) by Gender

In Table 4.29 below, a classification of Idealized influence (Behaviour) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, the number of Males are 331 representing 59% while the Females are 228 representing

41%. In considering the Leadership difference of the teachers in both Gender types, there exists a slight difference between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Idealized influence (Behaviour) are as stated below; Male has 3.75 as mean with .52 as SD while Female was 3.84 with .49 as SD, for the overall t-value the dimension has -2.12 and there is significant difference between Male and Female Principals at the level of .04. Table 4.29 below shows that Females (M = 3.84, SD = .49) reported significantly higher levels of Idealized influence (Behavior) than Males (M = 3.75, SD = .52), t= -2. 12, p ≥ .04. Supported.

4.14.4 The Difference of Principal's Inspirational motivation by Gender

In Table 4.29 below, a classification of Inspirational motivation was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male 331 representing just 68% while 228 was for Female representing 32%. In considering the Leadership difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exists a sharp difference between them.

The mean of Male in relation to this dimension was Male 3.54 and an SD of .55 while Female has3.59 as mean with .59 as SD. The t-value for this dimension is -1.10 and not significant at .27. Table 4.24 below shows that Females (M = 3.59, SD = .59) reported significantly higher levels of Inspirational motivation than Males (M = 3.54, SD = .55), t= -1.10, p ≤ .27. Not Supported.

4.14.5 The Difference of Principal's Intellectual stimulation by Gender

In Table 4.29 below, a classification of Intellectual stimulation was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the Intellectual stimulation's difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exists a considerable difference between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to the dimension are as stated below; Male was 3.83 while Female was 3.82 as mean, the Standard Deviation of the Male is .51 while that of the Female stood as .61 the t-value for the overall is 0 .25 and not significant at .81 level. Table 4.29 below shows that Males ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Intellectual stimulation than Females ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .61$), t=0.25, p ≤ .81. Not supported.

4.14.6 The Difference of Principal's Individualized consideration by Gender

A classification of Individualized consideration was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the Individualized consideration's difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist slight differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Individualized consideration are as stated below; Male was 3.80 while Female was 3.88 as mean, the Standard Deviation for Male is .57 while that of Female was .57 with a t-value of -1.77 and significant at the

level of .08. Table 4.24 below shows that Female (M = 3.88, SD = .57) reported significantly higher levels of Individualized consideration than Male (M = 3.80, SD = .57), t= -1.77, p $\geq$ .08. Supported.

4.14.7 The Difference of Principal' Contingent reward by Gender

In Table 4.29 below, a classification of Contingent reward was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the Contingent reward's difference of the principals in both Male and Females, there exist sharp differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Contingent reward are as stated below; Male was 3.81 while Female was 3.79, with Standard Deviation of .54 for Male and .55 for Female with t-value of .582 and not significant at the level of .56. Table 4.29 below shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.81, SD = .54) reported significantly higher levels of Contingent reward than Females (M = 3.79, SD = .55), t = .582, p $\leq$.56. Not supported.

4.14.8 The Difference of Principal's Management-by-exception (Active) by Gender

A classification of Management-by-exception (Active) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female have 228 representing 32%. In considering the

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Management-by-exception's (Active) difference of the principals in both Male and Female principals, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Management-by-exception (Active) are as stated below; Male was 3.50 while Female was 3.76, with a Standard Deviation of .74 for Male and .67 for Female and a t-value of -4.18 exist and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.24 below shows that Females ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .67$) reported significantly higher levels of Management-by-exception (Active) than Males ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .74$), $t = -4.18$, p < .01. Supported.

4.14.9 The Difference of Principal's Management-by-exception (Passive) by Gender

A classification of Management-by-exception (Passive) was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table 4.29 below indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female have 228 representing 32%. In considering the Management-by-exception's (Passive) difference of the principals in both Genders, there exist slight differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Management-by-exception (Passive) are as stated below; Male was 3.92 while Female was 3.99, with a Standard Deviation of .56 for Male and .59 for Female with a t-value of -1.40 and not significant at the level of .16. Table 4.29 below shows that Female ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .56$) reported significantly higher levels of Management-by-exception (Passive) than Male ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .59$), $t = -1.40$, p < .16. Not supported.

4.14.10 The Difference of Principal's Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles by Gender

A classification of Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table 4.29 below indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female have 228 representing 32%. In considering the Laissez-Faire Leadership difference of the principals in both Male and Female principals, there exist sharp differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Lasses-Faire Leadership Styles are as stated below; Male principals was 3.46 while Female was 3.55, with a Standard Deviation of .68 for Male and .65 Female with a t-value of -1.69 and significant at the level of .09. Table 4.29 below shows that Females ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .65$) reported significantly higher levels of Laissez-faire than Males ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .68$), $t = - 1.69$, p $< .09$. Supported.

Table 4.29

Differences of Transformational Leadership dimensions by Gender

Leadership styles	Male n=384		Female n=175		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Idealized influence (Attribute)	3.80	.57	3.92	.56	-2.26	.03
Idealized influence (Behavior)	3.75	.52	3.84	.49	-2.12	.04
Inspirational motivation	3.54	.55	3.59	.59	-1.10	.27
Intellectual stimulation	3.83	.51	3.81	.61	0.25	.81
Individualized consideration	3.80	.57	3.88	.57	-1.77	.08
Contingent reward	3.82	.54	3.79	.55	0.58	.56
Management-by-exception (Active)	3.50	.74	3.76	.67	-4.18	.00
Management-by-exception (Passive)	3.92	.56	3.99	.59	-1.40	.16
Laissez-faire leadership	3.46	.68	3.55	.65	-1.69	.09

4.15   The Differences of School Environment by Gender

This section discusses the differences of School environment by Gender where there is a mean of 3.74 for male principals with .40 as SD and 3.85 mean for female with an SD of .41, even though the t-value was negative at − 3.12; the p-value shows that it is significant at the level of.00. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .41) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Males (*M* = 3.74, *SD* = .40), *t* = -3.12, p < .01.

4.15.1 The Difference of Principal's Student support by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 175 representing 32%. In considering the Environmental difference of the principals in both Male and females, there exist a considerable difference between them. The mean of Gender in relation to Student support are as stated below; Male was 3.74 while Female was 3.92, with a Standard Deviation of .55 for Male and .52 for Females with a t-value of -3.90 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.92, *SD* = .52) reported significantly higher levels of Students support than Males (*M* = 3.74, *SD* = .55), *t* = -3.90, p ≥ .01. Supported

4.15.2 The difference of Principal's Affiliation by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents

used in both Male and Female Schools are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environmental difference of the principals in both Male and Female there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Affiliation are as stated below; Male was 3.80 while Female was 3.82, with a Standard Deviation of .47 for Male and .50 for Females with a t-value of .721 and not significant at the level of .47 .410. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = .50) reported significantly higher levels of Affiliation than Males (*M* = 3.80, *SD* = .47), *t*= .721, p ≤ .47. Not supported.

4.15.3 The difference of Principal's Professional interest by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Professional interest are as stated below; Male was 3.62 while Female was 3.83, with a Standard Deviation of .59 for Male and .62 for Non-unity with a t-value of -4.19 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.83, *SD* = .62) reported significantly higher levels of Professional interest than Males (*M* = 3.62, *SD* = .59), *t*= -4.19, p ≥ .01. Supported.

4.15.4 The difference of Principal's Staff freedom by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Staff freedom are as stated below; Male was 3.83 while Female was 3.83, with a Standard Deviation of .49 for Male and .50 for Female with a t-value of -.041 and not significant at the level of .97. Table 4.30 below shows that Females ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .50$) reported significantly higher levels of Staff freedom than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .49$), $t = -0.41$, p ≤ .97. Not supported.

4.15.5 The difference of Principal's Participatory decision making by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Participatory decision making are as stated below; Male was 3.72 while Female was 3.82, with a Standard Deviation of .50 for Male and .50 for Female with a t-value of -2.17 and significant at the level of .03. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = .50) reported significantly higher levels of Participatory decision making than Males (*M* = 3.72, *SD* = .50), *t* = -2.17, p ≥.03. Supported.

4.15.6 The difference of Principal's Innovation by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Innovation are as stated below; Male was 3.82 while Female was 3.91, with a Standard Deviation of .51 for Male and .48 for Female with a t-value of -2.06 and significant at the level of .04. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (*M* = 3.91, *SD* = .48) reported significantly higher levels of Innovation than Males (*M* = 3.82, *SD* = .51), *t* = -2.06, p ≥.04. Supported.

4.15.7 The difference of Principal's Resource adequacy by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering

331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Resource adequacy are as stated below; Male was 3.59 while Female was 3.79, with a Standard Deviation of .53 for Male principals and .50 for Female with a t-value of -4.62 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (M = 3.79, SD = .50) reported significantly higher levels of Resource adequacy than Males (M = 3.59, SD = .53), t = -4.62, p ≥ .01. Supported.

4.15.8 The difference of Principal's Work pressure by Gender

In Table 4.30 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Work pressure are as stated below; Male was 3.78 while Female was 3.84, with a Standard Deviation of .48 for Male and .46 for Female with a t-value of -1.49 and not significant at the level of .14. Table 4.30 below shows that Females (M = 3.84, SD = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Work pressure than Males (M = 3.74, SD = .48), t = -1.49, p ≤.14. Not supported.

Table 4.30

Differences of School Environment by Gender

	Male n=331		Female n=228		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
School Environment	3.74	.40	3.85	.41	-3.12	.00
Student support	3.74	.55	3.92	.52	-3.90	.00
Affiliation	3.80	.47	3.82	.50	-.51	.61
Professional Interest	3.62	.59	3.83	.62	-4.19	.00
Staff Freedom	3.83	.49	3.83	.50	-.04	.97
Participatory decision making	3.73	.50	3.82	.50	-2.17	.03
Innovation	3.82	.51	3.91	.48	-2.06	.04
Resource Adequacy	3.59	.53	3.79	.50	-4.62	.00
Work Pressure	3.78	.48	3.84	.48	-1.49	.14

4.16 The Difference of School Improvement by Gender

This section provides the difference of School Achievement in the demographic variables of Gender. The overall result on Table 4.31 below shows that principals are smart in their dealings with teachers which resulted to high school improvement. The scores that gave credit to these improvements are 3.78 as mean for Male principals with 3.86 for Female principals, and the SD for Male principals are .38 while that of the Female is .39. The t-value is negative at -2.20 and significant at the level of .00 Table 4.31 below shows that Females ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .39$) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Males ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .38$), $t = -2.20$, p $\geq$ .01. Supported.

4.16.1 The difference of Principal's Collegiality by School type

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents

used in both Male and Female are 559 which represents 100%, with Unity numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exists a considerable difference between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Collegiality are as stated below; Male was 3.85 while Female was 3.94, with a Standard Deviation of .46 for Male and .43 for Female with a t-value of -2.20 and significant at the level of .03. Table 4.31 below shows that Females ($M = 3.94$, $SD = .43$) reported significantly higher levels of Collegiality than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .46$), $t = -2.20$, $p \geq .03$. Supported.

4.16.2 The difference of Principal's Collective efficacy by School type

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them.

The mean of each Gender in relation to Collective efficacy are as stated below; Male was 3.77 while Female was 3.79, with a Standard Deviation of .48 for Male and .51 for Female with a t-value of -.500 and not significant at the level of .62. Table 4.31 below shows that Females ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Collective efficacy than Non-unity Schools ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .48$), $t = -.500$, $p \leq .62$. Not supported.

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4.16.3 The difference of Principal's Personal efficacy by School type

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Personal efficacy are as stated below; Male was 3.87 while Female was 3.90, with a Standard Deviation of .46 for Male and .47 for Female with a t-value of -.778 and not significant at the level of .43. Table 4.31 below shows that Females (M = 3.90, SD = .47) reported significantly higher levels of Personal efficacy than Males (M = 3.87, SD = .46), t = -.778, p ≤ .43. Not supported.

4.16.4 The difference of Principal's Job satisfaction by School type

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female principals are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Female has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Job satisfaction are as stated below; Male was 3.84 while Female was 3.85, with a Standard Deviation of .49 for Male and .46 for Female with a t-value of 0.322 and not significant at the level of .75. Table 4.31 below shows that Females (M = 3.85, SD = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Job satisfaction than Males (M = 3.84, SD = .49), t = 0.322, p ≤ .75. Not supported.

4.16.5 The difference of Principal's Policy-say-so by School type

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Males and Females are 559 which represent 100%, with Unity numbering 331 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 228 representing 32%. In considering the School Environment difference of the principals in both Males and Females, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each Gender in relation to Policy-say-so are as stated below; Male was 3.69 while Females was 3.80, with a Standard Deviation of .52 for Male and .54 for Female with a t-value of -2.32 and significant at the level of .02. Table 4.31 below shows that Females ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .54$) reported significantly higher levels of Policy-say-so than Males ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .52$), $t = -2.32$, p $\geq$ .02. Supported.

4.16.6 The difference of Principal's teaming by Gender

In Table 4.31 below, a classification of School Environment was presented in line with what it is obtainable in Gender. The Table indicates that the total respondents used in both Male and Female principals are 559 which represent 100%, with Male numbering 331 representing 68% while the Non-Unity has 228 representing 32%. In considering the differences in school Environment of the principals in both Male and Female, there exist considerable differences between them. The mean of each School type in relation to Teaming are as stated below; Males was 3.68 while Females was 3.87, with a Standard Deviation of .53 for Male and .51 for Female with a t-value of -4.07 and significant at the level of .00. Table 4.31 below shows that Females ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .51$) reported significantly higher levels of Teaming than Males ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .53$), $t = -4.07$, p $\geq$ .01. Supported.

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Table 4.31

Differences of School improvement by Gender

Variable	Male n=331		Female n=228		t value	p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Improvement	3.78	.38	3.86	.39	-2.20	.03
Collegiality	3.85	.46	3.94	.43	-2.21	.03
Collective Efficacy	3.77	.48	3.79	.51	-.50	.62
Personal Efficacy	3.87	.46	3.90	.47	-.78	.44
Job Satisfaction	3.84	.49	3.85	.46	-.32	.75
Policy-say-so	3.69	.52	3.80	.54	-2.32	.02
Teaming	3.68	.53	3.87	.51	-4.07	.00

4.17 The Relationship of Transformational Leadership Styles with School Environment

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent ones. Pearson's correlation is a technique for investigating the relationship between two quantitative, continuous variables. Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) is a measure of the strength of the relationship between the two variables. Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (2003) provide a threshold as presented in Table 4.32 below.

Table 4.32
Pearson's correlation coefficient threshold

Size of Correlation	Interpretation
.90 to 1.00 (−.90 to −1.00)	Very high positive (negative) correlation
.70 to .90 (−.70 to −.90)	High positive (negative) correlation
.50 to .70 (−.50 to −.70)	Moderate positive (negative) correlation
.30 to .50 (−.30 to −.50)	Low positive (negative) correlation
.00 to .30 (.00 to −.30)	negligible correlation

Source: Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (2003)

Table 4.33 below presents the Pearson correlation coefficients of the three types of leadership styles with school environment and its dimensions. As presented in the table, environment has positive and significant correlation with transformational

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leadership with coefficient of .896 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .673 to .789 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with transformational leader is explained by an effective school environment.

As presented in the table, environment has positive and significant correlation with transactional leadership with coefficient of .853 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .545 to .772 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Transactional is explained by an effective school environment.

As presented in the table, environment has positive and significant correlation with Laissez-faire leadership with coefficient of .703 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .477 to .610 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Laissez-faire leader is explained by an effective school environment.

Table 4.33

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Styles with Environment

	ENVIRONMENT	SS	AF	PI	SF	PDM	INV	RAQ	WP
Transformational	.896**	.709**	.710**	.673**	.678**	.789**	.689**	.724**	.698**
Transactional	.853**	.645**	.545**	.652**	.752**	.656**	.772**	.681**	.689**
Laissez-faire	.703**	.610**	.618**	.528**	.564**	.489**	.477**	.493**	.674**

4.17.1 Relationship between Transformational Dimensions with Environment

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the Transformational dimensions and the dimensions of environment. As presented in the table 4.34 below, environment has positive and significant correlation with Idealized influence (Attributed) with coefficient of .644 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .435 to .670 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence (A) is explained by an effective school environment. The environment has positive and significant correlation with Idealized influence (Behaviour) with coefficient of .586 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .319 to .585 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence (B) is explained by an effective school environment.

The environment has positive and significant correlation with Inspirational motivation with coefficient of .621 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .407 to .598 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Inspirational motivation is explained by an effective school environment.

The environment has positive and significant correlation with Intellectual stimulation with coefficient of .689 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .468 to .625 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Intellectual stimulation is explained by an effective school environment. The environment has positive and significant correlation with individualized consideration with coefficient of .644 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .334 to .634 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence is explained by an effective school environment.

Table 4.34

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Styles Dimensions with Environment

ENVIRONMENT		SS	AF	PI	SF	PDM	INV	RAQ	WP
Idealized A	.644**	.535**	.495**	.505**	.465**	.670**	.512**	.451**	.435**
Idealized B	.586**	.488**	.585**	.319**	.360**	.470**	.433**	.511**	.570**
Inspirational	.621**	.479**	.581**	.407**	.598**	.486**	.462**	.517**	.415**
Intellectual S	.689**	.543**	.541**	.512**	.567**	.596**	.520**	.468**	.625**
Idealized	.644**	.477**	.334**	.634**	.411**	.577**	.518**	.626**	.451**

4.17.2 Relationship between Transactional and Laissez-faire Dimensions with Environment

This section explains the relationship between each transactional dimension and environment as shown on the Table below 4.35 below. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between environment and the dimensions

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of Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership. As presented in the table, environment has positive and significant correlation with Contingent Reward with coefficient of .654 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .397 to .650 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Contingent reward is explained by an effective school environment.

The environment has positive and significant correlation with Management-by-exception (Active) with coefficient of .776 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .483 to .720 indicating low to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Management-by-exception (A) is explained by an effective school environment.

The environment has positive and significant correlation with Management-by-exception (Passive) with coefficient of .568 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .303 to .593 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Management-by-exception (P) is explained by an effective school environment.

The environment has positive and significant correlation with Laissez-faire with coefficient of .703 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of environment have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .477 to .674 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that

improvement in school system with Laissez-faire is explained by an effective school environment.

Table 4.35

The Relationship between Transactional and laissez-faire Dimensions with Environment

ENVIRONMENT	SS	AF	PI	SF	PDM	INV	RAQ	WP
Contingent R	.654**	.397**	.408**	.504**	.650**	.556**	.601**	.508**	.519**
MBEA	.776**	.694**	.493**	.720**	.554**	.486**	.626**	.693**	.596**
MBE Passive	.568**	.425**	.370**	.303**	.546**	.517**	.593**	.417**	.450**
Laissez-Fair	.703**	.610**	.618**	.528**	.564**	.489**	.477**	.493**	.674**

4.18 The Relationship of Transformational Leadership Styles with School Improvement

This section explains the relationship between each transactional dimension and environment as shown on the Table 4.36 below. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the dimensions of Transactional leadership and Laissez-faire. As presented in the table, improvement has positive and significant correlation with transformational leadership with coefficient of .905 indicating very high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .652 to .758 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with transformational leader is explained by an effective school improvement.

As presented in the table, improvement has positive and significant correlation with transactional leadership with coefficient of .843 indicating very high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .536 to .768 indicating moderate to high

correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with transactional leader is explained by an effective school improvement. As presented in the table, improvement has positive and significant correlation with Laissez-faire leadership with coefficient of .691 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .387 to .756 indicating negative to high correlation. These results indicate that Laissez-faire in school system is explained by an effective school improvement.

Table 4.36

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Styles with Improvement

IMPROVEMENT	COLG	CE	PE	JS	PSO	TM
Transformational	.905**	.757**	.758**	.745**	.652**	.677**	.716**
Transactional	.843**	.637**	.768**	.699**	.536**	.715**	.643**
Laissez-faire	.691**	.387**	.643**	.408**	.484**	.560**	.756**

4.18.1 Relationship between Transformational with Improvement Dimensions

This section explains the relationship between each transformational dimension and environment as shown on the Table 4.37 below. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the dimensions of Idealized influence and Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Idealized influence (Attributed) with coefficient of .677 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .421 to .781 indicating low to high

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correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence (A) is explained by an effective school improvement.

The Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Idealized influence (Behaviour) with coefficient of .626 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .396 to .621 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence (B) is explained by an effective school improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Inspirational motivation with coefficient of .590 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .358 to .630 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Inspirational motivation is explained by an effective school Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Intellectual stimulation with coefficient of .710 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .486 to .626 indicating low to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Intellectual stimulation is explained by an effective school Improvement. As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Idealized influence with coefficient of .616 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging

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from .369 to .588 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Idealized influence is explained by an effective school Improvement.

Table 4.37

The Relationship between the Transformational Leadership Style and School Improvement dimensions

IMPROVEMENT	COLG	CE	PE	JS	PSO	TM
Idealized A	.677**	.781**	.490**	.664**	.429**	.421**	.471**
Idealized B	.626**	.585**	.396**	.414**	.526**	.430**	.621**
Inspirational M	.590**	.358**	.630**	.454**	.485**	.417**	.455**
Intellectual S	.710**	.486**	.626**	.600**	.517**	.546**	.589**
Idealized in	.616**	.487**	.541**	.509**	.369**	.588**	.426**

4.18.2 Relationship between Transactional and Laissez-faire Dimensions with Improvement

This section explains the relationship between each transactional dimension and Improvement as shown on the Table 4.38 below. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the dimensions of Transactional leadership and Laissez-faire.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Contingent reward with coefficient of .666 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the four dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .390 to .639 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Contingent reward is explained by an effective school Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Management –by-exception (A) with coefficient of .727 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the four dimensions of Transactional have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .348 to .746 indicating negative to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Management-by-exception (A) is explained by an effective school Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Management-by-exception (P) with coefficient of .588 indicating moderate positive correlation. Similarly, the four dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .304 to .682 indicating negative to moderate correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Management-by-exception (P) is explained by an effective school Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Laissez-faire with coefficient of .691 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the four dimensions of Transactional have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .387 to .756 indicating negative to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Laissez-faire is explained by an effective school Improvement.

Table 4.38

The Relationship between Transactional and laissez-faire Dimensions with Improvement

IMPROVEMENT	COLG	CE	PE	JS	PSO	TM
Contingent R	.666**	.390**	.609**	.584**	.495**	.639**	.435**
MBE A	.727**	.485**	.666**	.422**	.348**	.736**	.746**
MBE Passive	.588**	.544**	.539**	.682**	.464**	.307**	.304**
Laissez-Faire	.691**	.387**	.643**	.408**	.484**	.560**	.756**

4.19   Relationship between School Environment Dimensions and School Improvement Dimensions

This section explains the relationship between each School Improvement dimension and School Environment dimensions as shown on the Table 4.39 below. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the dimensions. As presented in the table 4.39 below, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Student support with coefficient of .753 indicating very high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .501 to 760 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with School Environment is explained by an effective School Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Affiliation with coefficient of .937 indicating very high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .663 to .801 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with School Environment is explained by an effective School Improvement. As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Professional interest with coefficient of .708 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .337 to .771 indicating negative to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Professional interest is explained by an effective School Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Staff freedom with coefficient of .740 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .492 to .779 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Staff freedom is explained by an effective School Improvement. As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with PDM with coefficient of .775 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the eight dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .562 to .745 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with PDM is explained by an effective School Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Innovation with coefficient of .742 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .506 to .672 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Innovation is explained by an effective School Improvement. As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Resource adequacy with coefficient of .728 indicating very high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .499 to .735 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Resource adequacy is explained by an effective School Improvement.

As presented in the table, Improvement has positive and significant correlation with Work pressure with coefficient of .753 indicating high positive correlation. Similarly, the six dimensions of Improvement have significant relationships with coefficients ranging from .505 to .669 indicating moderate to high correlation. These results indicate that improvement in school system with Work pressure is explained by an effective School Improvement.

Table 4.39

Relationship between the dimensions of School Environment and School Improvement

	IMPROVEMENT	COLG	CE	PE	JS	PSO	TM
ENVIRONMENT	.937**	.687**	.800**	.726**	.663**	.758**	.801**
SS	.753**	.579**	.601**	.501**	.448**	.656**	.760**
AF	.731**	.566**	.663**	.492**	.631**	.440**	.679**
PI	.708**	.500**	.563**	.522**	.337**	.771**	.630**
SF	.740**	.492**	.779**	.596**	.524**	.551**	.566**
PDM	.775**	.631**	.617**	.745**	.577**	.565**	.562**
INV	.742**	.529**	.672**	.616**	.620**	.506**	.586**
RAQ	.728**	.521**	.558**	.512**	.499**	.735**	.606**
WP	.753**	.530**	.632**	.626**	.611**	.505**	.669**

4.20 The influence of Transformational Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement

This section explains the 5th objective of the study, were it seek to find the Influence of Transformational Leadership Styles and its dimensions on both School Environment and School Improvement. Table 4.40 below presents the Regression Analysis for the Leadership Styles constructs of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire on how they Influence School Environment as independent variables or as predictors of School Environment.

The results indicates that the constructs supports each other in serving as predictors of School Environment, that means they have direct effect towards the Secondary Schools Improvement, and all of them stood at the significant level of 0.000 and an F-value of 1831.04, R^2 value of .908 and adjusted R^2-value of the same .908 which means that 90.8% variance of School Environment can be predicted or explained by the Leadership constructs of Principals of Secondary Schools in Nigeria.

Table 4.40

The Influence of Leadership Styles on School Environment

Leadership Styles	B	t	p
transformational	.488	23.536	.001
Transactional	.380	19.572	.001
Laissez-faire	.209	12.824	.001
R^2 value			.908
R^2 value Adjusted			.908
F value			1831.04
Sig			.001

Table 4.41 below presents the Regression Analysis for Leadership Style sub-constructs as predictors of School Environment. The result of data analysis indicates that Idealized Influence Attributed, Idealized Influence Behaviour, Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized consideration Management-By-Exception active, Management-By-Exception Passive, Contingent Reward and Laissez-Faire significantly Influenced School Environment at the level of p-value 0.000, F-value 671.91, R^2value of .917 and R^2 –value of .915 which means that 91.5% of variance of School Environment can be predicted or explained by all the significant dimensions of Leadership.

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Table 4.41

The Influence of Leadership Dimensions on School Environment

Leadership Dimensions	B	t	p
Management-by-exception Active	.251	13.833	.001
Management-by- exception Passive	.122	7.861	.001
Intellectual Stimulation	.186	11.570	.001
Contingent Reward	.159	10.226	.001
Laissez-faire	.168	9.569	.001
Idealized Influence Attributed	.133	8.332	.001
Idealized Influence Behavior	.134	8.589	.001
Inspirational Motivation	.123	7.095	.001
Individualized Consideration	.094	6.221	.001
R^2			.917
R^2 adjusted			.915
F			671.9
Sig			.001

Table 4.42 below, presents the Regression Analysis for the Leadership Styles of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire on how they Influence School Improvement as independent variables or as predictors of School Environment.

The results indicates that the constructs supports each other in serving as predictors of School Environment, that means they have direct effect towards the Secondary Schools Improvement, and all of them stood at the significant level of 0.000 and an F-value of 1831.04, R^2-value of .918 and adjusted R^2-value of the same .917 which means that 91.7% variance of School Improvement can be predicted or explained by the Leadership constructs of Principals of Secondary Schools in Nigeria.

Table 4.42

The Influence of Leadership Styles on School Improvement

	B	t	p
Transformational	.525	25.326	.001
Transactional	.286	17.653	.001
Laissez-faire	.108	11.225	.001
R^2			.905
R^2 Adjusted			.905
F			1765.67
Sig			.001

Table 4.43 below presents the Regression Analysis for Leadership Style dimensions as predictors of School Improvement. The result of data analysis indicates that Idealized Influence (A), Idealized Influence (B), Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration Management-By-Exception active, Management-By-Exception passive, Contingent Reward and Laissez-Faire significantly Influenced School Environment at the level of p-value 0.000, F-value 686.12, R^2value of .918 and R^2 –value of .917 which means that 91.7% of variance of School Improvement can be predicted or explained by all the significant dimensions of Leadership.

Table 4.43

The Influence of Leadership Dimensions on School Improvement

	B	t	p
Management-by-exception Active	.156	8.681	.001
Intellectual Stimulation	.214	13.480	.001
Idealized Attributed	.189	11.977	.001
Contingent Reward	.187	12.171	.001
Laissez-faire	.184	10.541	.001
Management-by-exception Passive	.139	9.070	.001
Idealized Behaviour	.147	9.834	.001
Individualized Consideration	.094	6.050	.001
Inspirational Motivation	.072	4.711	.001
R^2 value			.918
R^2 value Adjusted			.917
F value			686.12
Sig			.001

Table 4.44 below presents the Regression Analysis for Environment as predictors of School Improvement. The result of data analysis indicates that School Environment significantly Influenced School Improvement at the level of p-value 0.000, F-value 4012.986, R^2value of .878 and R^2 –value adjusted of .878 which means that 87.8% of variance of School Environment can be predicted or explained by School Improvement.

Table 4.44

The Influence of School Environment on School Improvement

	Beta	t	Sig	R^2	R^2 Adjusted	F Value
				.878	.878	4012.986
ENVIRONMENT	.937	63.348	.000			

Table 4.45 below presents the Regression Analysis for School Environment dimensions as predictors of School Improvement. The result of data analysis indicates that Participatory decision making, Affiliation, Student support, Work pressure, Innovation Professional interest, Staff freedom and Resource adequacy significantly Influenced School Improvement at the level of p-value 0.000, F-value 585.721, R^2 value of .895 and R^2–value adjusted of .893 which means that 89.37% of variance of School Improvement can be predicted or explained by all the significant dimensions of Environment.

Table 4.45

The Influence of School Environment Dimensions on School Improvement

Dimensions	Beta	t	Sig
Participatory decision making	.236	11.778	.000
Affiliation	.188	9.349	.000
Student support	.194	9.083	.000
Work Pressure	.207	10.115	.000
Innovation	.092	4.220	.000
Professional Interest	.074	3.105	.002
Staff Freedom	.112	5.199	.000
Resource Adequacy	.095	4.039	.000
R^2			.895
R^2 Adjusted			.893
F Value			585.721
Sig			.000

4.21   Hypothesis Testing and Solution to Research Questions

A possibility of impartially evaluating the degree and attractiveness of the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable is usually detected through multiple regression analysis (Sekaran *&* Bougie, 2012; Hair, Money, Samovel & Page, 20O7; Field: 2009). The regression coefficient is used to show the comparative position of each of the independent variable in the forecast of the dependent variable. When independent variables are jointly regressed against the dependent variable in an effort to explain the variance in it, the size of each (individual) regression coefficients will show the level of increase in one unit in the individual variable that would affect the dependent variable, been very much aware that all other individual variables and dependent variable fissure in to multiple correlation coefficient (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikinund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010).

The method of analysis used in this study to test the hypothesis is regression analysis; it 1s envisioned to examine the relationship between predictors as well as the criterion variables separately. For the manner of regression analysis large sample is required and deliberated as most appropriate and also the fundamental assumptions of multiple regressions were fulfilled (Hair *et. al.,* 2010). This assumption includes normality, linearity, rnuiticoliinearity, homoscedasticity. Which are usually studied through the scatter residual plots and the normality probability plot in the regression standardized residuals, the fundamental statement above was sensibly examined and found that none of the assumption was violated in this study, thus, making the behavior of multiple regression analysis suitable.

The major objective of this investigation is the fortitude of the Influence of Leadership Style and School Environment towards School Improvement in the selected Unity and Non-unity Schools. The objective was entrusted into specific objectives and investigated with research questions and hypotheses. Table 4.46 below, presents the multiple regression analysis results of the relationship between Leadership styles, school environment and school improvement. In determining the relationship between Leadership styles, school environment and school improvement multiple regression analysis was conducted as presented in Table 4.46 below. The results presented in table 4.66 below, with predictors that were significant, R =.400, R' =.15.8, Adj. R' =.15.8, F-Change = 0.654. The multiple correlation coefficients between the predictors and the criterion variable were .400; the predictor accounted for 15.8% of the variance in the transformational leadership style. Cohen (1958) classified R^2 in to three; A) 0.02 as weak, B) 0.13 as moderate and 0.26 as substantial. Based on the Cohen and Cohen, (1983) and Cohen (1988) classifications the value of R^2 is moderate.

Table 4.46

Correlation between Leadership Style and School Environment

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	t	p
Leadership	0.654	0.400	15.8	.01
Environment	0.313	0.039	7.6	.01

Hypothesis 1:

Ha1: There is a significant difference between Unity Schools and Non-Unity Schools in terms of Leadership Styles. This hypothesis was analysed using t-test. Table 4.47 below shows that on the perspective of Leadership, the Unity Schools had a mean of 3.7925 with a t value of 4.114, while the Non-Unity schools are having a mean of 3.6429 with an t value of 4.236 this clearly shows that the unity

schools in Nigeria are having better Leadership than the Non-Unity Schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing .05 which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the result is above 5% significance

Ha2: There is a significant difference between unity schools and non-unity schools in terms of School Environment**:** Table 4.47 below shows that there was significant differences between Unity School and Non-Unity School in relation to School Environment where the mean of Unity Schools supersedes that of the Non-Unity schools, the School Environment measures a mean of 3.8154 for Unity Schools, with a t value of 2.944, while the Non-Unity Schools are having a mean of 3.7066 with a t value of 3.243 this clearly shows that the unity schools in Nigeria are having better Leadership than the Non-Unity Schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing .01 which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the result is significant at the level of 1% significance.

Ha3: There is a significant difference between Unity Schools and Non-Unity Schools in terms of School Improvement**:** This hypothesis was analysed using t-test. Table 4.47 below shows that on the perspective of achievement, the Unity Schools had a mean of 3.8543 with a t value of 3.801, while the Non-Unity Schools are having a mean of 3.7216 with a t value of 3.970 this clearly shows that the unity Schools in Nigeria are having better Academic Performance than the Non-Unity Schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing 0.00 which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the result is above 1% significance.

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Table 4.47

Ha 1, 2, 3 School Type Difference on the Three Variables

	M	t	p
Leadership	3.7925	4.114	.001
	3.6429	4.236	.001
Environment	3.8154	2.944	.003
	3.7066	3.243	.001
Achievement	3.8543	3.801	.001
	3.7216	3.970	.001

Ha4: There is a significant difference on Gender perspective in Leadership Styles in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools. Descriptive statistics is a pattern and general trends in a data set. The result shows that mean for Male on the perspective of Achievement is 3.7127 with a t value at -2226 and Female mean recorded at the level of 3.7934 with -2316 as t value, this is clearly indicating that there is a clear-cut difference between Male and Female as Female are seen to be higher than Male on the perspective of Leadership that means this research is in agreement that Females are better Leaders than Male and the difference is so significant at the level of 1%, therefore the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Ha5: there is a significant difference in Gender perspective on School Environment in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools. Descriptive statistics is a pattern and general trends in a data set. Table 4.64 shows descriptive statistics for School Environment based on gender. The result shows that mean for Male on the perspective of Environment is 3.7371 with a t value at -3119 and Female mean recorded at the level of 3.8457 with -3115 as t value, this is clearly indicating that there is a clear-cut difference between Male and Female as Female are seen to be better than Male on the perspective of Environment and the difference is so significant at the level of 1%, therefore the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

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Ha6: There is a significant difference in Gender perspective on School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools. . Descriptive statistics is a pattern and general trends in a data set. Table 4.48 shows descriptive statistics for School Achievement based on Gender. The result shows that mean for Male on the perspective of Achievement is 3.7829 with a t value at -2204 and Female mean recorded at the level of 3.8561 with -2202 as t value, this is clearly indicating that there is a clear-cut difference between Male and Female as Female are seen to be better than male on the perspective of Achievement and the difference is so significant at the level of 1%, therefore the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.48

Ha4, 5, 6 Gender Difference on the three variables

	M	t	p
Leadership	3.7127	-2226	.020
	3.7934	-2316	.021
Environment	3.7371	-3119	.002
	3.8457	-3115	.002
Achievement	3.7829	-2204	.028
	3.8561	-2202	.028

Ha7: There is a significant correlation between Leadership Style and School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools: When correlation analysis was performed on the three main variables of the study: Leadership Style, School Environment and School Improvement, the results of correlation analysis found that all the variables correlated with each other significantly. This hypothesis shows that there was a positive and significant correlation between Leadership Style and School Environment with .953[**] at the 0.00 level of significance

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Ha8: There is a significant correlation between School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools: When correlation analysis was performed on the three main variables of the study: Leadership Style, School Environment and School Achievement, the results of correlation analysis found that all the variables correlated with each other with School Environment and School Achievement correlating at the level of .937[**] with 0.001 significant level.

Ha9: Leadership Style significantly Influence School Improvement in Nigerian secondary Schools. After conducting Regression Analysis, this hypothesis was analysed using correlation. Table 4.49 shows that there was a positive and significant correlation between Leadership Styles and School Environment with .955[**] at the level of 0.01 level of significance.

Table 4.49

The Correlation of Leadership Styles with School Achievement

	Leadership	Environment	Achievement
Leadership	1	.955**	.953[**]
		.000	.000
	559	559	559
Environment	.955**	1	.937**
	.000		.000
	559	559	559
Achievement	.953**	.937**	1
	.000	.000	
	559	559	559

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Ha10: School Environment significantly Influence School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools. A multiple Regression Model was adopted to examine the functional relationship to establish predictors of the School Environment on the

outcome variable of the Schools' Improvement using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method. This procedure was considered adequate since the variables were measured on interval scale. The estimated Beta Coefficients for determining the functional relationship of the School Environment on the School Improvement in the model is summarized on Table 4.50. Using the total data analysed at the sum of 559, it was found that Leadership and School Environment significantly influenced school Improvement.

Ha11: School Environment dimensions significantly Influence School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools. A multiple Regression Model was adopted to examine the functional relationship to establish predictors of the School Environment dimensions on the outcome variable of Schools' Improvement using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method. This procedure was considered adequate since the variables were measured on interval scale. The estimated Beta Coefficients for determining the functional relationship of the School Environment on the School Improvement in the model is summarized on Table 4.50. Using the total data analysed at the sum of 559, it was found that Leadership styles and school Environment significantly influenced school Improvement.

Table 4.50

The Influence of School Environment on School Achievement

		Improvement	Leadership	Environment
Person correlation	Improvement	1.000	.953	.937
	Leadership	.953	1.000	.955
	Environment	.937	.955	1.000
Sig.(1-tailed)	Improvement		.001	.001
	Leadership	.001		.001
	Environment	.001	.001	
N	Improvement	559	559	559
	Leadership	559	559	559
	Environment	559	559	559

Table 4.51 located in the appendixes E is designed to show the summary of the whole hypothesis tested and solutions to research questions. The first Colum of the Table is portraying the type or group of hypothesis, and you will find that (Ha) has dominated the whole hypothesis and it means alternative hypothesis. All the hypothesis were listed on the second column whereas the next column is showing categorically the result of the hypothesis on the basis of weather it is accepted or not and at what significant level, virtually all the significant levels were 0.00 which shows that all were accepted on the basis that the hypothesis were asked in the alternative side and no hypothesis is insignificant.

Table 4.51

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis Group	**Hypothesis testing**	**Results**
Ha1	There is a significant difference between Unity and Non-unity Schools in terms of Leadership Style in Nigerian.	Accepted at 0.01
Ha2	There is a significant difference between Unity and Non-unity Schools in terms of School Environment in Nigerian.	Accepted at 0.01
Ha3	There is a significant difference between Unity and Non-Unity Schools in terms of School Improvement in Nigerian.	Accepted at 0,01
Ha4	There is a significant Gender difference on the perspective of Leadership Styles in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha5	There is a significant Gender difference on the perspective of School Environment in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha6	There is a significant Gender difference on the perspective of School Improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha7	There is a significant correlation between Leadership style and School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha8	There is a significant correlation between School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha9	Leadership style significantly influences School Improvement in Nigerian secondary Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha10	School Environment significantly influences School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools	Accepted at 0.01
Ha11	School Environment dimensions will significantly influence School Improvement in Nigerian Secondary Schools.	Accepted at 0.01

4.22 Summary of Findings

The major observations of this study are summarised as follow. The chapter is all about the findings and the interpretation of the empirical outcome of the study. The chapter began with data collection process and responses, followed by non-response bias issue where it was found that there were no significant differences between early and late respondents using independent t-test analysis. Data cleaning was conducted regarding missing data and outliers. Both univariate (z-score) and multivariate (Mahanalobis) outlier treatment were carried in order to ensure good data. Descriptive statistics were followed mainly to provide the profile of respondents that cut-across all principals in unity and non-unity schools in North-western Nigeria. Basic information such as gender educational qualification, job status and type of school were discussed which gave insight on the respondent fundamental information's. Assumptions of multiple regression analysis was seen and found that none of the normality. Linearity, multicollinearity and homosdasticity assumptions were violated which give a go ahead in conducting the regression analysis.

Factor analysis was conducted on the entire constructs, principal component analyses, (MSA/KMO) were statistically found to be adequate for further analysis. Construct reliability and validity were seen and all factors have a good Chronbach's alpha for internal consistency of 0.7 and above. Pearson (r) bivariate correlation was performed and found that all the variables are significantly correlated. Multiple regression analysis of the constructs was conducted. School Environment and School Improvement were significantly related to Transformational Leadership, and finally the chapter summary showing the entire issues for the whole chapter was advanced.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1   Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the research findings and recommendations. Similarly, it explains the theoretical and practical implications of the study; limitations and recommendations for future research are also discussed.

5.2   Recapitalizations of the Study

The present study was conducted to investigate the influence of transformational leadership and school environment towards school improvement in Nigerian Secondary schools. Quantitative method of data collection was employed, which involved the use of a structured questionnaire adopted from previous studies. Self-administration of questionnaire was used which allows the researcher to have a face to face contact with the respondents A total of 600 sets of questionnaire was distributed to the teachers of unity and non-unity schools in the North-western Nigeria.. Having distributed 600 questionnaires 37 were lost, and 563 questionnaires were completed and returned, out of which 388 questionnaires were from unity schools and 175 from non-unity schools that were retained for further analysis. In this study, a total of 4 items out of 563 were identified and deleted because they are no longer suitable as a result of both univariate and multivariate outlier cases leaving 559 from the data set. After the deletion, the histogram and boxplot were again plotted to see if there are still cases of outliers.

The data were keyed into SPSS version 20, and the analysis started by checking for missing values and outliers. No missing value was found in the data set, as this is

connected with the researcher's curiosity right from the field in ensuring that all items are duly responded by respondents, and at the same time the researcher's ability to key in any questionnaire collected within the shortest possible time. Principal component analysis was conducted to enable the assessment of the factor validity of the instruments.

Similarly, reliability test was conducted for the purpose of assessing the internal consistency of the measures through Cronbach's alpha. The hypotheses of direct relationship were tested using multiple linear regressions, the result of factor analysis of School Environment and School Improvement as the dependent variables indicated that the construct is measured with one component, all this were measured as one-dimensional, and their respective reliability coefficient stood above 0.6 which is the minimum benchmark. This is supported by the standard that says an instrument with a coefficient of 0.60 is regarded to have an average reliability; whereas a coefficient of 0.70 and above shows that the instrument has a high level of reliability (Nunally, 1967; Nunally, 1978; Hair *et a/.,* 2006; Sekaran & Bougie, *2010*).

As regards the hypothesis testing for direct relationship using multiple regression analysis, the result showed that all of the developed hypotheses were accepted, because the result indicated that both School Environment and School Improvement are significantly and positively related to Transformational Leadership style. And again these hypotheses were developed to test the correlation between Transformational Leadership style, school Environment and School Improvement.

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5.3   Discussions

This section deliberates on the study's findings considering relevant theories and findings of previous research. The titles of discussion section are planned according to the research questions. Research questions were answered by research objectives. The research questions were as follows:

1. What are the levels of transformational leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity and non-unity Schools?

2. 1s there a significant difference between Unity and non-unity schools in terms of Transformational leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement?

3. In the demographic aspects, is there any significant gender difference in relation to Transformational Leadership style, School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools?

4. Is there any significant correlation between Transformational Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools?

5. Does Transformational Leadership Styles and School Environment significantly influence School Improvement in Nigerian Unity and Non-unity Schools? Below are the processes taking to prove the research hypothesis by making use of research objectives to answer the research questions;

5.3.1   The Principals Level of Leadership Styles

The result indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Unity Schools (M = 3.82, SD = .39) reported significantly higher levels of

transformational Leadership than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = .39). The level of Idealized Influence by School type clearly established that teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Individualized Influence at the level of .735 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .725, therefore in terms of Idealized Influence the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Inspirational Motivation by School type clearly established that teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Inspirational Motivation at the level of .867 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .856, therefore in terms of Inspirational Motivation the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Intellectual Stimulation by School type clearly established that teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Intellectual Stimulation at .855 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .844, therefore in terms of Intellectual Stimulation the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. The level of Individualized Consideration by School type clearly established that teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Individualized Consideration at.881 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .824, therefore in terms of Individualized Consideration the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Contingent Reward clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Contingency Reward at .856 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools having .841, therefore in terms of Contingency Reward the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. The level of Management-By-Exception clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Management-By-Exception with Standard Deviation of. 852 than the Non-Unity Schools that has .749, therefore in terms of Management-By-Exception the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Laissez-Faire clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the lowest level of Management-By-Exception with .760 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that is highest with .808, therefore in terms of Laissez-Faire the Unity Schools are lower which means that the quality of Leadership experienced in Unity Schools is lower than the Non-Unity schools.

5.3.2 The Principals Level of School Environment

The result indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain shows that Unity Schools (M = 3.81, SD = .43) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.71, SD = .33). The level of Student Support by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the lowest level of Student Support at the level of .730 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .840, therefore in terms of Student Support the Unity

Schools are lower which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is lower than the Non-unity schools.

The level of Affiliation by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Affiliation at the level of .750 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that have .742, therefore in terms of Affiliation the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Professional Interest by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools has the highest level of Professional Interest at .866 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that have .745, therefore in terms of Professional Interest the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Staff Freedom by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Staff Freedom at .850 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .744; therefore in terms of Staff Freedom the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools. The level of Participatory Decision Making clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Participatory Decision Making at .788 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools having .784, therefore in terms of Participatory Decision making the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Innovation clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Innovation with Standard Deviation of .850 than the Non-Unity Schools that has .749, therefore in terms of Innovation the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Resource Adequacy clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the lowest level of Resource Adequacy with .848 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that is highest with .775, therefore in terms of Resource Adequacy the Unity Schools are lower which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is lower than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Work Pressure clearly established that, Teachers of Unity Schools have the lowest Level of Work Pressure with .847 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that is highest with .749, therefore in terms of Resource Adequacy the Unity Schools are lower which means that the quality of Environment experienced in Unity Schools is lower than the Non-Unity Schools.

5.3.3   The Principals Level of School Improvement

The result indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Unity Schools (M = 3.85, SD = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.72, SD = .35). The level of Collegiality influence by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Collegiality at the level of .842 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .745, therefore in terms of Collegiality the

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Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Improvement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Collective Efficacy by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Collective Efficacy at the level of .849 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .746, therefore in terms of Collective Efficacy the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Improvement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Personal Efficacy by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Personal Efficacy at .844 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that has .796, therefore in terms of Personal Efficacy the Unity Schools are high which means that the quality of Improvement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Job Satisfaction by School type clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Job Satisfaction at .843 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools that have .752; therefore in terms of Job Satisfaction the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Improvement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Policy-Say-So clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools have the highest level of Policy-Say-So at .856 Standard Deviation than the Non-Unity Schools having .743, therefore in terms of Policy-Say-So the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Improvement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

The level of Teaming clearly established that Teachers of Unity Schools has the highest level of Teaming with Standard Deviation of .857 than the Non-Unity Schools that has .742, therefore in terms of Teaming the Unity Schools are higher which means that the quality of Achievement experienced in Unity Schools is higher than the Non-Unity Schools.

5.3.4 The Difference between Leadership components and School Environment

The difference between the variables are paired with Demography were the results here are summarised in percentage. The difference that existed between the unity and non-unity schools on demographic principles of School type and gender are discussed as follows.

The result on the differences of Transformational Leadership by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Transactional (M = 3.88, SD = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Transactional leadership than Laissez-faire (M = 3.45, SD = .71), t (5.89) =, p < .01. This shows there is significant difference in leadership styles in the Nigerian Secondary Schools

The result on the difference of Transformational dimensions by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Here the highest mean is Management-by-exception (Passive) with 4.11 as mean and .50 SD. A t-value of 10.62 was recorded and significant at the level of .01. And lowest been Laissez faire having 3.45 as mean with .70 SD. A t-value of- 2.38 was recorded and significant at the level of .02. Which shows that Management-

by-exception (*M* = 4.11, *SD* = .50) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational Leadership than Laissez-faire (*M* = 3.45, *SD* = .70), *t*=-- 2.38, p ≥ .01. Supported.

The result on the differences between Transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership dimension by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Transactional (*M* = 3.88, *SD* = .46) reported significantly higher levels of Transactional leadership than Laissez-faire (*M* = 3.45, *SD* = .71), *t* (5.89) =, p < .01. This shows there is significant difference in leadership styles in the Nigerian Secondary Schools.

The result on the difference of School Environment by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Unity Schools (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Non-unity Schools (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = .33), *t*=2.94, p ≤.03. Supported

The result on the difference of School Environment dimensions by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that the highest mean is Innovation with 3.94 as mean and .48 SD. A t-value of 5.59 was recorded and significant at the level of .01. And lowest been Resource adequacy having 3.71 as mean with .55 SD. A t-value of 2.87 was recorded and significant at the level of .04. Which shows that Innovation (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Environment than Resource adequacy (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = .33), *t*=-- 2.94, p ≥ .03. Supported.

The result on the difference of School Improvement by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Unity Schools (M = 3.85, SD = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Non-unity Schools (M = 3.72, SD = .35), t=3.80, p ≤.01. Supported

The result on the difference of School Improvement dimensions by School type indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that the highest mean is Collegiality with 3.97 as mean and .40 SD. A t-value of 6.46 was recorded and significant at the level of .01. And lowest been Teaming having 3.74 as mean with .57 SD. A t-value of -1.07 was recorded and significant at the level of .29. Which shows that Collegiality (M = 3.85, SD = .40) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Teaming (M = 3.74, SD = .57), t=-- 6.46, p ≥ .01. Supported.

The result on the difference of Transformational Leadership by Gender indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Males (M = 3.74, SD = .38) reported significantly higher levels of Transformational Leadership than Females (M = 3.81, SD = .40), t= -1.96, p ≥ .05. Supported

The result on the difference of School Environment by Gender indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Females (M = 3.86, SD = .39) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Males (M = 3.78, SD = .38), t = -2.20, p ≥ .01. Supported.

The result on the difference between School Improvement by Gender indicated that the three predicting variables were able to explain and show that Females (M = 3.86,

SD = .39) reported significantly higher levels of School Improvement than Males (*M* = 3.78, *SD* = .38), t = -2.20, p ≥ .01. Supported.

5.3.5 The Relationship between the Leadership components and School Environment

The relationship between the variables are paired with Demography were the results here are summarised in percentage. The relationship that existed between the unity and non-unity schools on demographic principles of School type and gender are discussed below:

The relationship between Leadership constructs with Environment is pleasant; Transformational Leadership differs with Environment at the level of .892 where Participatory Decision Making as a dimension of School Environment ranked high with .789, while Professional Interest was the lowest with .673.

Transactional with Environment differs at the level of .853 with Professional Interest to as low as .545 while Staff Freedom was higher with .752. Laissez-Faire with Environment was .703, with Work Pressure as the one having sharp difference with .674 while Innovation was low having just .477.

Contingent Reward was another sharp difference that occurred when compared with Environment where it ranked .654 with Professional Interest as the lowest having .397. And Management-By-Exception with Environment paired .776 while Job Satisfaction was as low as .369. The relationship between the components of Leadership and School Improvement;

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5.3.6 The Relationship of Leadership Components on School Improvement

The relationship between the variables are paired with Demography were the results here are summarised in percentage. The relationship that existed between the unity and non-unity schools on demographic principles of School type and gender are discussed below:

The relationship between Leadership Styles and Students' Academic Improvement was statistically significant but not positive. This finding agrees with the report of Sweetland and Hoy (2000) who demonstrated that, after Socio-economic status, School Environment had a more powerful effect on School Improvement than any other variable. And in Secondary School Administration, the success of any school to achieve its stated goals or objectives depends on the ability of the chief administrator otherwise known as the Principal and his Leadership Style (Adegbesan, 2013).

Many people strongly believe that even when there are good educational plans, good School program adequate staff and facilities; the organization needs a good administrative Leadership to coordinate all these for the progress and success of the School (Adegbesan, 2013). The previous studies of Hallinger and Heck, (2010) on collaborative leadership and School Improvement, using a convenience sampling of two hundred school principals is in support of these research findings. Their findings indicated a significant association between transformational leadership style and School improvement. The study of Burns (1978) was not in line with the present study where a school environment is found to be a good predictor to school improvement.

5.3.7   Influence of Transformational Leadership on School Environment

The influence that existed between the variables are paired with Demography were the results here are summarised in percentage. The relationship that existed between the unity and non-unity schools on demographic principles of School type and gender are discussed below:

The estimated Beta Coefficients for determining the functional relationship of the Leadership Styles on the School Environment in the model was computed and summarised in Table 4.46. Using the total data analysed at the sum of 559, it was found that Leadership styles and school Environment significantly influenced school Improvement.

The Influence of Leadership Styles on School Environment and the outcome variables measured in School Improvement and Students' Academic Performances among Unity Schools in Nigerian was investigated in this study. Thirteen alternative hypotheses were tested along the research objectives and questions.

In the test of the first hypothesis, the extent to which Unity Schools Influence the Non-Unity in respect of both Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement was tested, Correlation Analysis explained the level of Leadership Style, School Environment and School Achievement in Nigerian Unity Schools, as the Regression results revealed that there is an R square value of 0.344 which specifies that 34.44% of Variance that explained the DV (School Improvement) was accounted for by the IVs (Leadership Style and School Environment) which are all significant at the level of 1%.

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5.3.8 Influence of Transformational Leadership on School Improvement

The results indicates that the constructs supports each other in serving as predictors of School Environment, that means they have direct effect towards the Secondary Schools Improvement, and all of them stood at the significant level of 0.000 and an F-value of 1831.04, R^2-value of .918 and adjusted R^2-value of the same .917 which means that 91.7% variance of School Improvement can be predicted or explained by the Leadership constructs of Principals of Secondary Schools in Nigeria.

The results from this studies agrees with the findings of some Scholars in some of the previous studies conducted, as this was supported by the idea of (Leithwood et al., 2006) where he observed that School Leaders have become the center of attraction for policy makers with the assumptions that quality Leadership will bring about increased School Improvement for all Students. And also the idea of (Barnett & McCormick, 2004; Schooley, 2005; Scope, 2006 Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Le Clear, 2005; Leithwood et al., 2006) holds that School Leadership and School Environment have been found to impact Students' Improvement. In addition (Hay, 2006; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006) stated that the commitment of organization members is also influenced by the motivational degree of their Transformational Leaders.

The most difficult issue in attaining Leadership change is the Leadership process (Shukla, 1999). Several investigators (Singh & Bhandarker, 1990, Tichy & Devanna, 1986, as cited in Shukla, 1999) made it very clear that standards can be improved and are brought about through Transformational Leaders. The positional intention of a School establishment to learn can also be received through Transformational

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Leaders. Nevertheless, there is a significant obstacle in-between the styles of Leadership and Leaders (Shukla, 1999). Transformational Leaders are known to be less of Managers and more of Leaders. All successful Managerial differences are characterised by an individual Manager who is able to assist as a performer for the Transformation, and whose existence, action, and touch have some distinct feeling or magic (Nadler, 45:1988). Rolls, (1996) stated that the Transformational Leader offers an important set of conditions under which workers can unfold, transform, grow and flourish in uncertainty.

The Transformational Leader become model on determinations to teach skills needed to make a School establishment grow in the direction of becoming a learning establishment. What is apparent about Transformational Leaders is their visionary ability. This means the skills to imagine, elevate, and allow the actions inside a School establishment. Shukla (1999) cited (Tushman, Newman & Nadler, 1988) in arguing that: The imagining abilities support in judiciously listing a trustworthy and clear dream of the establishment that leads to the creation of new and difficult goals, and redesigning history to bring about egotism and interest for the current mission; the energising skills subsides the energy and interest of people for attaining new goals. Managers attain this by display of personal happiness and active involvement with goals and processes of change; and empowering abilities are seen in the Manager's aptitude to care, Inspire and Reward the efforts in line with change. The Leaders use their skills to build inventive ways and practices to energize people to participate in the change.

Responsibility in a School system is the duty on the part of the tutors to pass on the right type of knowledge to students in an active manner. Also responsibility is more

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than obeying the laid down rules, it is currently seen as concerned with results and the consideration of good governance is more on outputs than on inputs. That is why responsibility in the teaching profession is needed so that the goals of attaining quality education in Schools which is the predictable education output will be achieved. Tutors who are the attention of this analysis and part of education stakeholders (Halle, Mokeki & Marinda 2011) are drivers of Academic improvement and agents of Student's Academic Improvement (Branford et al, 2005; Sacilotto-Vasylenko, 2013) who should therefore, act instinctively (Odunayo, 2014) and teach efficiently (Adegite, 2010) in line with the required instructions (Ohwoyibo, 2009) so that the total objective will not be crushed.

This will ensure the attainment of not only quality education but subsequent application of government policies and programs. The following scholars (Grace, Buser, & Struck, 1987; Levine & Lezotte, 1995) all concurred that all successful School administrators are noticeable, conversant, and are constructive organizers of core curriculum and talent. They further explained that constructive School Managers bring a vibrant and collective idea that considers Learners first, and see that this vision is linked clearly and efficaciously to all Stakeholders. The consistency among staff that reassures a creative setting and partnership are also important qualities. This was totally agreed upon by (Sizer & Sizer, 1999) were they stated that the specialists working in an institution usually hypothesis their ideals by the way they address its problems in normal and strange times. Therefore, School Managers who can self-control a range of problems without misplacing image of their morals best encourage and assist the School community and that is the depiction of a much greater School Manager (Day, 2000). In addition, (Deal & Peterson, 1999) reported that School Managers that work and realizes the

Managerial vision and values form the School's assignment and determination, disclosing the fragile drives that inspire tutors to impart, School Managers to lead, pupils to acquire, and parents and community to have guarantee in their School thus persuading the significance of attainment that would become more positive.

The result revealed that Leadership Styles has significantly and positively influenced the outcome variables of School Environment and School Improvement in the selected Unity Schools. The hypothesis was therefore accepted. Some Schools have already proved that beyond reasonable doubt, this can be established in the findings of Onorato (2013) were he stated that Transformational Leadership in Schools played important roles in managing the Schools to reach high-standard levels and equally facilitate the School's performance just like common business organizations do. Studies have indicated that the affiliation between principals and Student Improvement is multifaceted and resolved through teacher practices (Bruggencate et al., 2012; Hallinger, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008; May, Huff, & Goldring, 2012).

For Research Question 2 and three hypotheses were formulated to examine if there is a significant difference between Unity Schools and Non-Unity Schools in terms of Leadership Style, School Environment and School Improvement Both hypotheses were partially supported. And hypothesis 3 states that School Improvement of Unity Schools will significantly Influence the Improvement of Non-Unity Schools in Nigeria. The Unity Schools had a mean of 3.7925 with a t value of 4.114, while the Non-Unity Schools are having a mean of 3.6429 with a t value of 4.236 this clearly shows that the Unity Schools in Nigeria are having better Leadership than the Non-Unity Schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing 0.051 which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the

basis that the result is above 5% significance these clearly imply that the Leadership Styles contributed significantly as predictors of School Improvement. The results of this study also tally's with the ideas of some scholars like (Sergiovanni, 1995) were he reported that there was a research conducted on Transformational Leadership and employee behavior which recommends that the employees are always motivated to a higher level of competence, expertise and commitment by their Leaders.

So also on the part of School Environment, it measures a mean of 3.8154 for Unity Schools, with a t value of 2.944, while the Non-Unity Schools are having a mean of 3.7066 with a t value of 3.243 this clearly shows that the Unity Schools in Nigeria are having better School Environment than the Non-Unity Schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing 0.001 and 0.000 respectably which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the result is significant at the level of 1% significance. And the results was supported by scholars like; who stated in his findings that Hallinger, (2003) visualizes Transformational Leadership as focusing on developing the establishment's capability to modernize. Rather than focusing exactly on direct management, control, and observation of curriculum and instruction, Transformational Leadership seeks to build the establishment's ability to select its determinations and to upkeep the expansion of changes to practices of teaching and learning. And he further stressed that, transformational Leadership may be regarded as distributive in that it focuses on developing a shared vision and shared commitment to School Change. School Effectiveness research has shown that School Environment is related to School Improvement (Sackney, 1998). So also scholars like (Sweetland and Hoy, 2000) demonstrated that, after socioeconomic status, School Environment had a more powerful effect on School Improvement than any other variable. Teachers who felt

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supported and empowered by their Principals and colleagues as part of a team enjoyed a sense of Collective Efficacy and higher Improvement scores. With this it is believed that when Unity Schools are highly successful academically, it is expected that Non- Unity Schools will see, emulate and put to practice so that they can equally become great achievers.

5.3.9 The influence of Leadership components on School Improvement

On the side of school Improvement, a mean of 3.8543 with a t value of 3.801, while the non-unity schools are having a mean of 3.7216 with a t value of 3.970 this clearly shows that the unity schools in Nigeria are having better academic performance than the non-unity schools, and at the level of 1%, there is significant difference since the result is showing 0.00 which implies that the alternative hypothesis is accepted on the basis that the result is above 1% significance.

From these observations and the fact that the model was found to be significant, there is enough evidence to accept the alternative hypothesis. This provided the solution to the research question which sought to determine the influence of unity school's achievement to that of non-unity school. The researches results in this study agrees with the ideas of some scholars like (Adegbesan, 2013) were he was found saying that the principal and his Leadership Style is the source of success in secondary school administration, because it is highly dependent on the School Manager to realize the specified aims or intentions, as it all depends on him as the overseer. Principals as leaders are supposed to be at the forefront when confronted with difficulties in their schools so that the School can continue to work for excellence because they are entrusted with the mandate to head the School (Yahiya,

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2005). In Management and Managerial skills of the academic institution, the professional development of tutors are normally tempered with by Leaders of their Schools. And this made some Scholars like (Syariffah, 2010 & Adegbesan, 2013) to report the result of their investigation by stating that where government fail satisfying the desires of the teachers, they will engage in private practice (PP) instead of reading and getting the lesson plan prepared for the next lesson, believing that they function without necessary support.

Literature also suggested that some school principals also may not perform their duties of implementing their managerial roles in their individual academic institutions. In a related issue (Mojgan, 2012) reported that principals as Transformational Leaders can reassure motivation, tolerance and enable situations and issues that can bring about creative environment for copy technology in order to encourage tutors to use technical-know-how in their academic engagements. The learner's and tutor's level of output in an academic institution is regulated by how operative the school manager's managerial roles and managerial abilities are (Adegbesan, 2013).

For Research Question 3, nine hypotheses were formulated to examine if there is a significant difference in school type and gender in respect of Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement Both hypotheses were supported. Hypothesis III tested the relationships between Leadership Styles behaviors, School Environment and School's Improvement with demographic dimensions (Gender, Age and School type) two dependent variables (School Environment Y1 and School Improvement y2) were involved in the test along with the Leadership Styles of the principals. Though the relationship were found to be significant but there were variability in the relationships between the Leadership Styles bordering on Laissez

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Faire attitude based on failure to interfere until problems become serious, avoiding getting involved when important issues arise, absent when needed, seeking differing perspectives when solving problems, instilling pride in others for being associated and waiting for things to go wrong before taking action and the School Improvement in one hand and on the other the School Environment.

The Leadership Styles of failure to interfere until problems become serious and avoiding getting involved when important issues arise were positively and significantly correlated with School Improvement but not with School Environment. This trend was found to continue with Leadership Styles of being absent when needed and seeking differing perspectives when solving problems.

The styles of instilling pride in others for being associated and discussing in specific terms with respect to who is responsible for achieving performance targets were found to be positively and significantly correlated with the School Improvement but not with School Environment. But generally speaking, the demographic issues discussed in this study base on school type, gender and status reflects that more and more care had been encouraged in the areas of demography and change Leadership style since it has been systematically proven that change management (as the most projecting management model) improved managerial performance and outcomes (Ozaralli, 2003). This inquisitiveness was determined by gender reorganization feminist theories that stressed on the insight, consistency and difference between men and women in the society (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). The control of manhood supported domination in the ground of educational management for a long period of time, during which women were preoccupied in School Management (Larusdottir 2007). This might have harsh outcomes in School Management. On the other hand,

there has been an increase in the number of women in management positions in academic institutions and in other establishments (Kark, 2004).

Approximately, previous academic investigation of the link between Leadership and Gender in the system of academic institutions discovered men as more impressive and rigid while women were more co-operative and balanced (Limerick & Anderson, 1999; Tacey, 1997). Nevertheless, some investigations have shown high-level pessimism regarding rigid managerial abilities of Male School Leaders (Grogan, 2000; Coleman, 1998). Collard (2001) actually recognized in his investigation that Gender dissimilarities in School Leadership were not reliable across School levels. At the primary level, Female Principals were found to be more subtle to the needs and problems of their teachers and students, either as individuals or as in groups (Collard, 2001). Unfolding gender feeling from this point of view, one would accept that Female School Leaders were more sensible in change pertaining to their Leadership Style than their Male associates.

On the other round, Male School Leaders in Secondary Schools were found to be more complex to the needs of teachers and students than their Female colleagues (Collard, 2001). Henceforth it would mean that Transformational Leadership style at the Secondary School level was more distinct in Schools where men were School Leaders than in Schools where women were at the helm of affairs.

Collard (2001) viewed relationship between Gender and Leadership as being at the mercy of numerous issues, such as School site, type of School (co-educational or single sex, private, and church or Government School) and the socioeconomic nature of the place of school site. This would mean no conclusive evidence of one

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direction-finding statement on the link between Gender and Leadership Styles of Managers. This is coherent with the views of (Kark, 2004) that the answer to the question is miscellaneous irrespective of the fact that display of change Leadership Abilities have a tendency to back female managers, Some findings have highlighted on the feminist viewpoints of the men's supremacy in managerial ranks in most establishments (Kart, 2004).

It would be of attention to remark that (Carless, 1998) discovered from the point of view of wards, that there were no gender dissimilarities in change management abilities of institutional Managers. It would also be of inquisitiveness to know what the significances of this research would show concerning the association between Gender and School Leaders' understandings of their talent to use Transformational Leadership talents in the Nigerian School system.

Research Question 4, two hypotheses were formulated to examine if there is a significant correlation between Leadership Style and School Improvement and then School Environment and School Improvement. All were found to be positively correlated. Hypothesis 10 and 11 test the extent of relationship between Leadership Styles, School Environment and the outcome variables of School Improvement and Students' Academic performance.

The result of the test revealed positive and significant relationship between Leadership Style, School Environment and outcome variables of School Achievement. Though School Environment was found to be positively correlated with the School Improvement but it negatively correlated with students' academic performance were negatively correlated. The relationship between School

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Improvement and Students' Academic performance was not significant. The result here agrees with the following scholars that reported Leadership Styles as assist in no small measure in creating a conducive working Environment in School that encourages and enhance performance of teachers and other stakeholders and hence, School Achievement is attained (Yahiya, 2005). Principals are supposed to create ways that can improve the skills and professionalism of teaching staff in their schools. This definitely would include making a School Environment that is pleasant enough for learning and provision of counselling for teachers on how to bring about effective teaching models such as team teaching and the moving class system (Mulyasa, 2009).

DeVita, M. C, (2004) where it was observed that effective Leadership Style is distinctive to improving learning, especially when it is joined with the efforts of a good teacher and sound Academic Environment. The finding here is consistent with the report of Berg & Karlsen, (2007) who observed that Principals still experience difficulties concerning Leadership in areas of Leadership qualities. It was also agreed by (Blumer, 1971) that the position of a School Leader in our School system is vital because it is his or her contribution to the subordinate (teachers) that can bring about steady School Achievement in our institutions.

Principals pre-empt the manner of joint action in their Schools by making strong indications to other (stake holders) as to the prime or envisioned styles. The Principal is seen and considered as the pivot of their Schools. This is because their Leadership Styles assist in no small measure in creating a conducive working Environment in School that encourages and enhance performance of teachers and other stakeholders and hence, School Improvement is attained (Yahya, 2005).

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Another scholar by name (Mulyasa, 2009) reported that Principals are supposed to create ways of improving the skills and professional growth of teachers in their Schools, which definitely would include making a School Environment that is pleasant enough for learning and provision of counselling for teachers on how to bring about operational teaching paradigms such as collaborative teaching and the moving class structure.

Research question 5 tested two hypothesis also were the researcher tried to see weather Leadership Style can significantly Influence School Improvement and also tested weather School Environment can significantly Influence School Improvement. All were observed to have the capability of influencing each other positively and significantly. Hypothesis V tested the influence of Leadership Styles on School Environment and School Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools.

The aggregate mean scores for all the Leadership traits was computed here and used as a single variable in the test of the relationship with School Environment and the outcome variables of School Improvement and Students' Academic Performance in the terminal examinations. The result revealed that the variables were significantly correlated between Leadership Styles, School Environment and School Improvement.

5.4   Implication of Finding

Going by the results of these research findings, there is a tremendous impact and influence observed of leadership styles on school environment that causes the needed School Improvement and Student Academic Performance in Nigerian Unity Schools. It therefore provides an avenue for addressing the problem of poor academic

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performance among students in Secondary Schools across the Federal Republic of Nigerian. It point out among others that the Leadership Styles of Principals should also be point of focus when looking for solution on improving Academic Performance of Students in the Secondary Schools along other measures. The finding is therefore important to education stakeholders in the country and to the professional academicians interested in investigating factors for improving performances among Students in Secondary Schools.

Based on the findings in this study, the researcher would want to recommend as follows: For an effective Environment and viable School Improvement outcome to actualize in the Unity Schools, there is the need for a continuous evaluation of Leadership Styles of Principals. School Leaders should critically use their Leadership Styles and Teachers performance in measuring School Improvement and the performances of their Students on periodical basis for actual adjustment towards positive outcome.

For the central goals and Academic Performance of the School to be achieved, the School Managers should always harmonize their Style of Leadership with the needs of their Students. Selection of a School Manager should be measured from the performance of a staff on the basis of his Style of Leadership, particular if he had been a staff of the institution for quite sometimes. On periodical basis, general overhaul of School Manager's managerial abilities should be evaluated to be measured through Students' Academic Performance.

This study was carried out among Unity Schools in Nigeria. A similar study could be carried out in private and public Secondary Schools across the country.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

In summation, this research can be of importance to contemporary literature by filling the existing gap in knowledge through investigating the relationship between each variable by using the sample of schools under study to improve education in the rural or underprivileged areas in Nigeria. The study will equally have significant contribution in terms of theoretical development and improvement of standard of education in our various schools.

In this research, quantitative investigation will prove evidentially that, to date, the influence of distributive leadership dimensions (autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire) on student achievement have not been empirically supported (Elmore, 2003). On this note, the support of the transformational leader is needed at this juncture; such leadership will help with an improved system of administration that is supplementary in nature because a transformational leader is concerned with school development Liontos, (1992).

Logically, when the model or the very least, the findings of this research is used to improve the standard of education in the country with the government's commitment to improve the principal's style of leadership, welfare of teachers salary-wise, provides good educational facilities, provide scholarship to deserving students and budget greatly for education, the standard of education shall improve in no small measure. In the present dispensation, investigating into various schools level-dimensions in the transformational leadership is of immense importance.

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5.4.2 Educational and Policy Implications

Exclusively, the significance of these findings would be significant to:

The Nigerian Federal Ministry of Education. Whenever the federal ministry is in need of any structural change in policy making and implementation, this research findings can be of use to address problems of schools funding, equipping and administration. This will keep the schools that are performing intact and those that are not performing will definitely improve because of the government use of policies through consulting this research work;

The school principals. This study will be very useful for aspiring principals who have the needs and aspiration to develop their schools. Whenever they refer to this study, they will fast and reliable reference to implement the appropriate leadership styles to succeed;

The school teachers. School teachers will also find this study of significance because the study and its findings will facilitate better understanding that they are one of the primary stakeholders and a team player to move the school forward;

The students. This study will be able to highlight areas of students' lapses, and hence, the students will find it much easier to improve their performance in schools. Consequently this may also contribute their quota in schools achievement;

The general public. Last but not least, the society stands the chance to benefit immensely from this study because at the end of everything, with better school

leadership, and well supported teachers, students being the recipient of educational services (i.e. learning opportunities) are going to be better trained. In turned, they (the students) will become potential working class that contributes to the labour force of our society.

5.5   Limitations

Despite the fact that there are many variables that can be used to measure school environment and school improvement, the present study was limited to the use of transformational leadership. The framework of this research provided a relationship between variables, but did not provide a deep understanding of the cause and effect of such relationship. And again the study only uses perceived responses from teachers regarding the leadership of principals which is common in social science research, but the response of these teachers may not actually be a measurement of reality. This is because there may the tendency of been bias and intentional shortcomings in the assessment of their schools.

Finally the study was limited to: certain area and circumstance which includes: The Unity and Non-unity Schools Environment in the North Western part of Nigeria that all participants were employed. In this investigation, open-ended questions were avoided.

5.6   Suggestions for Further Research

This study was carried out among Unity and non-unity Schools in Nigeria. A similar study could be carried out in mixed Secondary Schools (Boys and Girls) across the country. To confound the limitations above, this study recommends that future studies be conducted on other variables such as learning styles, students' academic

performance, school curriculum and core-curriculum and above all, university education in Nigerian setting. Additionally, there is the need for future empirical studies on the influence of Leadership style and school environment towards school improvement in Nigerian unity and non-unity schools generally that could cover the six geo-political zone for the sake of generalization.

This study is cross - sectional in nature, therefore, future studies should consider collecting data over a long period of time, longitudinal in nature in order to have ample time for data collection. Future studies should investigate in more detail the level of influence and nature of the relationship considering the cause and effect of relationship of principal's performance. The present study uses teachers to be perceived respondents; future studies should consider the use of principals themselves.

This study uses quantitative research design; future research may use a mixed/triangulation design. For instance, qualitative interview to be carried with a participant may give a better understanding of the relationship between the construct that were used for the study.

The present study suggests a comparative study between unity school and non-unity schools in Nigeria. Future studies may recommend the use of urban and rural areas schools so as to be able to asses' areas of strength and weaknesses. Finally, this study recommends the use of the smart partial least square method (PLS) and structural equation modelling (SEM) for data analysis as against the SPSS ver 20

5.7   Conclusions

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that, the first research objectives is to examine the level of transformational leadership, school environment and school improvement in Nigerian Unity and Nom-unity schools. The results of multiple regression analysis show that the level of the three variables is high enough to support proper school improvement.

As presented in Table 5.1, the results of the research generally accepted the alternative hypothesis and have answered the research questions. It is fully observed that Leadership Styles has significantly impacted on the Academic Performance and Settings in Nigerian Unity Schools. There is equally a direct and significant influence on the levels of School Environment and School Improvement of Unity Schools on Non-Unity Schools in Nigeria. Demographic dimension (Gender, Age, and Academic level) has significant influence on School Environment and Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools. Leadership Style have significantly related with the Academic setting and Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools.

Leadership Style has significantly influenced the outcome variables of School Environment and Improvement in Nigerian Unity Schools. But Some aspect of Leadership Styles like carelessness on problems facing the School, lack of participation on big issues facing the School, absenteeism, mixing-up issues when attending to problems, instilling pride in others for being associated and carelessness on issues and inattention have no significant influence on School Improvement outcome variables.

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Appendix A   QUESTIONER AFTER FACTOR ANALYSIS

THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES TOWARDS SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT IN NIGERIAN UNITY SCHOOLS

This survey is conducted as part of the PhD thesis requirement for the Doctor of philosophy programme at Universiti Utara Malaysia. The general objective of this study is to examine the influence of leadership styles towards school environment and school achievement in Nigerian unity schools. This study will take fifteen minutes of your valuable time, and your   participation in this survey is voluntary. All information provided will be held in strict confidence and used for evaluation purposes only.

Complete This Form Only If You Are Working In One Of The Federal Government Colleges In Nigeria (Unity Schools).

Yours Sincerely

KHALIL YUSUF UTHMAN (S. 95412)
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SECTION A

1. Gender

Male ◯

Female ◯

2. Nationality

_____

3. Age

20 – 30 ◯

31 – 40 ◯

41 – 50 ◯

51 – 60 ◯

61 – Above ◯

4. Educational level

Secondary ◯

Degree ◯

Masters ◯

PhD ◯

5. Department

(Please specify) _____

6. How long have you been working in FGC in Nigeria _____

7. Are you

Part time ◯

Full ◯

SECTION B

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of following statement. Circle a number from 1 to 5 that best represents your level of agreement with the statement.

Please Circle Only One (1) Number or Answer to Described Your Opinion

{1} = Strongly Disagree

{2} = Disagree

{3) = Neutral {4} = Agree {5} = Strongly Agree

1	My principal provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	1 2 3 4 5
2	My principal re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	1 2 3 4 5
3	My principal fail to interfere until problems become serious.	1 2 3 4 5
4	My principal focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	1 2 3 4 5
5	My principal avoid getting involved when important issues arise.	1 2 3 4 5
6	My principal talk about my most important values and beliefs.	1 2 3 4 5

7	My principal is absent when needed.	1 2 3 4 5
8	My principal seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	1 2 3 4 5
9	My principal talk optimistically about the future.	1 2 3 4 5
10	My principal instil pride in others for being associated with me.	1 2 3 4 5
11	My principal discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	1 2 3 4 5
12	My principal wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	1 2 3 4 5

SECTION C

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

13	There are many disruptive, difficult students in the school.	1 2 3 4 5
14	I seldom receive encouragement from colleagues.	1 2 3 4 5
15	Teachers frequently discuss teaching methods and strategies with each other.	1 2 3 4 5
16	I am often supervised to ensure that I follow directions correctly.	1 2 3 4 5
17	Decisions about the running of the school are usually made by the principal or a small group of teachers.	1 2 3 4 5
18	It is very difficult to change anything in this school.	1 2 3 4 5
19	There is constant pressure to keep working.	1 2 3 4 5
20	Most students are helpful and cooperative to teachers.	1 2 3 4 5
21	I feel accepted by other teachers.	1 2 3 4 5
22	Teachers avoid talking with each other about teaching and learning.	1 2 3 4 5
23	I am not expected to conform to a particular teaching style.	1 2 3 4 5
24	I have to refer even small matters to a senior member of staff for a final answer.	1 2 3 4 5
25	Teachers are encouraged to be innovative in this school.	1 2 3 4 5
26	The supply of equipment and resources is inadequate.	1 2 3 4 5

SE4CTION D

SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

Your answer to the following statements will assist us in understanding what is like to teach in unity schools and the zone you are posted.

27 Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas,   1 2 3 4 5

28 You can count on most teachers to help out anywhere, anytime-even though it may not be part of their official assignments.   1 2 3 4 5

29 There is a great deal of cooperating among teachers at this school.   1 2 3 4 5

30 Teachers maintain high standards at this school.   1 2 3 4 5

31 This school seems like a big family, everyone is so close and cordial.   1 2 3 4 5

32 In this school we solve problems; we don't just talk about them.   1 2 3 4 5

33 My job provides me continuing professional stimulation and growth.   1 2 3 4 5

34 In this school I am encouraged to experiment with my teaching.   1 2 3 4 5

THANK YOU

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Appendix B   SPSS RESULTS FOR PILOT ST
Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
	Valid	10	100.0
Cases	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	10	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.814	.882	6

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Environment	Leadership	ethical	political	network	teacher
Environment	1.000	.564	.558	.519	.813	.537
Leadership	.564	1.000	.809	.210	.471	.523
Ethical	.558	.809	1.000	.437	.448	.766
Political	.519	.210	.437	1.000	.551	.488
Network	.813	.471	.448	.551	1.000	.610
Teacher	.537	.523	.766	.488	.610	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Environment	142.5000	209.389	.778	.730	.824
Leadership	207.6000	452.489	.612	.774	.797
Ethical	201.0000	460.222	.706	.870	.796
Political	212.3000	445.344	.561	.472	.798
Network	203.4000	355.378	.805	.781	.735
Teacher	189.2000	397.067	.677	.747	.769

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
231.2000	536.844	23.16990	6

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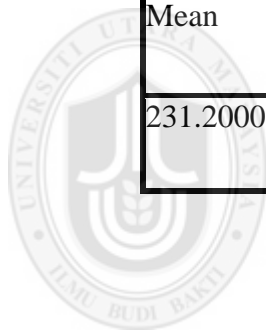
Appendix C   QUESTIONER BEFORE FACTOR ANALYSIS

THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES TOWARDS SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT IN NIGERIAN UNITY SCHOOLS

This survey is conducted as part of the PhD thesis requirement for the Doctor of philosophy programme at Universiti Utara Malaysia. The general objective of this study is to examine the influence of leadership styles towards school environment and school achievement in Nigerian unity schools. This study will take fifteen minutes of your valuable time, and your   participation in this survey is voluntary. All information provided will be held in strict confidence and used for evaluation purposes only.

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SECTION A

3. Gender

Male ◯

Female ◯

4. Nationality

_____

3. Age

20 – 30 ◯

31 – 40 ◯

41 – 50 ◯

51 – 60 ◯

61 – Above ◯

6. Educational level

Secondary ◯

Degree ◯

Masters ◯

PhD ◯

7. Department

(Please specify) _____

6. How long have you been working in FGC in Nigeria _____

7. Are you

Part time ◯

Full ◯

SECTION B

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of following statement. Circle a number from 1 to 5 that best represents your level of agreement with the statement.

Please Circle Only One (1) Number or Answer to Described Your Opinion

{1} = Strongly Disagree

{2} = Disagree

{3) = Neutral {4} = Agree {5} = Strongly Agree

1		My principal provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
2		My principal re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5
3		My principal fails to interfere until problems become serious.	1	2	3	4	5
4		My principal focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	1	2	3	4	5
5		My principal avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	1	2	3	4	5
6		My principal talks about my most important values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
7		My principal is absent when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
8		My principal seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5
9		My principal talks optimistically about the future.	1	2	3	4	5
10		My principal instills pride in others for being associated with me.	1	2	3	4	5

11			My principal discuss in specific terms on who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	1	2	3	4	5
12			My principal wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	1	2	3	4	5
13			My principal talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5
14			My principal specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
15			My principal spends time teaching and coaching.	1	2	3	4	5
16			My principal make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieve.	1	2	3	4	5
17			My principal show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	1	2	3	4	5
18			My principal go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
19			My principal treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
20			My principal demonstrates that problems must become chronic before he takes action.	1	2	3	4	5
21			My principal act in ways that build others' respect for me.	1	2	3	4	5
22			My principal concentrates his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.	1	2	3	4	5
23			My principal considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
24			My principal keeps track of all mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
25			My principal display a sense of power and confidence,	1	2	3	4	5
26			My principal articulates a compelling vision of the future.	1	2	3	4	5
27			My principal directs his attention toward failures to meet standards.	1	2	3	4	5

28			My principal avoid making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
29			My principal considers an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	1	2	3	4	5
30			My principal get others to look at problems from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5
31			My principal helps others to develop their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5
32			My principal suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
33			My principal delay responding to urgent operations.	1	2	3	4	5
34			My principal emphasized the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5
35			My principal express satisfaction when others meet expectations	1	2	3	4	5
36			My principal express confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5
37			My principal is effective in meeting others job-related needs	1	2	3	4	5
38			My principal use methods of leadership that is satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
39			My principal gets others to do more than they expected to do.	1	2	3	4	5
40			My principal is effective in representing others to higher authority.	1	2	3	4	5
41			My principal work with others in a satisfactory way.	1	2	3	4	5
42			My principal heighten others desire to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
43			My principal is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
44			My principal increases others' willingness to try harder.	1	2	3	4	5
45			My principal needs a group that is effective.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

46	**There are many disruptive, difficult students in the school.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
47	I seldom receive encouragement from colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
48	Teachers frequently discuss teaching methods and strategies with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I am often supervised to ensure that I follow directions correctly.	1	2	3	4	5
50	Decisions about the running of the school are usually made by the principal, or a small group of teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
51	It is very difficult to change anything in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
52	It is very difficult to change anything in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
53	There is constant pressure to keep working.	1	2	3	4	5
54	Most students are helpful and cooperative to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
55	I feel accepted by other teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
56	Teachers avoid talking with each other about teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
57	I am not expected to conform to a particular teaching style.	1	2	3	4	5
58	I have to refer even small matters to a senior member of staff for a final answer.	1	2	3	4	5
59	Teachers are encouraged to be innovative in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
60	The supply of equipment and resources is inadequate.	1	2	3	4	5
61	Teachers have to work long hours to complete their entire task.	1	2	3	4	5
62	Most students are pleasant and friendly to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
63	I am ignored by other teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
64	Professional matters are seldom discussed during staff meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
65	It is considered very important that I closely follow syllabuses and lesson plans.	1	2	3	4	5

66	Action can usually be taken without gaining the approval of the subject department head or a senior member of staff.	1	2	3	4	5
67	There is a great deal of resistance to proposals for curriculum change	1	2	3	4	5
68	Video equipment, tapes and films are readily available and accessible.	1	2	3	4	5
69	Teachers don't have to work very hard in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
70	There are many noisy, badly-behaved students.	1	2	3	4	5
71	I feel that I could rely on my colleagues for assistance if I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
72	Many teachers attend in-service and other professional development courses.	1	2	3	4	5
73	There are few rules and regulations that I am expected to follow.	1	2	3	4	5
74	Teachers are frequently asked to participate in decisions concerning administrative policies and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
75	Most teachers like the idea of change.	1	2	3	4	5
76	Adequate duplicating facilities and services are available to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
77	There is no time for teachers to relax.	1	2	3	4	5
78	Students get along well with teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
79	My colleagues seldom take notice of my professional views and opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
80	Teachers show little interest in what is happening in other schools.	1	2	3	4	5
81	I am allowed to do almost everything as I please in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
82	I am encouraged to make decisions without reference to a senior member of staff.	1	2	3	4	5
83	New courses or curriculum materials are seldom implemented in the school.	1	2	3	4	5

84	Tape recorders and cassettes are seldom available when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
85	You can take it easy and still get the work done.	1	2	3	4	5
86	Most students are well-mannered and respectful to the school staff.	1	2	3	4	5
87	I feel that I have many friends among my colleagues at this school.	1	2	3	4	5
88	Teachers are keen to learn from their colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
89	My classes are expected to use prescribed textbooks and prescribed resource material	1	2	3	4	5
90	I must ask my subject department head or senior member of staff before I do most things.	1	2	3	4	5
91	There is much experimentation with different teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5
92	Facilities are inadequate for catering for variety of classroom activates and learning groups of different sizes.	1	2	3	4	5
93	Seldom are there deadlines to be met	1	2	3	4	5
94	Very strict discipline is needed to control many of the students.	1	2	3	4	5
95	I often feel lonely and left out of things in the staffroom.	1	2	3	4	5
96	Teachers show considerable interest in the professional activities of their colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
97	I am expected to maintain very strict control in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
98	I have very little say in the running of the school.					5
99	New and different ideas are always being tried out in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
100	Projectors for filmstrips, transparencies and films are usually available when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
101	It is hard to keep up with your work load.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

Your answer to the following statements will assist this research in understanding what is like to teach in unity schools and the zone you are posted.

		1	2	3	4	5
102	**Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas,**	1	2	3	4	5
103	You can count on most teachers to help out anywhere, anytime even though it may not be part of their official assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
104	There is a great deal of cooperation among teachers at this school.	1	2	3	4	5
105	Teachers maintain high standards at this school.	1	2	3	4	5
106	This school seems like a big family. Everyone is so close and cordial.	1	2	3	4	5
107	In this school we solve problems; we don't just talk about them.	1	2	3	4	5
108	My job provides me continuing professional stimulation and growth.	1	2	3	4	5
109	In this school I am encouraged to experiment with my teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
110	The principal is interested in innovation and new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
111	I can get good advice from other teachers in this school when I have a teaching problem.	1	2	3	4	5
112	If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.	1	2	3	4	5
113	I would accept almost any class or school assignment in order to keep working for the zone.	1	2	3	4	5
114	It will take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this zone.	1	2	3	4	5
115	I feel that this zone inspires the very best in the job performance of its teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
116	Often I find it difficult to agree with this zone's policies on important matters relating to its teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
117	I am proud to tell others that I work for this zone.	1	2	3	4	5
118	The zone is a source of considerable dissatisfaction with my teaching job.	1	2	3	4	5

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Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with these statements regarding your present teaching job generally.

119	At this school, stress and disappointment take the joy out of teaching.	1 2 3 4 5
120	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is expected of teachers.	1 2 3 4 5
121	If I could get a higher paying job, I'd leave teaching.	1 2 3 4 5
122	In general, I really enjoy my students.	1 2 3 4 5
123	I don't seem to have as much enthusiasm now as I did when I began teaching.	1 2 3 4 5
124	I fell little loyalty to the teaching profession.	1 2 3 4 5

Regarding your classroom teaching, indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

125	I adjust assignments to fit the learning styles of individual students.	1 2 3 4 5
126	How confident are you that…Student in this school will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO reading test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
127	How confident are you that…Students in this school will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO mathematics test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
128	How confident are you that…students in this school will improve their scores on SSCE/NECO writing test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
129	How confident are you that….minority students in this school will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO reading test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
130	How confident are you that…. minority students in this school will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO mathematics test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
131	How confident are you that ….minority students in this school will improve their scores on the SSCE/NECO writing test this year?	1 2 3 4 5
132	How confident are you that…. student in this school will improve	1 2 3 4 5

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	their school attendance rates this year?					
133	How confident are you that…students in this school will have fewer suspensions than they did last year.	1	2	3	4	5
134	How confident are you that…. students will report that they feel safe in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
135	How confident are you that…students in this school will report being more satisfied with this school than they were last year?	1	2	3	4	5
136	How confident are you that…. parents will report being more satisfied with this school than they were last year?	1	2	3	4	5
137	How confident are you that…students with disabilities *assigned to regulate classes* will improve their academic performance this year?	1	2	3	4	5
138	How confident are you that…student with disabilities *assigned to regulate classes* will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO reading test this year?	1	2	3	4	5
139	How confident are you that….student with disabilities *assigned to regulate classes* will improve their percentile ranking on the SSCE/NECO mathematics test this year?	1	2	3	4	5
140	How confident are you that…students with disabilities *assigned to regulate classes* will improve their scores on SSCE/NECO writing test this year?	1	2	3	4	5

Using the scale provided, please indicate how much say or influence you have on each of the following areas.

141	**How much say do you have in policy making at your school?**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
142	How much say do you have in how you teach?	1	2	3	4	5
143	How much say do you have in deciding *what* you teach?	1	2	3	4	5
144	How much say do you have in team or department decisions?	1	2	3	4	5
145	How much can you influence the principal's decisions?	1	2	3	4	5
146	How much can you influence the discipline policies at your school?	1	2	3	4	5
147	How much say do you have about the form and content of in-service programs?	1	2	3	4	5
148	How much can you influence your student's motivation to learn?	1	2	3	4	5

149	How much can you influence the grading policy at your school?	1 2 3 4 5
150	How much can you influence *how* your colleagues teach?	1 2 3 4 5
151	How much can your colleagues influence *how you* teach?	1 2 3 4 5
152	How much can your colleagues influence *what to* teach?	1 2 3 4 5

The following questions ask about the STUDENTS YOU ARE TEACHING THIS YEAR using the scale provided, please indicate your degree of confidence that your students will improve their performance on various indicators:

153	**How confident is that…. student you teach will improve their school attendance rate this year?**	**1 2 3 4 5**
154	How confident are you that…. students you teach will have fewer suspensions than they did last year?	1 2 3 4 5
155	How confident are you that…student you teach will report being more satisfied with this school than they have been in the last two years?	1 2 3 4 5

THANK YOU

Appendix D   SPSS RESULTS USED FOR DATA ANALYSIS

Table 1.1: world Bank ranking on financing education

S/N	Country	Percentage Allocation	Position
1	Ghana	31 %	1st
2	Cote d'Ivoire	30 %	2nd
3	Uganda	27 %	3rd
4	Mexico	26.4 %	4th
5	South Africa	25.8 %	5th
6	Swaziland	24.6 %	6th
7	Mexico	24.3 %	7th
8	Kenya	23 %	8th
9	United Arab Emirate	22.5 %	9th
10	Botswana	19 %	10th
11	Iran	17.7 %	11th
12	United States of America	17.1 %	12th
13	Tunisia	17 %	13th
14	Lesotho	17 %	14th
15	Burkina Faso	16.8 %	15th
16	Norway	16.2 %	16th
17	Columbia	15.6 %	17th
18	Nicaragua	15 %	18th
19	India	12.7 %	19th
20	Nigeria	8.4 %	20th

Source: World Bank, 2012

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MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ACHIEVEMENT	3.8127	.38727	559
LEADERSHIP	3.7456	.40440	559
ENVIRONMENT	3.7814	.40798	559

Correlations

		ACHIEVEMENT	LEADERSHIP	ENVIRONMENT
Pearson Correlation	ACHIEVEMENT	1.000	.953	.937
	LEADERSHIP	.953	1.000	.955
	ENVIRONMENT	.937	.955	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ACHIEVEMENT	.	.000	.000
	LEADERSHIP	.000	.	.000
	ENVIRONMENT	.000	.000	.
N	ACHIEVEMENT	559	559	559
	LEADERSHIP	559	559	559
	ENVIRONMENT	559	559	559

Variables Entered/Removed

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	ENVIRONMENT, LEADERSHIP[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.957[a]	.916	.916	.11246	.916	3030.670	2	556	.000	1.787

a. Predictors: (Constant), ENVIRONMENT, LEADERSHIP

b. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	76.656	2	38.328	3030.670	.000[b]
	Residual	7.032	556	.013		
	Total	83.687	558			

a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

b. Predictors: (Constant), ENVIRONMENT, LEADERSHIP

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.344	.045		7.677	.000	.256	.433					
	LEADERSHIP	.626	.040	.654	15.828	.000	.548	.704	.953	.557	.195	.089	11.292
	ENVIRONMENT	.297	.039	.313	7.574	.000	.220	.374	.937	.306	.093	.089	11.292

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a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Collinearity Diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	LEADERSHIP	ENVIRONMENT
1	1	2.992	1.000	.00	.00	.00
	2	.008	19.961	1.00	.02	.02
	3	.001	75.799	.00	.98	.98

a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	ACHIEVEMENT	Predicted Value	Residual
514	-4.721	3.65	4.1790	-.53089
515	-3.897	3.28	3.7160	-.43822
539	-3.419	3.48	3.8660	-.38449
544	-3.018	3.57	3.9135	-.33940
548	4.273	4.15	3.6676	.48051
550	-3.541	3.74	4.1390	-.39821
559	4.393	3.96	3.4689	.49406

a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.9225	4.5038	3.8127	.37064	559
Std. Predicted Value	-2.402	1.865	.000	1.000	559
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.005	.023	.008	.003	559
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.9224	4.5038	3.8128	.37065	559
Residual	-.53089	.49406	.00000	.11226	559
Std. Residual	-4.721	4.393	.000	.998	559
Stud. Residual	-4.780	4.484	.000	1.002	559
Deleted Residual	-.54419	.51462	-.00003	.11316	559
Stud. Deleted Residual	-4.877	4.563	.000	1.006	559
Mahal. Distance	.000	22.258	1.996	2.348	559
Cook's Distance	.000	.279	.003	.016	559
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.040	.004	.004	559

a. Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Histogram

Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Mean = -4.00E-14
Std. Dev. = 0.998
N = 559
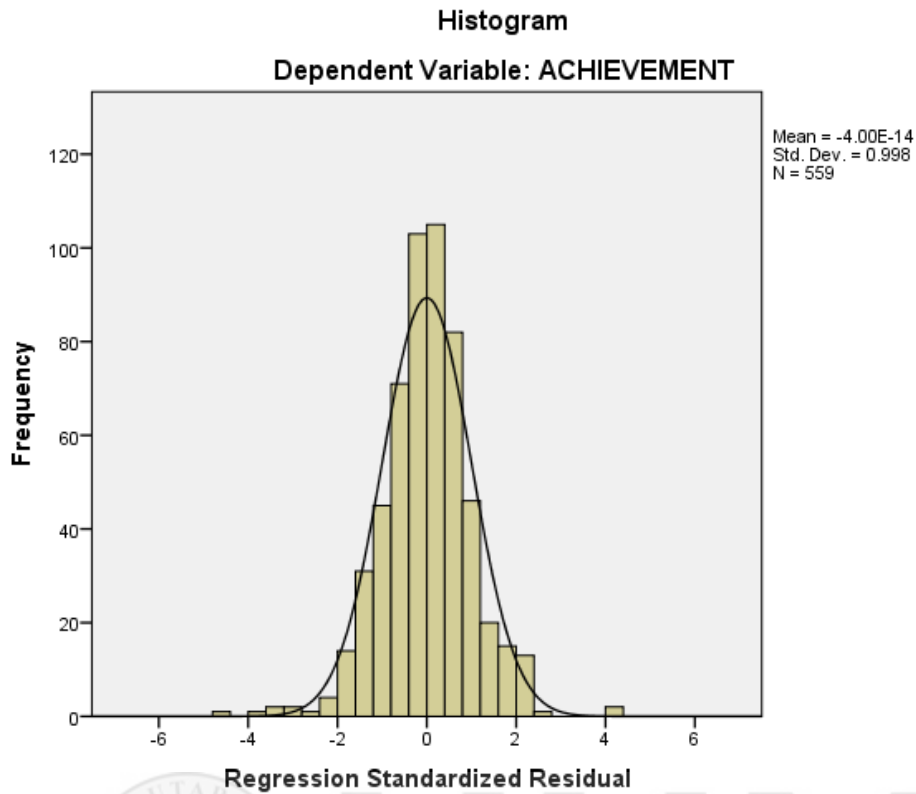
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT
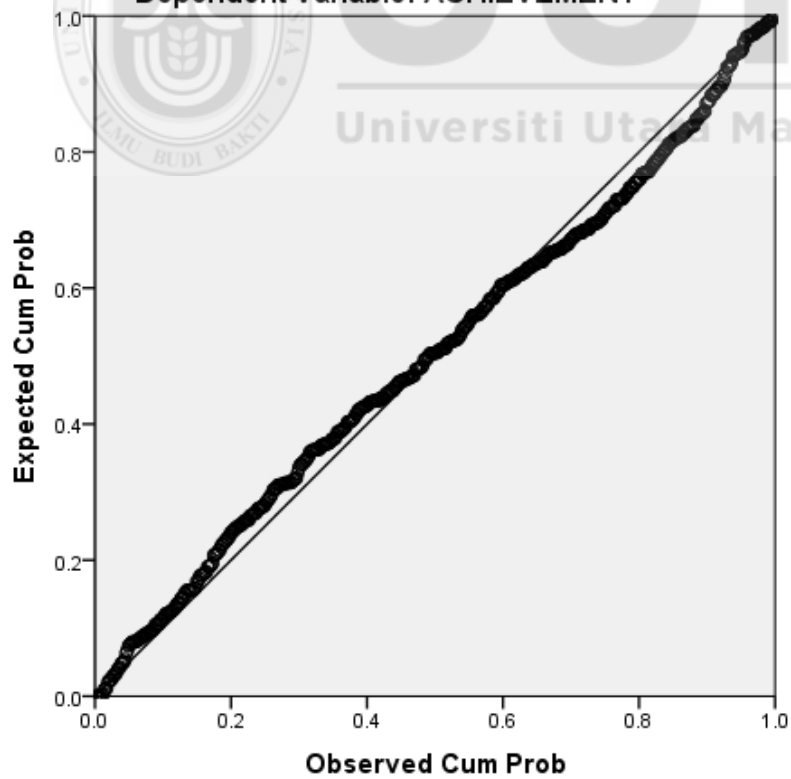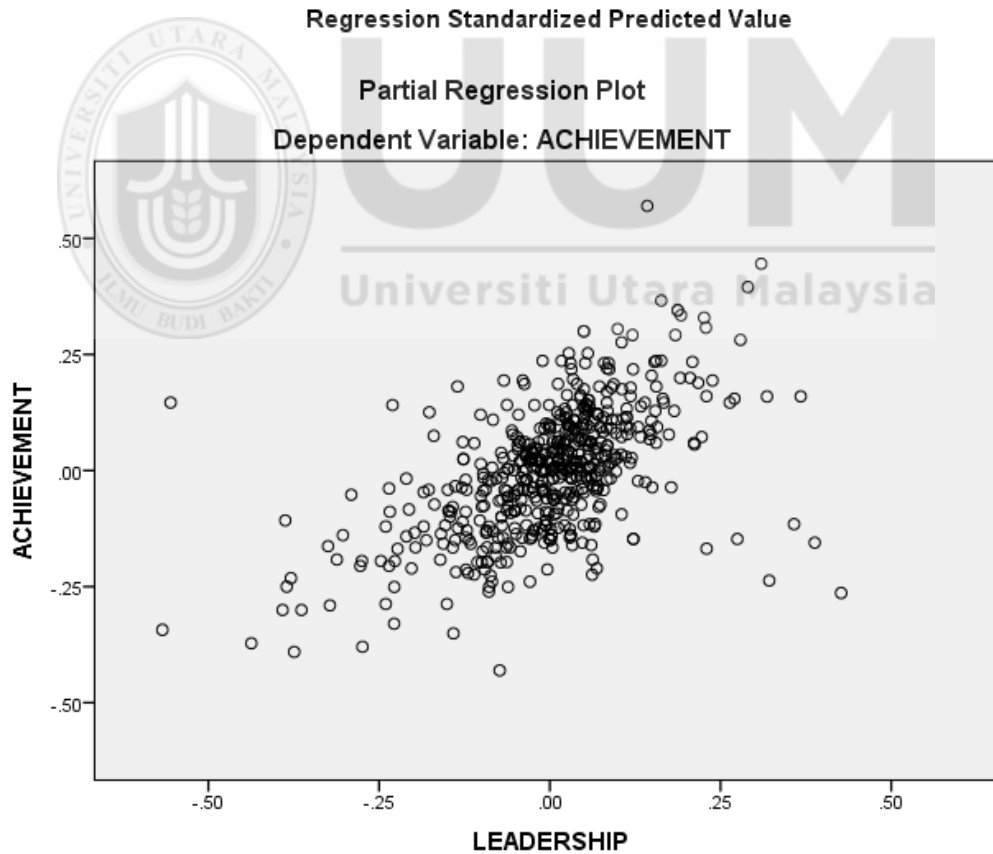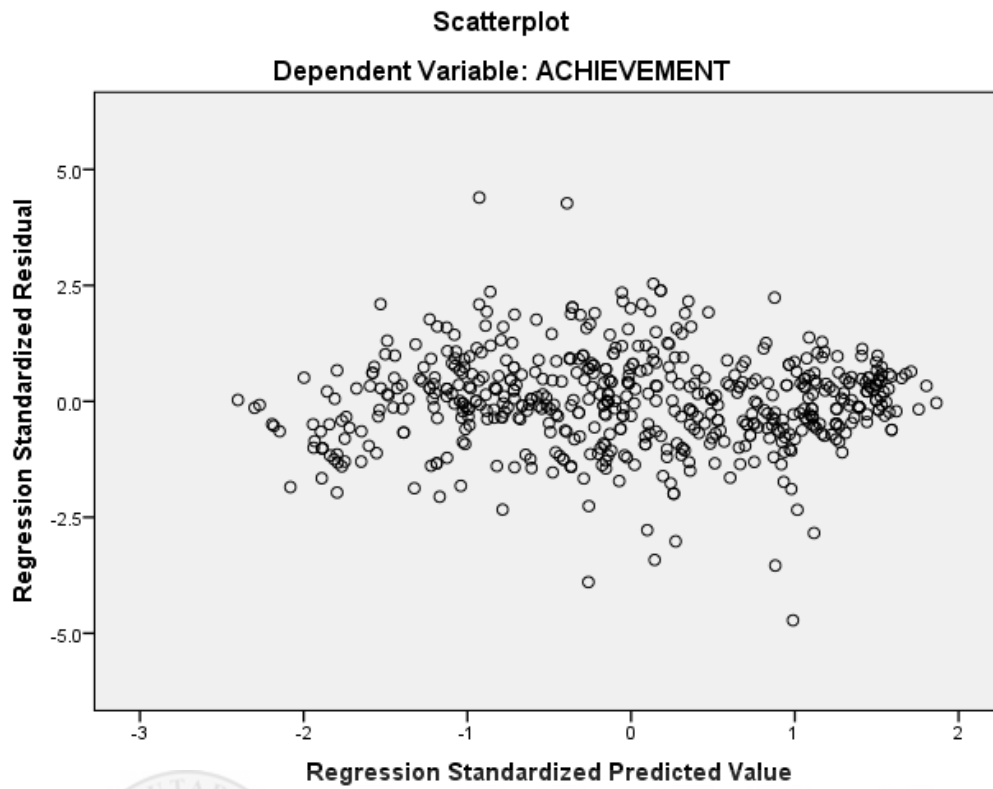
Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT
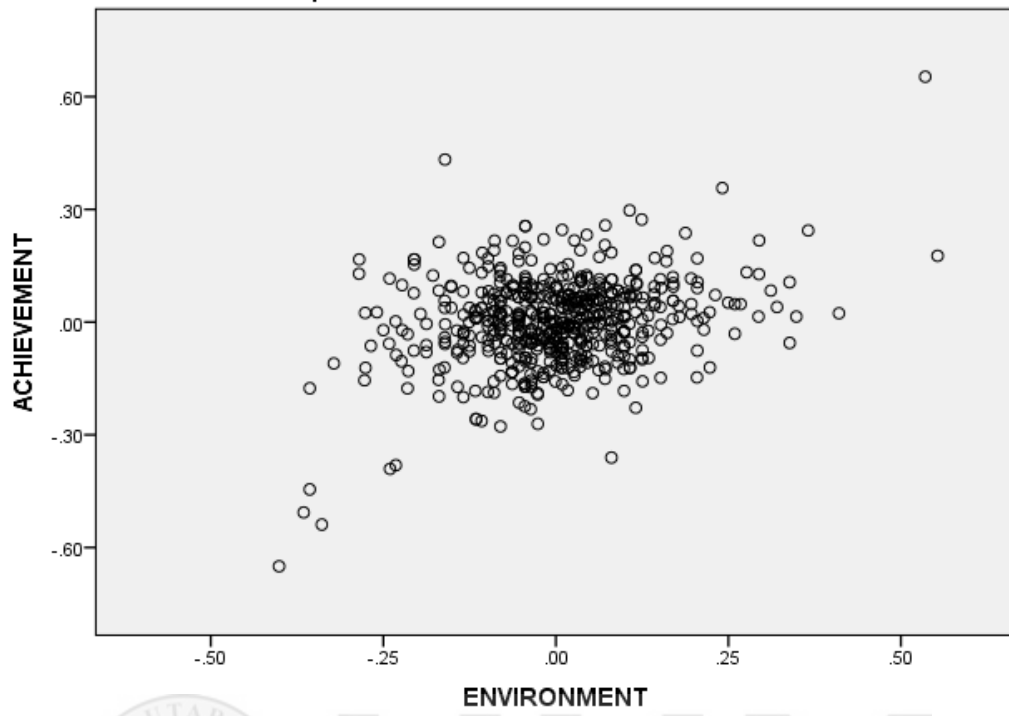
Appendix E   DEMOGRAPHIC OUT PUT

SchoolType

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unity School	384	68.7	68.7	68.7
	Non Unity School	175	31.3	31.3	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

GENDER

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MALE	331	59.2	59.2	59.2
	FEMALE	228	40.8	40.8	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

NATIONALITY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NIGERIAN	559	100.0	100.0	100.0

AGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-30YEARS	47	8.4	8.4	8.4
	31-40YEARS	198	35.4	35.4	43.8
	41-50YEARS	235	42.0	42.0	85.9
	51 - 60 YEARS	79	14.1	14.1	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

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EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NCE	30	5.4	5.4	5.4
	DEGREE	270	48.3	48.3	53.7
	MASTERS	213	38.1	38.1	91.8
	PHD	46	8.2	8.2	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

DEPT

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	VOC/TECH	105	18.8	18.8	18.8
	SCIENCE	233	41.7	41.7	60.5
	ARTS	221	39.5	39.5	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WORKING IN FGC IN NIGERIA (IN YEARS)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-10	399	71.4	71.4	71.4
	11-20	130	23.3	23.3	94.6
	21-30	24	4.3	4.3	98.9
	31 and above	6	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

ARE YOU

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	PART TIME	68	12.2	12.2	12.2
	FULL TIME	491	87.8	87.8	100.0
	Total	559	100.0	100.0	

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RELIABILITY

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	559	100.0
	Excluded a	0	.0
	Total	559	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Results Leadership style

Variable	Dimension	No of Items	n
Leadership Style	Idealized influence-(Attributed)	4	.727
	Idealized influence-(Behaviour)	4	.718
Total	Idealized influence A & B	8	.892
	Inspirational motivation	4	.819
	Intellectual stimulation	4	.809
	Individualized consideration	4	.832
	Contingent reward	4	.752
	Management-y-exception(Active)	4	.833
	Management-by-exception(Passive)	4	.883
Total	MBE A & P	8	.806
	Laissez-faire	4	.763
	Transformational LS	24	.724
	Transactional LS	12	.785
	Total Leadership Style	36	.853

Reliability result School Environment

Variable	Dimension	No of items	n
School Achievement	Student support	7	.837
	Affiliation	7	.885
	Professional interest	7	.847
	Staff freedom	7	.876
	Participatory decision making	7	.722
	Innovation	7	.704
	Resource adequacy	7	.825
	Work pressure	7	.884
	Total	56	.906

Reliability result School Achievement

Variable	Dimensions	No of items	N
School Achievement	Collegiality	9	.868
	Collective efficacy	9	.896
	Personal efficacy	9	.6813
	Policy-say-so	9	.853
	Job satisfaction	9	838
	Teaming	9	.851
	Total	54	.898

Exploratory Factor Loading for School environment

No of items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
SE15	.796							
SE7	.729							
SE11	.714							
SE43	.666							
SE6	.643							
SE1	.643							
SE49	.611							
SE33	.480							
SE34		.801						
SE36		.751						
SE10		.794						
SE32		.748						
SE41		.664						
SE51			.878					
SE17			.871					
SE13			.771					
SE55				.887				
SE21				.889				
SE9				.829				
SE4				.543				
SE44				..466				
SE5					.796			
SE45					..502			
SE27						.709		
SE26						.614		
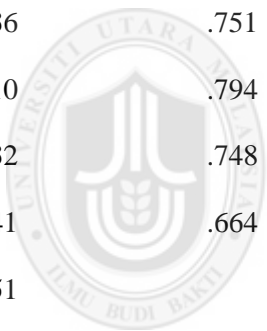
SE25	.563	
SE24	.504	
SE29	.498	
SE38	.678	
SE16	.902	
SE50	.901	
SE47	.595	
SE53		.881
SE19		.878
SE48		.726

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Percentage of variance explained in %		74.94
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Degree of Selection Competence.		.679
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	25661.014
	df	1540
	Sig.	.000

Exploratory Factor Loading for School Achievement

No of items	1	2	3	4	5	6
SA37	.802					
SA35	.796					
SA42	.768					
SA32	.749					
SA36	.692					
SA40	.668					
SA41	.454					
SA17	,400					
SA48		.925				

SA33	.921		
SA13	.914		
SA4	.787		
SA51		.881	
SA16		.880	
SA7		.748	
SA8		.723	
SA19		.897	
SA54		.893	
SA47		.835	
SA24		.648	
SA15			.897
SA50			.895
SA2			.816
SA14			.836
SA53			.933
SA44			.879
SA9			.876
SA45			.851
SA18			.931
SA20			.511
SA22			.836
SA1			.664
SA23			.881
SA21			.452
SA49			.811
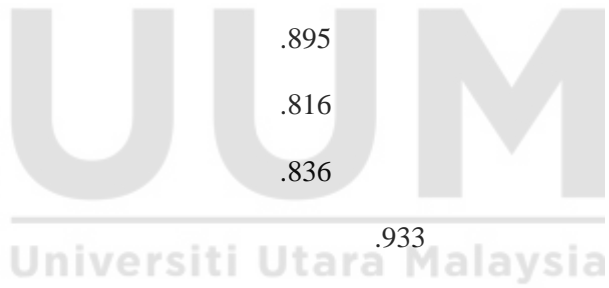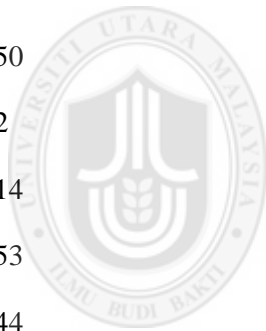
KMO and Bartlett's Test

Percentage of variance explained in %	75.12
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Degree of Selection Capability.	.540
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity — Approx. Chi-Square	29695.817
df	1431
Sig.	.000

Model summary

Model	R	Square	Adjusted R. Square	Standard error of the estimate
1	.957[a]	.916	.916	11246

Descriptive Statistics (N=388)

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership Style	559	3.74	.556
School Achievement	559	3.80	.510
School Environment	559	3.81	.956

Correlation analysis

	LEADERSHIP	ENVIRONMENT	ACHIEVEMENT
LEADERSHIP	1	.955**	.953**
		.000	.000
	559	559	559
ENVIRONMENT	.955**	1	.937**
	.000		.000
	559	559	559
ACHIEVEMENT	.953**	.937**	1
	.000	.000	
	559	559	559

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Histogram
Dependent Variable: ACHIEVEMENT

Statistic Values of Skewness and Kurtosis (Descriptive Statistics)

VARIABLES	SKEWNESS		KURTOSIS	
	statistics	Std error	statistics	Std error
LEADERSHIP	-196	.103	-861	.206
ENVIRONMENT	-137	.103	-930	.206
ACHIEVEMENT	-238	.103	-684	.206
Valid N (Listwise) 559				