School of Education
Faculty of Humanities
The University of the Witwatersrand

The Role of High School Principals in Leading and Managing their Schools: A Case Study of Huye District in Rwanda

By SAFARI KAMBANDA

Student number: 416621

Supervisor: Professor Tony Bush

A Thesis submitted to the School of Education, Faculty of Humanities, of the University of the Witwatersrand in fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education.

Johannesburg, May 2013
DECLARATION

I, SAFARI KAMBANDA, declare that “The Role of High School Principals in Leading and Managing their Schools: A Case Study of Huye District in Rwanda” is my own work submitted for the PhD degree to the University of the Witwatersrand, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Safari Kambanda

May 2013

Signature ………………………
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents who led my first steps to school. Further, I dedicate this work to my wife Rose Gahongayire who accepted the hard work of supporting the family responsibilities during my studies. Last but not least, I think of my children Aimé Nsaziyinka Patrick, Alain Rugamba, Alice Umutoni and Steve Arnold Manzi who have been patient during my absence.

May God bless you
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Primarily, I express my gratitude to the government of Rwanda, which sponsored my studies for a period of four years. I appreciate and address my sincere gratitude to the authorities of the National University of Rwanda for their will to facilitate the academic staff to get enough knowledge for the future of the country and especially the youth.

I would like to express my deep recognition to the following for their love and support:

First of all, I appreciate the effort and insightful devotion of my supervisor Professor Tony Bush during the four year period I worked under his supervision. I, therefore, express my deepest feelings of gratitude for his academic guidance without which I think I could hardly find the right way to reach this not easy academic achievement.

Further, I have to express a big thank you to Caroline Faulkner and David Lea who really proved me their love and support during my stay in South Africa.

Thanks to the officer-in-charge of Education at the Huye district in Rwanda, and especially all the School Management Teams and other informants who helped me during the interviews.

Finally and yet importantly, I express my gratitude to all my Rwandan colleagues at the University of the Witwatersrand South Africa for their support and encouragement. More specifically, I acknowledge the good relationships I had with Ntahomvukiye Claudien, Suubi Patrick, Habyalimana Hilaire, Sibomana Emmanuel, Nizeyimana Gabriel, Maniraho Sigfried and Twagirimana Innocent during our academic life at Wits.

I really say thanks to all of you.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION........................................................................................................ ii
DEDICATION........................................................................................................ iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS....................................................................................... iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS ........................................................................................ v
ABSTRACT............................................................................................................. ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .................................................................................. xi
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES.......................................................................... xii
LIST OF APPENDICES ....................................................................................... xvii

## Chapter One: Introduction

- Brief history of education in Rwanda ................................................................. 3
- General Context and Recent Developments in Education .................................. 4
- Rwandan School Leadership Context ............................................................... 6

## Theoretical Framework

- School culture .................................................................................................. 12
- Institutional autonomy ..................................................................................... 17

## Aims of the Research

- Specific objectives ............................................................................................ 18

## Research Questions

- Overview ........................................................................................................... 22

## Chapter Two: Literature Review

- Introduction ..................................................................................................... 24
- Leadership and Management .......................................................................... 25
- Organizational Structure and Culture ............................................................ 29
  - Defining school culture ............................................................................... 29
  - Culture and structure ............................................................................... 31
  - Leadership and culture ............................................................................ 33
- Leadership models ........................................................................................ 35
  - The principal as an Instructional Leader .................................................. 36
  - Leadership for Learning .......................................................................... 43
Chapter Five: Case Study Findings for School PKIH

Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 149

Thematic Data Analysis and Findings .................................................................................. 150
  Collaboration and communication ....................................................................................... 150
  Leadership and relationships ............................................................................................... 179

Overview ............................................................................................................................... 192

Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 195

Thematic Data Analysis and Findings .................................................................................. 195
  Collaboration and communication ....................................................................................... 196
  Leadership and relationships ............................................................................................... 215

Chapter Seven: Discussion and Analysis .............................................................................. 230

Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 230

Participative Instructional Leadership .................................................................................... 230
  Collaborative instructional leadership ................................................................................. 231
  Inclusive decision-making and shared leadership ............................................................... 234

Staff Empowerment and Transformational Leadership ......................................................... 242
  Instructional leadership empowerment ................................................................................. 242
  Interdependence and supportive school culture practice ................................................... 244

Collegial and Relational Leadership Culture ......................................................................... 245
  Social cohesion and social relationships ............................................................................. 246
  The principals’ main responsibilities .................................................................................. 247

Theoretical significance ........................................................................................................ 249

Overview ............................................................................................................................... 253

Chapter Eight: Conclusion .................................................................................................... 255

Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 255
Answering the Research Questions ................................................................. 255
Significance of the Study ................................................................................. 262
Empirical significance .................................................................................. 262
Instructional leadership .................................................................................. 263
Transformational leadership .......................................................................... 264
Participative leadership .................................................................................. 265
Recommendations .......................................................................................... 266
Overview ........................................................................................................ 267
APPENDIX A: Participant Information Sheet. .................................................. 288
APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form. ............................................................. 289
APPENDIX C: Interview Respondents’ Consent Form. ..................................... 290
APPENDIX D: Tape Recording Consent Form. .................................................. 291
APPENDIX E: Survey Interview Protocol .......................................................... 292
APPENDIX F: CASE STUDY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL ...................................... 295
APPENDIX G: District education officer’s authorization letter. ......................... 299
APPENDIX H: Ethics clearance letter. ............................................................... 300
ABSTRACT

This study aims at understanding how Rwandan high school principals lead and manage their schools, drawing on concepts of school culture. The research focuses on educational leadership and management in a post-conflict country which is still rebuilding following the 1994 genocide. The author intends to provide an original contribution to the field of education, notably in establishing how Rwandan high school principals exercise their responsibilities. The study is exploratory and explanatory research that focuses on how principals collaborate with partners, facilitate and participate in the development, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared, supported and owned by the school community. The main focus is on how the principals advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and instructional plans conducive to students’ learning and staff professional development.

Data collection followed a mixed-methods approach, quantitative and qualitative, and consisted of two phases, the first being survey research, using a questionnaire, and the second being a case study approach with two secondary schools. The survey was adapted from Phillips and Wagner’s (2003), and Wagner and Masden-Copas’ (2002), model of School Culture Triage Survey. It was intended to quantitatively explain how the leadership and management of the school principal impacted on school culture, while the semi-structured interviews, within the case studies, were designed to explore the school principal’s leadership and management from a range of perspectives.

These two phases were conducted using different research tools. The first phase of data collection was conducted by administering semi-structured interviews with the principals of all 14 high schools in the Huye District. In this phase, all the 14 participants had the same interview schedule, which targeted the role of these principals in leading and managing their schools. The interview schedule was structured but also provided potential for probes and prompts. The survey was followed by the two case studies, the highest and lowest ranked schools in the survey. The case studies aimed to explore the main responsibilities of the principals, how they relate to other stakeholders, and how they lead and manage staff and other resources. Data were gathered through semi-structured interviews with eight participants in each school, via
documentary analysis, and through shadowing the two principals. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics while qualitative data analysis followed a thematic approach.

The findings show that principals in the Huye district of Rwanda are constrained by a centralized education system with predetermined rules and mandates from higher authority. The results also demonstrate that they have little autonomy and limited participation in decision-making on curricular and pedagogical issues. A review of the traditional top-down, hierarchical and managerial leadership is required to enhance school-based leadership and management.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFA: Education for All
EDPRS: Economic Development and Poverty Reduction
ESSP: Education Sector Strategic Plan
FTC: Flemish Technical Cooperation
GCE: Global Campaign for Education
GES: Ghana Education Service
GoR: Government of Rwanda
HoD: Heads of Department
MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
MINEDUC: Ministry of Education
MSE: Mission Statement for Education
NCDC: National Curriculum Development Centre
NCSL: National College for School Leadership
OECD: Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
SCTS: School Culture Triage Survey
SGB: School Governing Body
SMT: School Management Team
UPE: Universal Primary Education
USE: Universal Secondary Education
VVOB: Vlaamse Vereniging voor Ontwikkelingssamewerking en Technische Bijstand (Flemish Cooperation)
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1.1: Huye administrative map (www.minaloc@gov.rw (2006)…………………………..10

Table 3.1: Links between the research questions and the interview protocol ........................ 85

Table 4.2: Principal PKA professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 104

Table 4.3: Principal PCF professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 105

Table 4.4: Principal PKB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 106

Table 4.5: Principal PAU professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 107

Table 4.6: Principal PGS professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 108

Table 4.7: Principal PGT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 109

Table 4.8: Principal PGSB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)………………………………………………………….. 110
Table 4.9: Principal PKI professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 111

Table 4.10: Principal PKT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 112

Table 4.11: Principal PMT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 113

Table 4.12: Principal PSB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 114

Table 4.13: Principal PSV professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 115

Table 4.14: Principal PRP professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 116

Table 4.15: Principal PRS professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 117

Table 4.16: Principal PKA affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 119

Table 4.17: Principal PCF affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) ............................................................... 119
Table 4.18: Principal PKB affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 120

Table 4.19: Principal PAU affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 121

Table 4.20: Principal PGS affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 122

Table 4.21: Principal PGT affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 123

Table 4.22: Principal PGSB affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 124

Table 4.23: Principal PKI affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 125

Table 4.24: Principal PKT affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 126

Table 4.25: Principal PMT affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 127

Table 4.26: Principal PSB affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002) .................................................. 128
Table 4.27: Principal PSV affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 129

Table 4.28: Principal PRP affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 130

Table 4.29: Principal PRS affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 130

Table 4.30: Principal PKA efficacy/self-determination school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 131

Table 4.31: Principal PCF self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 132

Table 4.32: Principal PKB self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 133

Table 4.33: Principal PAU self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 134

Table 4.34: Principal PGS self–determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 135

Table 4.35: Principal PGT self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 136
Table 4.36: Principal PGSB self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) .................................................. 137

Table 4.37: Principal PKI self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ........................................................................... 138

Table 4.38: Principal PKT self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ................................................... 139

Table 4.39: Principal PMT self-determination/ efficacy relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ................................................................. 140

Table 4.40: Principal PSB self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ......................................................................................... 141

Table 4.41: Principal PSV self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ......................................................................................... 142

Table 4.42: Principal PRP self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ......................................................................................... 143

Table 4.43: Principal PRP affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002) ......................................................................................... 144

Table 4.44: 14 principals’ correlated beliefs’ scores of three school culture dimensions as assessed by the SCTS developed by Wagner and Masden- Copas (2002) ................................................................. 145

Figure 5.1: Secondary school organizational structure chart ............................................ 152

Figure 8.1: School culture in Rwanda (adapted from Hargreaves’ (1995, 2002) .............. 266
LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Participant Information Sheet. ................................................................. 288
APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form. ........................................................................ 289
APPENDIX C: Interview Respondents’ Consent Form. ............................................... 290
APPENDIX D: Tape Recording Consent Form. ............................................................... 291
APPENDIX E: Survey Interview Protocol. .................................................................. 292
APPENDIX F: CASE STUDY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL ............................................. 295
APPENDIX G: District education officer’s authorization letter. ............................... 299
APPENDIX H: Ethics clearance letter. ......................................................................... 300
Chapter One: Introduction

... behind excellent teaching and excellent schools is excellent leadership – the kind that ensures that effective teaching practices do not remain isolated and unshared in single classrooms... with our national commitment to make every single child a successful learner, the importance of having such a high-quality leader in every school is greater than ever. (Wallace Foundation, 2006)

Introduction

The Education Sector Policy of Rwanda (Education Sector Strategic Plan 2008-2012) stipulates that the global goal of the Government of Rwanda is to reduce poverty and, in turn, to improve the well-being of its population. Within this context, the aim of education is to combat ignorance and illiteracy and to provide human resources useful for the socio-economic development of Rwanda through the education system.

Bush (2007) states that there is great interest in educational leadership in the early part of the 21st century and this is because of the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes. The author confirms that in many parts of the world, including South Africa and other developing countries, there is recognition that schools require effective leaders and managers if they are to provide the best possible education for their learners. Bush (2007) adds that, as the global economy gathers pace, more governments are realizing that their main assets are their people and that remaining, or becoming, competitive depends increasingly on the development of a highly skilled workforce. He adds that this requires trained and committed teachers but they, in turn; need the leadership of highly effective principals and the support of other senior and middle managers.

Research shows that education is a key to multiple facets of development and each country, including Rwanda, wants to improve its teaching and learning culture in schools. The Global Campaign for Education (GCE), (2008), in Marais, Niemann and Kotze (2008), states that the international notion of quality in education is one of the dominant trends that has influenced education development during the last decade. The search for quality in schools requires an improvement in all aspects of education and consequently strives to achieve, among other things,
excellence in classroom practices so that recognized standards of teaching and learning are attained.

To strengthen that educational global need, Kunene (2007) argues that, in today’s fast-moving competitive landscape, increasing pressure is being placed on schools and their leaders to create a learning environment that is conducive to producing school leavers who are prepared for the world of work - no easy task in the 21st century economy.

Similarly, Botha (2004), and Marais, Niemann and Kotze (2008), explain that the role of the school leader can no longer be viewed as merely being a manager and administrator, but rather as a learning expert and lifelong learner to cope with today’s fast-moving competitive world. These authors confirm that principals are expected to establish appropriate preconditions for effective teaching and learning, and to follow through interventions aimed at improving teaching and learning, as the quality of education in every school seems to rely heavily on the principal's contribution to ensure high standards of teaching and learning.

Bush and Glover (2009) note that managing teaching and learning is a shared responsibility among principals, School Management Teams (SMTs), middle managers and classrooms educators. It is important that the principal works in teams for a better delivery of the school mission. The need for team work is also supported by Hallinger (2003), who asserts that it is foolish to think that only principals provide instructional leadership for school improvement.

Bush and Glover (2003) argue that there are many different conceptualizations of school leadership. Earley and Weindling (2004), and Heystek (2007), claim that school leadership is the activity of leading people. A leader is more inclined to open communication and risk-taking, while being less restricted by prescribed policies.

Therefore, the Rwandan Ministry of Education and VVOB’s (Vlaamse Vereniging voor Ontwikkelingssamewerking en Technische Bijstantand, a Flemish Technical Cooperation) bilateral two-phase initiative (see the Rwandan schools’ context section below) shows the need for principals’ leadership and management development, and capacity building, in all Rwandan high schools. Research on the role of high school principals in leading and managing school culture is of paramount importance, for this field of education is still new in the country. Its lack
of development is due to political instability and war during the last decades, notably the 1994 genocide of Tutsis, which also damaged schools and the related infrastructure.

**Brief history of education in Rwanda**

Rwanda is a landlocked country situated in East-Central Africa. It has 26,430 sq-km and is bordered by Uganda (North); Burundi (South); Tanzania (East); and Democratic Republic of Congo (West) with a population of almost 10.5 million. About 60% of its people are literate. Rwanda is a former colony of Belgium and gained its independence in July 1962. Before colonialism, education was informal and delivered through the family. Indeed, there were no schools as we know them today, but Rwanda had its own education system. In practice, the Rwandan youth learnt everything concerning life at the traditional school. The education institution was essentially the family where young girls learnt household management skills from their mothers while the boys acquired the wisdom of life from their fathers (www.rwandagateway.org/education; 2005).

Besides family education, there existed other institutions of training and apprenticeship such as “amatorero” or night vigils. These were training sessions whose objectives were to introduce precious trades and skills to the youth. These trades included military and war skills, iron smith and foundry, poetry, basket making, etc. During the apprenticeship or training sessions, young people were also initiated in traditional rites and sex education as well as religious customs and rites such as “guterekerera and kubandwa”, which implied honouring the dead. This traditional school extended from the village to the Royal Court (www.rwandagateway.org/education; 2005).

During colonialism, especially around 1900, it was the Catholic Church that first introduced formal education in Rwanda and there were very few schools up to the 1950s. The first catholic secondary school was founded in 1929 i.e. “le Groupe Scolaire official de Butare” in the Huye district of the former Butare province, following a convention named “Convention de Jonghe” signed between Rwanda and the Belgian Kingdom, that allowed the Catholic Church to manage secondary schools in Rwanda.

Following independence in 1962, the education system in Rwanda changed. A number of primary and secondary schools were nationalized. This nationalization increased the power and
the control of public schools by Government authorities, at the expense of the clergy. Nonetheless, there were no actual changes in practice. The colonizers had always maintained considerable influence and control on the Rwandan educational system, as planners and advisers in the area of education. All schools were owned by catholic and protestant churches. However, education was still characterized by a big shortage in teaching and learning materials and insufficiently qualified teachers (www.rwandagateway.org/education;2005).

Education in Rwanda, from independence up to 1994, comprised three levels, i.e. primary, secondary and tertiary education, but multiple changes occurred in education after the 1994 genocide. Following independence, administrative structures were installed, including the Ministry of Education, as well as diverse laws securing the general regulation of Education. However, the Education system before 1994 was marked by gross ethnic and regional discrimination, especially in secondary schools and universities, where enrolment was not based on merit but on one’s ethnic or geographical origin and according to the whims and interests of the political authorities in place. In 1994, the new educational system aimed at outlawing any form of discrimination and prohibited any regional or ethnic identification of teachers and learners. This restructuring of the education system in Rwanda was founded on objectives different from those of the system of education before the 1994 genocide (www.mineduc.org.rw; 2008).

General Context and Recent Developments in Education

The Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP; 2008-2012) reflects the broad philosophical stance adopted by the Ministry of Education in Rwanda as expressed in the Mission Statement for Education (MSE). The plan incorporates national and international aspirations that underpin education sector development. The ESSP is consistent with the United Nation’s 2000 Millennium Declaration and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), particularly those that concern Universal Primary Education (UPE), Education for All (EFA), and the removal of gender disparities. ESSP builds upon the Rwandan Government’s over arching Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper (EDPRS) which recognizes the key role that education can play to improve social and economic well-being and reduce poverty (ESSP; 2008 – 2012).
The Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) has been designated to be the lead ministry in the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS). The Ministry of Education sets policy, norms and standards for the education sector, oversees the formal system (pre-primary, primary, secondary, technical and vocational training, teacher training and tertiary) and is responsible for adult literacy. It also undertakes planning, monitoring and evaluation at the national level. The Ministry of Local Government, Social Affairs and Good Governance oversees decentralization functions of education and monitors performance contracts at all levels, while the Ministry of Public Service, Skills Development and Labor sets and administers salary levels and conditions of service for teachers and is responsible for vocational education. Lastly, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning sets broad policy and planning frameworks and oversees financial planning (ESSP; 2008 – 2012).

The secondary school sector in Rwanda faces the following challenges (ESSP, 2008 - 2012):

- Rwanda currently has one of the lowest enrolment rates at secondary school level in Sub-Saharan Africa. The challenge remains to implement Nine Year Basic Education through expansion of enrolment in the first three year secondary phase (known as Tronc Commun) and maintaining its quality;

- Promoting girls’ education to narrow the gap in access and learning achievement at all levels of education;

- Addressing demand side constraints by reducing the cost of schooling for the poorest – continuation of fee subsidies, and addressing indirect expenses and opportunities costs;

- Addressing other supply side constraints by increasing schooling capacity – classrooms, adequate textbooks, learning materials etc.;

- Training, recruiting and retaining teaching staff in order to achieve the targets in both terms of access and quality of education;

- Improving the status of the teacher and providing incentives to increase motivation;

- Ensuring the matching of learning outcomes with labour market needs at all levels of education.
ESSP has anticipated that it has to strengthen school leadership and management, i.e. the district office service delivery responsibilities and the implementation of policies including ensuring access and quality of education.

Rwandan School Leadership Context

Rwanda experienced traumatic consequences from the 1994 genocide and has undergone multiple education transformations since then. The most recent school leadership and management initiative is the signed bilateral project between the Ministry of Education and the Flemish Technical Cooperation (VVOB).

The Rwandan Ministry of Education (www.mineduc.gov.rw; 2008) initiated the project “MINEDUC school management” that started in 2003 as a project working in close collaboration with VVOB. The project was committed to improving school management in high schools and by 2006 had started to improve school management in primary schools.

That project worked until 2007 with 45 secondary pilot schools (at least one school per district and in all the four Rwandan provinces, plus Kigali city) where it trained the senior management teams (i.e. the head teacher, the prefect of studies, discipline master, bursar and secretary) in school management and some training in ICT.

The main objectives of the project aimed at reinforcing the school management capacity of the five persons mentioned above who comprise the school management team; encouraging the involvement of all school stakeholders at the national and local level; providing schools with means of accessing ICT and training the school officials; developing and disseminating the modules of school management as text resources, then advising the school management team on cross-cutting themes such as unity and reconciliation, self-identity, environment, HIV/AIDS prevention, gender, self care and responsibility.

At the beginning of 2008 (www.mineduc.gov.rw; 2008), the Ministry of Education initiated, in collaboration with VVOB, a second phase of the same project that is planned to end in 2013 and still aims at training and building Rwandan high school principals’ management capacity as well as that of school management teams all over the country. This initiative is directed at a significant capacity development on the part of school management teams and requires high
levels of motivation and commitment to solve multiple problems related to education improvement in Rwanda.

This example illustrates the Rwandan Government’s need to improve its educational system and the emphasis it attaches to the role of school principals in leading and managing schools. The importance of the role of principals has been commented on by many scholars, including Steyn (2007), and Marais, Niemann and Kotze (2008), who note the importance of leadership and management by pointing out that effective management of people has been identified as a key element of best practice in many leading educational organizations. These scholars offer a different model of the role of the school principal in the traditional school model from that of a manager or administrator (Pretorius, 1998).

Education is a crucial vehicle for moving from a dark and obscure past towards tangible signs of a competitive country. Therefore, improving students’ learning achievements remains a major objective of the education system (http://www.mineduc.gov.rw:2003).

Obura’s (2000) research in Rwanda shows that, before the events of 1994, a discriminatory system was used for entry into schools, which was overtly based on ethnic and regional criteria, rather than on scholastic performance. It is now thought that, to a large extent, the education system mirrored and indeed reinforced destructive trends in Rwandan society. Obura (2000) goes on to say that the education system was particularly targeted during the conflict: teachers and educated, thinking, people were singled out for assassination, and pupils and teachers were both victims and perpetrators of the genocide in state and church schools.

Obura (2000) adds that, during the genocide, schools were ransacked and destroyed, as well as the Ministry of Education. Few teachers were left. Hundreds of thousands of households were left headed by children. Ethnicity was seen to be an acceptable basis for the establishment of social and institutional structures. It is significant that the education system has become a prime target in many civil wars, since schools are seen as representing political systems and regimes, and as symbols of peace. They irritate warlords, rebels and militia whose aim is to destroy systems and terrorize people, including children. Schools can be seen as an inspiration and, at the same time, be a prime target of destruction. Schools can also be regarded as organs of destruction, or mechanisms for restoring normalcy or for peace-building (Obura: 2000).
One of the first actions of the government after the war, as Obura (2000) reports, was to mobilize resources country-wide and, with the help of external partners, to re-open schools. In reconstructing the education system, the Ministry of Education had to struggle against a lack of qualified teachers, and a shortage of materials. However, the Ministry of Education achieved a rapid restart within two months of the genocide (Ibid).

Obura (2000) argues that the post-war education policy promoted national unity and reconciliation, prioritizing equity of provision and access, encouraging a humanitarian culture of inclusion and mutual respect. The basis of the education system changed radically in 1994, as any form of discrimination became illegal. One important step was to abolish the classification of learners and teachers by Hutu, Tutsi and Twa affiliation. However, the Rwandan curriculum has been the subject of much controversy, with both planned and unplanned changes. These changes affected curriculum policy and its implementation (Obura 2000).

Rwanda is subject to globalization and cannot work alone to improve its educational system. Knowledge and understanding of school effectiveness and improvement literature is necessary as is familiarity with research on successful school leadership and management, with particular reference to developing countries.

The Huye school context

Education in Rwanda is constitutionally a state responsibility with the national government providing school subsidies to each district in the country. The mayor of the district has overall responsibility for education, at primary and secondary level, and has a director in charge of education, who is accountable to him. Huye district, as with other districts in the country, also follows the national educational policy. In terms of school type, Huye schools are divided into government and non-government schools.

Among the non-government schools, some are being run by religious organizations while others have been founded either by groups of parents or private individuals, especially in the urban area. Most of the religious affiliated secondary schools are partially government-funded, with teachers’ salaries paid by the government, which also provides most of the school materials. The school infrastructure belongs to the schools but the government sometimes helps with repairs when requested to do so. As for independent schools led by private individuals, the
government sometimes gives grants, according to memoranda of understanding signed before the start of the school. However, all the schools share the common national educational policy and standards that are in the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP, 2008).

The Huye district suffered from the aftermath of the 1994 genocide, including the loss of qualified teachers, with some being killed during the genocide and others who fled the country. There is also a shortage of teaching and learning materials and a damaged school infrastructure. The post-1994 situation has a significant impact on school leadership and management, providing a sombre background to the author’s study.

**Characteristics of Huye district**

Huye district is one of eight districts which form the Southern Province of Rwanda. The area of the district is 581 square kilometres and it has a population of 265,446, with a density of 456.5 per square kilometre. The district is bordered to the North by Nyanza district, Gisagara district to the East, Nyaruguru district to the South and Nyamagabe district to the West (See figure 1.1).

The district is 93% rural and only 7% urban. The district hosts the National University of Rwanda from 1963, the Baptist Faculty of Theology, a High Institute of Pedagogy and Catechetic studies for Protestants, and a Major Catholic Seminary of Nyakibanda. It has got 91 pre-primary schools, 86 primary schools and 24 secondary schools (public and private, some for boys or girls only and others of mixed gender). Only 14 schools have a complete cycle up to senior six. There are five vocational centres for young and adult people who did not complete primary or secondary education. From September 2009, the district authorities in charge of education, at the national level, led a campaign to build three secondary schools in each cell of the district to facilitate the beginning of the Nine Year Basic Education policy. These schools received their first intake of students in February 2010 all over the country.

The Huye education system faces some serious challenges. These include overcrowded classrooms, and insufficient schools and classrooms in rural areas, compared to urban provision. An attempt to resolve this situation has started with the beginning of the Nine Year Basic Education policy, such as the increase in the ratio of girls in secondary schools. However, insufficient and unqualified teachers, as well as limited textbooks for primary and secondary school students, remain a big challenge.
Theoretical Framework

Hallinger & Heck (1998) commented that the conceptualization of principals’ leadership has evolved over more than 25 years. They found that two major approaches have predominantly been noticed in the study of principals’ effects on schools and staff, and students’ effectiveness,
over the past 15 years. Those approaches are instructional and transformational leadership. Research from the early to late 1980s has been dominated by instructional leadership conceptualization and these studies conceptualized the principal’s role in school effectiveness in terms of instructional leadership. However, since 1990, researchers have begun to shift their attention to leadership models construed as more consistent with evolving trends in educational reform such as empowerment, shared leadership, and organizational learning. This evolution of the educational leadership role has been labeled as reflecting second order changes (Leithwood, 1994) as it is aimed at primarily changing the organization’s normative structure. The most frequently used model in North America is transformational leadership, which focuses on increasing the organization’s capacity to innovate.

Bolman and Deal (1992) identify four frames, i.e. political, structural, symbolic, and human resources, in order to view the role of leadership in organizations. However, Hallinger and Heck (1998) conclude that, despite its widespread use in administration, very few studies used that framework in the study of the principal’s leadership effects on school.

Botha (2004) asserts that a professional school principal is the educational leader and manager of a school, and is therefore responsible for the work performance of all the people in the school, i.e. both staff and learners. People are the human resources of schools who use materials to produce an educated learner. The major role of principals is to help the school achieve a high level of performance through the utilization of all its human and material resources and this is done through effective, and ultimately excellence in, leadership. Simply stated, the principals’ role is to get things done by working with and through other people. Botha (2004) discusses a South African perspective of principalship and says that the major reason for principals’ failure is an inability to deal with people. If people do not perform well, the school cannot be effective and, in this sense, the leadership task of school principals is of the utmost importance and is probably the most important element of the principal’s role.

Black (1998) has distinguished three broad areas of school leadership and management, i.e. how school principals deal with instructional, transformational and participative leadership. Instructional leadership instills school principals to create clear expectations, to maintain discipline and implement high standards, aiming at the improvement of teaching and learning. This implies the principal’s role as a leader with vision, leading the school community in its
development to use more effective teaching and curricular strategies, and supporting educators to implement the teaching processes. Transformational leaders, however, are people who are not only focused on a culture of learning and teaching, but who are also future oriented, responsive to the changing education climate, and able to utilize the symbolic and cultural aspects of schools to promote a culture of excellence (Johnson, 1997). These leaders inspire and motivate their followers towards a common vision and goals. Lastly, participative leadership involves the members of the organization, educators, learners, supporting staff and parents, and other stakeholders becoming involved in problem solving, learners’ improvement and any other decision making in the school.

School culture

According to Bush (1995), culture refers to values, beliefs and norms of individuals in the organization and is manifested by symbols and rituals rather than through the formal structure of the organization. Further, Fidler, Russell and Simkins (1997) argue that the culture of an organization represents a stabilizing and unifying force within the organization. The authors believe that one of the major roles of leaders is to understand the existing culture of their institution before they can adequately manage both the organization and its culture. They describe culture as the distinctive way in which organization members go about their work and relate to each other in a particular organization.

The main conceptual framework to guide the research is that of Hargreaves (2002), who explored school culture in order to help school practitioners find their own school culture and to enhance improvement and effectiveness. In this regard, Hargreaves adds that a school leader has three major tasks in relation to school culture i.e. diagnostic, directional and managerial. The diagnostic task consists of how a leader and other stakeholders diagnose the present character of the school’s culture. The directional task is the process of deciding how the leader wants the school’s culture to be. Thirdly, the managerial task is the way of devising and implementing a strategy for moving the school’s culture in the chosen direction.

These three major tasks are inter-linked and Hargreaves (2002) suggests the involvement of as many people as possible because this helps in uncovering very different perceptions of aspects of
the school culture and it affects subsequent actions. The involvement of people such as the head, senior management team, staff, students, parents, and other critical people in the diagnostic task may motivate all the stakeholders to engage in the development of the school.

Hargreaves (2002) discusses simple direct and indirect methods of diagnosing school culture. He adds that simple diagnostic devices do not take much time for the participants but lack depth because they often use the concept of school culture in simplistic fashion. He recommends the indirect method of diagnosis, such as the school’s internal review, the views of students and parents, and all such evidence, comes back to the leader as feedback on the character or ethos of the school. The word ‘culture’ may not be used but such evidence is important, since it can be used to check on the validity of the perceptions of the school’s culture emerging from the use of a more direct method.

Hargreaves (2002) also talks about the direct method as the way of drawing on one of the “two-by-two” typologies and ask people who are involved to say which type of school culture the school is closest to and then engage a discussion in order to classify the school. This “two-by-two” typology method may, for instance, be getting the participants to judge whether the school is broadly “effective or ineffective”, and “improving or deteriorating”. However, Hargreaves (2002) agrees that the participants find the typology difficult since they judge the school is effective in some ways and not in others, and the same for the improving –declining dimensions.

Furthermore, Handy and Aitken (1986:83), and Handy (1984:34-8), suggested another fourfold typology of school culture and teacher culture, explained as follows:

✓ **The club culture or spider’s web**: the school here is taken as an informal club of like-minded people whose task is to achieve the mission of the head, who is at the centre of things. That sounds like a dictatorship, and some club cultures are dictatorships. They are very personal cultures because the spiders preserve their freedom of manoeuvre by writing little down, preferring to talk to people, to sense their reactions and to infect them with her/his enthusiasms or passions. Their strength is in their ability to respond immediately and intuitively to opportunities or crisis because of the very short lines of communication and because of the centralization of power. On the other hand the danger is the dominance of the
character of the central figure because, if the spider is weak, corrupt, and inept or picks the wrong people, the organization is also the same.

- **The role culture or a pyramid**: the school is taken as a set of job-boxes coordinated to execute the work of the organization, which the head manages through a formal system and procedures of a bureaucratic kind. It looks like a pyramid of boxes; inside each box is a job title indicating who the occupant is. The strength is that such organizations become routinized, few decisions are needed, and everybody can get on with their jobs, while its disadvantage is that the role culture need implementers, not innovators, no independence, people are in one sense less critical thinkers.

- **The task culture or a grid**: the school is considered a friendly matrix of variably composed groups and teams which achieve a range of planned tasks to solve organizational problems. This culture develops in response to the need of the organization and in a less individualistic way than a club culture and more speedily than a role culture. The task culture is usually a warm and friendly culture because it is built around collaboration without much overt hierarchy. There are plans rather than procedures, reviews of progress rather than assessment of past performance. It is a forwarding-looking culture for a developing organization.

- **The person culture or cluster**: the school is seen as a minimally organized resource for the development of its members’ talents and exercise of the skills. This is described as a teacher culture and is different from the first three, which are school typologies.

In his conclusion, Handy (1984) confirms that schools, like other organizations, are pulled four ways by the demands of the different cultures; therefore it is the task of the leader to gather the cultural forces together, using the strengths of each in the right paces.

Another fourfold-typology of teacher culture, proposed by Andy Hargreaves (1994) includes individualism, collaboration, managed or contrived collegiality, and balkanization.
David Hargreaves (2002) agrees that both fourfold typologies stated above can become diagnostic instruments in which teachers are presented with cameos of each culture type and use these to make a diagnosis of their own school culture. In practice, however, the participants rarely identify the school culture with a single type. The author relates both fourfold typologies and suggests that a collaborative culture sounds desirable while the individualism, contrived collegiality and balkanization are clearly objectionable. He explains this by saying that larger schools, and almost all secondary schools, inevitably have a degree of balkanization, and collaboration and individualism may characterize different parts of the school or different aspects of life in school. Successful schools get the right mix at the right time, an appropriately dynamic model of how cultures work (Hargreaves, 2002).

Besides the simplistic devices stated above, Hargreaves (2002) proposed more complex schemes which are also more time-consuming and these are based on two typologies. The first assumes that all schools, like all social collectivities, face two fundamental tasks. One is to achieve the goals for which they exist, and the other is to maintain harmonious relationships. The two tasks are often in tension, in that pressure to achieve the goal (for example student achievement) may be at a cost in relationships (e.g. making students work hard). Hargreaves argues that schools require social controls over teachers and students so that they work together in orderly ways, concentrate on teaching and learning, and avoid possibilities of distraction and delay. On the other hand, schools have to maintain social cohesion; social relationships that are satisfying, supportive and sociable.

Hargreaves (2002:50-1) summarizes his two-by-two typology according to whether the social control, and the social cohesion, dimensions are high or low as follows:

- **The formal school culture** (high social control > < low social cohesion): This typology puts pressure on students to achieve learning goals, including curriculum, exams or test performance, but with weak social cohesion between staff and students. School life becomes orderly, scheduled, disciplined with strong work ethic. Academic expectations are high, with low toleration for those who do not live up to them. To students, staff are relatively strict, though institutional loyalty is valued. The school is like a tight ship fostering traditional values.
- **The welfarist school culture** (high social cohesion > < low social control): This has a relaxed, friendly atmosphere. The focus is on individual student development within a nurturing environment and child-centered educational philosophy. Work pressure is low; so academic goals get a lower priority than social cohesion or even become displaced by social adjustment and life skills.

- **The hothouse school culture** (high social cohesion & high social control): All are under pressure to participate actively in the full range of school life. The motto is “join in, enjoy yourself, and be a success”. Expectations of work, personal development and team spirit are high. Teachers are enthusiastic and committed and want students to be the same. It is a culture that is not coercive or tyrannical, but teachers and students easily become anxious that they are not pulling their weight or doing as well as they should.

- **The survivalist school culture** (low social cohesion & low social control): In this kind of school, social relations are poor; teachers are striving to maintain basic control and allowing students to avoid academic work in exchange for not engaging in misconduct. Lessons move at a leisurely pace; students under-achieve. Teachers feel unsupported by senior colleagues and enjoy little professional satisfaction and life is lived a day at a time. Many students feel alienated from their work which bores them. The ethos is one of insecurity and low morale.

As far as the direction of school culture is concerned, Hargreaves (2002) suggests including all stakeholders as staff and students in thinking about the conceptions of the school culture they would like, and this assumes the school leader trusts them to choose a cultural direction. If all agree on the type of the culture, there is a motivational belief to work out the positive strategies for so doing. Though, when all the staff are pulling in the same direction, they are more likely to achieve the goals. This is the implicit line on school culture, which emphasizes collaboration as a key to school effectiveness and improvement.

The last task is managing culture and Hargreaves (2002) argues that the only thing of importance a leader can do is to create and manage culture. This often leads to the assumption that the staff is persuaded on some kind of rational basis; attitudes, beliefs and values under the leader’s stated
vision. In brief, culture is understood as the distinctive way in which organization members go about their work and relate to each other in a particular organization.

However, it is suggested that some problems experienced in Rwandan schools impacted on school culture. These include the challenge to implement Nine Year Basic Education and maintaining its teaching and learning quality; addressing supply side constraints by increasing school capacity such as continuation of fee subsidies, classrooms, adequate textbooks and learning materials etc.; training and retaining teaching staff in order to achieve the targets in both terms of access and quality of education, improving the status of the teacher and providing incentives to increase motivation, and ensuring the matching of learning outcomes with labour market needs at all levels of education.

**Institutional autonomy**

Naidu, Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge and Ngcobo (2008) agreed that the widespread trend of increasing institutional autonomy has made many aspects of planning and decision-making the responsibility of schools. Those scholars explored school leadership and management in South Africa and came to the conclusion that principals, working together with school management teams (SMTs), school governing bodies (SGBs), the Department of Education and school communities, are primarily responsible for providing leadership and direction for schools’ culture. This constitutes an example of a developing country that is promoting a school culture where all stakeholders take part in school life, especially in planning, decision-making and thinking of how schools live and have to live. Rwanda is one developing country which was devastated by the 1994 war, still suffers its aftermaths, and is trying to improve its educational leadership and management system.

Further, Naidu et al (2008) discuss the work of Van der Westhuizen (2000), who argues that an organization is the framework within which human activities are directed and coordinated. It is a formal structure of authority that comes into being by grouping activities into departments and by arranging them in a certain order. The school as an organization is therefore described as a collection of teachers, pupils, parents and non-teaching staff, working towards the common goal of ensuring that learners receive quality teaching and learning.
Aims of the Research

Overarching aims

The broad aim of the research is to understand how Rwandan high school principals lead and manage their schools, with a focus on school culture, intending to improve teaching and learning and how this links to national educational policy and the country's vision.

Due to Rwanda’s background linked to the 1994 genocide, this research study focuses on leadership and management in a country which is still rebuilding. The author also intends to provide an original contribution to the field of education, notably in establishing how Rwandan high school principals exercise their responsibilities. Linked to this issue of headship, it is an opportunity to explore how the 2008-2013 school management initiative project of MINEDUC, in collaboration with VVOB (a Flemish Technical Cooperation), has empowered high schools principals’ leadership and management implementation as well as its impact on high school principals’ leadership and management. The research is an explanatory and exploratory study of the role of high school principals, linked to the concept of school culture. It focuses on how high school principals collaborate with their partners, manage school resources and work towards achieving the schools’ vision. Hence a significant challenge for principals today is to identify the specific features of the school, such as school culture, teaching and student learning improvement, and the type of leadership and management principals should employ.

Specific objectives

The exploration and explanation of the role of high school principals in Huye district in the Southern Rwanda focuses on how principals facilitate and participate in the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared, supported and owned by the school community. This concerns how the principals advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and instructional plans conducive to students’ learning and staff professional development. The specific objectives of the research are:
- To explore whether and how the school principal develops and demonstrates school vision, mission and goals which inspire and motivate students, staff and all other members of the school community;

- To explore whether and how the school principal plans the strategic direction and development of the school; i.e. how does s/he demonstrate high expectations and set targets for the whole community;

- To see whether and how the school principal secures and sustains effective teaching and learning, i.e. to explore how does s/he ensure that teaching and learning are at the centre of the school strategic plan and resource management;

- To explore whether and how the school principal leads and manages staff and other resources, i.e. how does s/he collaborate, motivate, involve, support and develop staff to secure school development as well as how s/he manages the school resources at his/her disposal;

- To explore whether and how the school principal affects the school culture, i.e. to see how the principal diagnoses, builds, directs and manages a school culture that takes into account the richness and diversity of the school’s community and towards effective teaching and learning for the school’s development;

- To see whether and how principals relate to school stakeholders, including the hierarchy, teachers and students, support staff, parents and the community i.e. an exploration of how they promote collaboration to achieve organizational goals and how do they take into account each member’s involvement.

**Research Questions**

This research focuses on exploring the role of Rwandan high school principals in leading and managing their schools, drawing on concepts of school culture. The study is guided by the following questions:
1) What are the main responsibilities of school principals in Rwanda?

The rationale for this question is that the school principal is the most important and influential individual in any school. It is his/her leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for teaching and learning, the level of teacher professionalism and morale, and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become. The issues to explore include whether the principal is an initiator (he/she gets projects started); an innovator (sustain, support or bring new strategies); motivator (he/she influences others through collaboration to reach the vision, mission, goals and objectives); calculator (he/she sets the school activities on a clear strategic plan); and communicator (he/she communicates the school vision, leads each members’ vision ownership and stimulates the school community relationships).

2) How do high school principals enact their leadership and management?

The enactment of school principals’ leadership and management is founded on their ability to work with staff and the community; to create and maintain a conducive, safe and orderly learning environment; to manage the operations and maintenance of school infrastructure, setting up school committees, creating interpersonal relationships, keeping records and filing documents, leading staff meetings and communicating effectively, empowering the school members through in-service training etc..

3) How, and to what extent, do Rwandan principals lead teaching and learning in their schools?

This question relates to the extent to which high school principals lead and manage teaching in Huye district, how they organize and take part in student-teacher relationships; teacher professional development; planning the curriculum; and creating a peaceful school climate conducive to effective teaching and learning. This requires an exploration of the school’s educational goals, the school learning climate, facilitating a strong school culture, connecting curricula to society problem. To clarify this research question, I refer to Murphy (1990) who noted that principals in productive schools – that is, schools where the quality of teaching and learning are strong – demonstrated instructional leadership, both directly and indirectly. Those principals emphasize four sets of activities with implications for instruction i.e. developing the school mission and goals; coordinating, monitoring, and evaluating curriculum, instruction, and
assessment; promoting a climate for learning; and creating a supportive work environment. Bush and Glover (2002) add that the core purpose of principalship is to provide leadership and management in all areas of the school to enable the creation and support of conditions under which high quality teaching and learning take place and which promote the highest possible standards of learner achievement. The responsibility for managing teaching and learning is shared amongst principals, SMTs, middle managers and classroom educators. Educators manage curriculum implementation in their classroom, HoDs have responsibility for ensuring effective teaching and learning across their learning areas or phases, while principals and school management teams (SMTs) have a whole-school role.

4) How do high school principals lead and manage staff and other resources at their schools? Leading and managing staff, as well as other school resources, requires involving all the school community members and at all levels. Therefore, an explanation of this research question is based on MacNeil and McClanahan’s (2005) view that traditional school leadership has been that of the top – down approach, from which the leader leads, makes decisions, motivates, and inspires. This approach has been popular in educational administration in the past, but it is unlikely that a single person can provide the necessary leadership for all issues. One way is to emphasize a shift from the formal leader to a shared leadership model. This model has many names including partnership-as-leadership, distributed leadership, and community of leaders. Barth (1990) adds that, under the shared leadership model, the vision for a school is a place whose very mission is to ensure students, parents, teachers, support staff, and other stakeholders, as well as principals, all become school leaders in some ways and at some times. This view suggests the basic concept of two or more people sharing power and joining forces to move toward the accomplishment of a shared goal and to be accountable at any level of the organization or school (Moxley, 2000).

5) How do principals relate to their stakeholders, including the hierarchy, teachers and students, support staff, parents and the community? To relate to all school stakeholders, there might be a need for leadership that implies the degree of principals’ collaboration with teachers, other staff members, students and parents, the community and other stakeholders, so that all of them may feel involved. The question consists
of exploring how principals promote collaboration to achieve organizational goals, while encouraging each member’s participation. This stage implies that principals facilitate organizational consolidation, through task distribution, assigning responsibilities, providing open communication channels, interpersonal relationships, increasing quality and productivity.

6) How do principals affect their schools’ culture?
This research question implies an exploration of the different ways in which the principal impacts on school culture, that is, the distinctive ways in which the school community members go about their work and how they relate to each other. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) discuss the impact of a transformational school leader and distinguished his/her functions; mission centered (developing a widely shared vision for the school, building consensus about school goals and priorities), performance centered (holding high performance expectations, providing individualized support, supplying intellectual stimulation), and culture centred (modeling organizational values, strengthening productive school culture, building collaborative cultures, and creating structures for participation in school decisions).

Overview

This introductory chapter has described the Rwandan education system from its historical background to its current development, as well as setting out its major aims and challenges. The Government of Rwanda, through its Education Sector Policy, aims at combating ignorance and illiteracy in order to provide a qualified human resource and this has to be done through ensuring effective teaching and learning practices supported by excellent leadership and management in schools.

The author’s study is linked to a training project on school leadership and management initiated from 2006 to 2013 by the Ministry of Education in Rwanda (MINEDUC), in collaboration with a Flemish Technical Cooperation (VVOB) sponsored by the Flemish Technical Cooperation (FTC). The project aims at building, improving and reinforcing the country’s school principals and School Management Teams’ capacities to lead and manage schools effectively. However, the research does not intend to evaluate the project, but aims at exploring, describing, and
interpreting the high school principals’ enactment of their leadership and management with a focus on school culture, in Huye District, in the Southern Province of Rwanda.

The broad aims of this research focus on the role of high school principals in Huye district. However, it also seeks to provide a framework of reference in order to contribute to its development in Rwanda. The main objective has been to explore what different scholars say about educational leadership and management theories to improve teaching and learning and to see how they link to the Rwandan national policy on school leadership.

The joint project between the Ministry of Education and VVOB, to empower high school principals, has been a starting point for this research and led the researcher to the research questions that aim to explore and explain the main responsibilities of principals, how they enact their leadership and management, their leadership towards staff and other stakeholders, and their impact on school culture as leaders.

The relationship between the research questions and the specific objectives is to see how high school principals in the district, enact, lead and manage school culture based on their ability to work with students, staff, school stakeholders and the community; to create and maintain a conducive, safe and orderly learning environment; to manage the operations and maintenance of school infrastructure, setting up school committees, creating interpersonal relationships, keeping records and filing documents, leading staff meetings and communicating effectively, empowering the school members through in-service training etc.. Further, a theoretical framework through Hargreaves (2002) is taken as a model to explore the Huye district principals’ leadership and management towards school culture.

The next chapter will be a literature review focusing on school culture, leadership and management concepts, and leadership and values. The types of literature will consist of relevant theoretical and conceptual frameworks, the empirical Western and African educational leadership literature, and the official educational literature in Rwanda, such as reports, job descriptions, and performance contracts.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

“As long as improvement is dependent on a single person or a few people or outside directions and forces, it will fail. Schools and the people in them have a propensity to depend too much on a strong head or other authority figures for direction and guidance.” (Harris and Lambert, 2003:1)

The main purpose of this literature review chapter is to explore conceptual and empirical research from different scholars in the field of educational leadership and management. The chapter is based on a review of theories, concepts and research findings on the role of school principals in leading and managing their schools to improve teaching and learning. This review is mainly focused on instructional and transformational leadership as two leading models of school leadership and management. One aim is to explore how instructional leadership guides school principals to create clear expectations, to maintain discipline and implement high standards, aiming at the improvement of teaching and learning. This implies that the principal’s role is to be a leader with vision, leading the school community to use more effective teaching and curricular strategies, and supporting educators to implement the teaching processes. The review also explores how transformational leaders are people who are not only focused on a culture of learning and teaching, but are also future oriented, responsive to the changing education climate, and able to utilize the symbolic and cultural aspects of schools to promote a culture of excellence (Johnson, 1997). These leaders inspire and motivate their followers towards a common vision and goals.

This chapter consists of the theoretical framework and review of the literature on the role of high school principals in leading and managing school culture. It involves three main sections: these are leadership and management, organizational structure and culture, and leadership and values. These sections underpin the review of conceptual literature that sustains this research study and also involves the empirical western and African literature and the official Rwandan literature. The chapter relates directly to the research aims that are to explore and explain the role of high school principals in Huye district in Southern Rwanda, and to see whether and how principals
facilitate and participate in the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared, supported and owned by the school community. This also links to whether and how the principals advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and instructional plans conducive to students’ learning and staff professional development.

This literature will examine whether, and to what extent, the concepts of school leadership apply to principals in different international settings. It will include a discussion of leadership and management models, including instructional and transformational leadership, school culture and structure, and values. These will be applied in developed and developing contexts, including Rwanda.

**Leadership and Management**

Bush (2007) stresses the great interest in educational leadership and management in the early part of the 21st century because of the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes. Schools require effective leaders and managers if they are to provide the best possible education for their learners. The author adds that more governments are realizing that the major assets in the global economy are their people and, to be competitive, depends increasingly on the development of a highly skilled workforce. This not only demands trained and committed teachers but also a need of a highly effective leadership of principals as well as the support of senior and middle managers.

Coleman (2005) notes that it is important to be aware of the concepts of leadership, management and administration which appear to have various usages at different times, in different countries and in different professional cultures. The author says that, in the UK, leadership tends to be seen as the most important of the three concepts while management tends to relate to more operational matters and administration being based on tasks which are routine. She concludes that, despite the different interpretations, the concepts of leadership and management are often used interchangeably in the UK. While looking at a principal’s practice, it is not easy to decide which action or function could be labeled leadership or management.
Gardner (2007) argues that, in all positions of authority, there is a need to combine the sibling skills of leadership and management. These skills are related, and they overlap, but they are not the same. A key question is ‘what is the appropriate balance between these elements? Should the head of any organization be someone who is predominantly a leader or a manager? However, Gardner (2007) adds that there is a place for both leaders and managers.

Educational leadership and management concepts have been viewed by different scholars, who often recognize that those concepts are linked. However, Cuban (1988: xx) provides the clearest distinctions between leadership and management. He links leadership with change while management is seen as maintenance activity. Cuban focuses on the necessity of those twin dimensions of organizational activity and explains them as follows:

*By leadership, I mean influencing others’ actions in achieving desirable ends. Leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others. Frequently they initiate change to reach existing and new goals. Leadership takes much ingenuity, energy and skill.*

*Managing is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organizational arrangements. While managing well often exhibits leadership skills, the overall function is toward maintenance rather than change. I prize both managing and leading and attach no special value to either since different settings and times call for varied responses (xx).*

Law and Glover (2000) point out that leadership is frequently seen as an aspect of management. Leaders are characterized as charismatic individuals with visionary ability to motivate and enthuse others, even if they lack managerial or administrative skills to plan, organize and effectively control resources. They add that managers need, simply, to be good at everything leaders are not.

Bush (1998) has linked leadership to values or purpose while management relates to implementation or technical issues. However, Fidler (1997) has argued against a firm distinction between both concepts claiming that they have an intimate connection and a great deal of overlap, especially in respect of motivating people and giving a sense of purpose to the organization.

Bolman and Deal (1997) reconciled leading and managing, saying that even if they are distinct, they are both important. They noted that organizations which are over managed but under led
eventually lose any sense of spirit or purpose. Poorly managed organizations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporarily and crash shortly thereafter. They suggested that the challenge of the modern organization requires the objective perspective of the managers as well as the flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides. The implementation of leadership and management within a school, according to Gardner (2007), must be a partnership, a combined covering of the areas and styles required by the whole operation. A school with great leadership and chaotic management will be in trouble, perhaps happy (temporarily) but in debt. One with floppy leadership and watertight management will be in a different kind of trouble, successfully underachieving on the wrong road.

Bush (1999) adds that the field of educational leadership and management is pluralist, with many competing perspectives and an inevitable lack of agreement on the exact nature of the discipline. Educational leadership and management have to be centrally concerned with the purposes or aims of education. These purposes or goals provide the crucial sense of direction to underpin school management. Unless this link between purpose and management is clear and close, there is a danger of managerialism that puts a stress on procedures at the expense of educational purpose and values.

Gardner (2007) notes that leaders inspire, have imagination, and communicate passion and enthusiasm. They are believed and believed in. They set examples. They symbolize, embody and personify the enterprises they head. Often they act on impulse. They think laterally. They take risks. They say- or – imply: “follow me!” They are judged not by their shortcomings but rather by the pinnacles they achieve.

Cuban (1988) adds that managers plan, think ahead, explain, cover all eventualities, and issue instructions. They provide security. They count the costs and set targets. They know what the limitations of their work force are and they make good appointments. They weigh things up carefully. They are judged by how smoothly and efficiently things are run.

Bush (2007) clarifies the link between leadership and management through considerations of South Africa’s underperforming schools (Ministerial Review, 2004). He says that they required greater emphasis on basic management, such as making the organization functional, rather than focusing, only, on a visionary approach. It may consist of ensuring regular and timely attendance
by learners and teachers, maintaining order and discipline in schools and classrooms, and providing adequate resources to enable teaching and learning to be effective. When schools function adequately, Bush (2007) adds that leaders can progress to developing vision; and outlining clear goals and policies, with the confidence that systems are available to secure their achievement.

Kunene (2007) testifies that many centres of learning across South Africa overlook the role of leadership in providing and administering education. She said that, without the right leaders, school improvement projects are likely to fail, no matter how thorough the plans. Education authorities must consider the leadership pool as they shape strategy and align their leadership development programs with long-term aspirations. She goes on to say that the more effective the leadership of a school, the more effective the school is. More effective leadership is characterized by more stability, diversity, commitment to mission, effective goals, and effective management.

Bush and Glover (2002), Bush (2003) and Bush (2007) argue that there is global interest in educational leadership and management because of its inevitable place in development and maintaining successful schools and education systems. However, they add that there is much less clarity about which leadership behaviours are most likely to produce the most favourable outcomes. Nevertheless, the awareness of alternative approaches is essential to provide a set of tools from which discerning leaders can choose when facing problems and dealing with day-to-day educational issues.

Earley and Weindling (2004), and Bush and Glover (2003), conceptualize leadership as the activity of leading people, which implies that things are done through people, with the emphasis on relationships, communication, motivation and emotional intelligence. Therefore, the leader is more inclined to open communication and risk-taking, and less restricted by policies. Management refers to the more structured approach of working within the confines of rules, regulations and boundaries provided in a school situation. Heystek, Niemann, van Rooyen, Mosoge, and Bipath (2008) suggest that management and leadership are activities that a person has to perform in a position as head and in line with situational theory, a person may move between management and leadership depending on the situation. Some may tend to be more managers; structured, rule-bound and taking people or an organization to new levels because the
rules require it; while others are more inclined to be leaders who work with people and challenging them to aspire to new levels through motivation.

The next section deals with organizational structure and culture and the impact that the school principal may have on them.

**Organizational Structure and Culture**

This section focuses on the normative concepts of organizational structure and culture that underpin the leadership and management of the school by principal.

**Defining school culture**

Culture is a highly contested concept with multiple conceptualizations outlined in the literature on educational leadership and management. The researcher adopted a normative integrationist perspective that there can be a dominant culture within the school, and that this is controllable to some extent by the school principal, though other literature contests this view. This review presents some metaphor-based models, such as Handy and Aitken’s (1986) and Handy’s (1984) model of the club culture or spider’s web; the role culture or pyramid; the task culture or grid and the person culture or cluster. It also addresses Hargreaves’ (2002) perspective that compares whether the social control and social cohesion dimensions in schools are high or low for a school to improve learning and teaching. This consists of the formal school culture; the welfarist school culture; the hothouse school culture; and the survivalist school culture. However, as well as these normative school culture models, the broad range of literature in educational leadership and management recognizes the importance of the school principal’s crucial impact on school culture.

Morgan (1997) argues that culture must be understood as an active, living phenomenon through which people create and recreate the worlds in which they live. He adds that people must root their understanding of organization in the processes that produce systems of shared meaning and that organizations are socially constructed realities that are as much in the minds of their members as they are in concrete structures, rules and relations.
Schein (1997) argues that it is the leader who needs to embed and transmit culture. Leaders start the culture formation process by imposing their own assumptions on their subordinates and they get their message across through charismatic vision. Schein (2004) defines organizational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions that are invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with external adaptation and internal integration. These basic assumptions must have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore worth being taught to staff members as a useful way to perceive, think and feel in relation to problems. To survive and grow, every organization must develop viable assumptions about what to do and how to do it. Schein (2004) further argued that culture can be analyzed as a phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interaction with others. When one brings culture to the level of the organization, and even down to groups within the organization, one can see more clearly how it is created, embedded, developed and ultimately manipulated, managed and changed. These dynamic processes of culture creation and management are the essence of leadership; leadership and culture are conceptually intertwined. Leaders need to create a positive school culture to achieve excellence.

Davidoff and Lazarus (1997) commented that culture should be seen as the central factor when considering whole-school development interventions. The culture of the school comprises the values, the underlying norms which are given expression in daily practices, and the overall climate of the school. They added that a way of describing the culture of a school is by looking at the way we do things around here.

Bush (2003) asserted that cultural models emphasize the informal aspects of organizations rather than official elements. Cultural models assume that beliefs, values and ideology are at the heart of organizations and individuals hold certain ideas and value-preferences which influence how they behave and how they view the behavior of other members. These norms become shared traditions which are communicated within the group and are reinforced by symbols and ritual. Harris (1992) in Bush (2003) claimed that educational administration has a technical management aspect but is mainly about the culture within an organization. Culture includes the rituals which occur or should occur within an organization. Therefore, educational managers are taken to be capable of shaping ritual in educational institutions and leaders have a central role in influencing culture.
The interest in culture, as one element in school management, has increased. The focus on that intangible world of values and attitudes are a useful counter to bureaucratic assumptions and help producing a more balanced portrait of educational institutions (Bush, 2003).

O’Neill (1994) explained the significance of culture as follows:

... cultural descriptors in the literature of educational management is significant because it reflects a need for educational organizations to be able to articulate deeply held and shared values in more tangible ways and therefore respond more effectively to new, uncertain and potentially threatening demands on their capabilities. Organizations, therefore, articulate values in order to provide form and meaning for the activities of organizational members in the absence of visible and certain organizational structures and relationships. In this sense the analysis and influence of organizational culture become essential management tools in the pursuit of increased organizational growth and effectiveness. (O’Neill, 1994: 116)

Culture and structure

Coleman and Earley (2005) advanced that structures exist in any organization in order to facilitate the coordination of work and workers and in order to provide control over the people and activities within the organization. Therefore, structures may support power relationships, indicate the allocation of responsibility and the lines of command and coordination, as well as titles and job descriptions which help to designate the individual’s location, and their formal role in the structures.

Hoy (1994) argues that organizational culture has become a vehicle to beliefs, values, traditions, practices, policies and norms held by the people within the organization. The culture of the school is the most pervasive aspect of school life, and touches and affects every other aspect. Factors that determine a particular culture are the discipline practices, staff relations, and different views on authority, pupils’ behaviour and staff commitment to delegated tasks. For example, the culture of a dysfunctional school can be described as a culture of educators not adequately skilled, arriving late to school and class, not adequately prepared for lessons, and educators resenting school after the last bell has rung. This will affect the way teachers think about and value their teaching. It will also affect the way in which people relate to each other, the
way meetings are conducted, information is shared and the way that schools are managed. All of these will impact on the pupils’ attitude towards school and the general teaching and learning at the school (Davidoff and Lazarus, 1997).

Cunningham and Gresso (1993) assert that schools as organizations have to recognize that their organizational structure, behaviour and performance are all due to the culture of the school. These authors have stated that culture shapes the behaviour of any organization that in turn produces performance of the organization. Deal and Peterson (1999) believe that, beneath the conscious awareness of everyday life in schools, there is a stream of thought and activity. They added that the underground flow of feelings and folkways wends its way within schools, dragging people, programmes, and ideas towards often unstated purposes. The authors wrote that an invisible, taken for granted, flow of beliefs and assumptions gives meaning to what people say and do. It shapes how they interpret hundreds of daily transactions. This deeper structure of life in organizations is reflected and transmitted through symbolic language and expressive action. In short, culture consists of stable, underlying social meanings that shape beliefs and behaviours over time (Deal and Peterson, 1999). Deal & Peterson (1999) understood school culture as complex webs of traditions and rituals that have been built up over time as teachers, students, parents and administrators work together and deal with crisis and accomplishments. Fullan & Hargreaves (1998) add that school culture comprises the guiding beliefs and expectations that help schools to operate, particularly with regards to people relationships or failure to relate to each other.

Schein (1997) has portrayed culture as having three levels of existence and its most tangible face being artifacts which consist of visible organizational structures and processes. These artifacts may be formed of visible product of the group such as the architecture of its physical environment, its language, its technology and products, its artistic creations and its style as embodied in clothing, manner of address, emotional displays, myths and stories told about the organizations, published lists of values, observable rituals and ceremonies. The less evident face of school culture involves the espoused values, which are the strategies, goals, and philosophies expressed by leaders and members of the organizational culture. Schein pointed out that the most important point about this level of the culture is that it is easy to observe and very difficult to
decipher. Certain values are confirmed only by the shared social experience of a group. Such values involve the group’s internal relations, where the test of whether they work or not is how comfortable and anxiety-free members are when they follow them. The least evident are what Schein called the basic underlying assumptions that he explains as a set of values that becomes embodied in an ideology or organizational philosophy that can serve as a guide and a way of dealing with the uncertainty of intrinsically uncontrollable or difficult events. The author defined basic assumptions as concepts about which one finds little variation within a cultural unit. These assumptions define what one has to pay attention to, what things mean, how to react emotionally to what is going on, and what actions to take in various kinds of situations. It can provide a mental map in which people feel comfortable with others who share the same set of assumptions and very uncomfortable and vulnerable in situations where different assumptions operate.

Leadership and culture

Mohajeran and Ghaleei (2008) pointed out that the principal’s leadership style plays a major role in creating a positive and encouraging climate in the school and, in turn, influences school governance and school effectiveness. Obviously, principals are influenced by school culture and context, but they also shape that culture and context over time. Mohajeran and Ghaleei added that researchers have noted that principals in successful schools create a school culture that is caring, risk-taking, open, and supportive (Deal and Peterson, 1998; Waters, Marzano and McNulty, 2003). The authors argued that leadership is a two-way process in which the behaviours of the leaders influence school climate and are also a product of the school environment and interaction with others (Dinham, Cairney, Craigie and Wilson, 1995). A common finding across the schools Mohajeran and Ghaleei (2008) studied was the existence of generally positive cultures with varying degrees of inclusiveness. For example, in one of the government schools they dealt with, the Principal had to work within more constraints on his/her autonomy than the principals in other schools and this depended on the principal’s spirit to innovate. Yet the data indicated that, despite those constraints, the Principal was able to manage the school in a positive way through collaboration with all members of the school community.
Wallace (2000) implies that the largely internalized beliefs, symbols, values, norms and rules of behaviour, are shared by members of a group and guide their actions. Norms may be explicit, perhaps codified in formal policy, or implicit, surfacing only when someone transgresses them. The symbolic elements of culture are those in which actions represent shared values, as when the staff of a closing school participates in an event to mark its passing. A school staff’s professional culture includes beliefs and values spanning education, administration, interpersonal relationships. Where groups share distinctive beliefs and values, they may form sub-cultures. In such differentiated cultures, meanings are shared inside sub-cultural boundaries, but the beliefs and values of one group may be incompatible with those of other groups (Wallace: 2000).

Bush (2003) confirmed that structure may be regarded as the physical manifestation of the culture of the organization. There is a close link between culture and structure and both are indeed interdependent (Stoll, 1999 cited in Bush, 2003). Bush added that the values and beliefs of the institution are expressed in the pattern of roles and role relationships established by the school or college. O’Neill (1994) stated that the relationship between organizational structure and culture is of crucial importance. For example, the author said that a large and complex organizational structure increases the possibility of several cultures developing simultaneously within the one organization while a minimal organizational structure, like in schools, enhances the possibility of a solid culture guiding all area of organizational activity and the establishment of a unitary culture with wide and active endorsement within the institution requires skilled leadership to ensure transmission and reinforcement of the desired values and beliefs.

Davidoff and Lazarus (1997) argue that, although it is recognized that schools are particular kinds of organizations with particular goals, and ways of pursuing those goals, they also have features which are common to all organizations. In every organization, there are particular aspects or elements which make up that organization, and each of these needs to be functioning well for the whole to be healthy. Any unhealthy or malfunctioning element will have a negative ripple effect throughout the system. This is the central feature of any system.

School culture is not a static entity but it is constantly constructed and shaped through interactions with others (Finnan, 2000) Scholars argue that schools, like other organizations, are pulled in several ways by the demands of different cultures but it is the task of the leader to put
together the cultural forces, using the strengths of each in the right places (Handy, 1984) as there is no absolute model. For this reason, the development of school culture requires the involvement of all stakeholders. When all the staff are pulling in the same direction, they are more likely to achieve their goals. This is the implicit line on school culture, which emphasizes collaboration as a key to school effectiveness and improvement. However, in practice, there may be subcultures in schools rather than a single unified culture (Bush, 2011).

**Leadership models**

Leithwood et al. (1999) outline six main leadership models:

- **Instructional leadership**

  Instructional leadership has a focus on the centrality of teaching and learning and may appropriately be termed as learning-centred leadership that focuses on good teaching and learning aiming at effective achievement. The key concerns of instructional leaders are likely to be the curriculum, teaching and learning, and monitoring of learning.

- **Transformational leadership**

  The second style is transformational leadership, very often contrasted to transactional leadership. Transformational leadership is strongly related to building the capacity of members of the organization and is exercised by people other than the leader and its outcomes are likely to be of greater capacity and continuing improvement. Transactional leadership, as opposed to transformational, is identified as a contract between the leader and the led in terms of simple relationships which imply that the leader will look after the interest of the led as long as they carry out their contractual duties.

- **Moral leadership**

  The third category is moral leadership which places values at the heart of leadership and particularly important in the area of education since professional educators are in charge of caring for and developing young people. Coleman (2005) exemplified moral leadership type as outlined by Bhindi and Duigan (1999) who made a plea for authenticity in leadership which is centrally concerned with ethics and morality and with deciding what is significant, right and worthwhile.
Participative leadership

The fourth style is participative leadership which focuses on shared decision-making in the school. Therefore, leadership becomes distributed among the group and the organization becomes more democratic, with delegated power and school-based management leadership that values, involves and empowers all stakeholders.

Managerial leadership

The fifth style is managerial leadership that emphasizes technical and functional aspects of leadership. This style is often equated with bureaucratic and hierarchical organizations where one key leader is at the apex and exercising strong leadership. This style may also be called transactional, technical or organizational leadership; it is said to be formal, aims at efficient achievement of goals (Coleman, 2005), and its managerial aspect implies a cold approach to leadership which stresses efficiency at the cost of more humanistic values. It stresses on working to targets with little consideration of people.

Contingent leadership

The sixth model is contingent leadership which focuses on the variation in response of leaders to different leadership situations with the aim of increasing the capacity of the organization to respond productively to demands for change. The main issue is how an effective leader might use these different approaches.

While acknowledging that these and other models have been explored in the literature, the main focus in this chapter will be on instructional and transformational leadership because of Hallinger’s (2003) view that these are the dominant models in the research on school leadership.

The principal as an Instructional Leader

Instructional leadership is a concept developed in the 1980s and has been widely used by principals and defined by various authors. Bennett and Anderson (2003) understood that the main role of principals is the focus on the promotion of an effective instructional climate and on providing teachers with advice and support so that they can deliver quality teaching of the curriculum. Blasé and Blasé (2000) argued that it is an integration of tasks of direct assistance to teachers through group development, staff development and curriculum development. Similarly,
Van Deventer and Kruger (2003) pointed out five fundamental elements of an effective instructional principal: defining the school mission; managing the curriculum and instruction; supervising teaching; monitoring learner progress; and promoting an instructional climate.

The instructional leadership role is often conceived of as a blend of supervision, staff development and curriculum development that facilitates school improvement (Smith and Andrews, 1989; Chipa; Enueme and Egwenyenga, 2008).

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) wrote that principals believed they were highly involved in instruction and spend a large portion of their time in classrooms working with students and teachers (Casey, 1980). However, research indicated a discrepancy between this norm and principals’ actual instructional role, and showed that principals had not allocated a significant portion of their time to managing instructional activities. Numerous structured observation studies reported that school administrators tended to spend most of their work day on managerial tasks unrelated to instruction (Crowson, Hurwitz, Morris, and Porter-Gehrie, 1981; Friesen and Duignan, 1980; Hannaway, 1978; Martin and WIl-lower, 1981; Peterson, 1977-1978; Pit-ner, 1982; Willis, 1980; Willower and Kmetz, 1982). Hallinger and Murphy noted that other studies indicated that most principals infrequently evaluated instruction; evaluations they did perform tended to be neither systematic nor valid (Cohen and Miller, 1980; Dornbusch and Scott, 1975; Lortie, 1969, 1975, Hallinger and Murphy, 1985). Research also showed that principals did not usually control or develop instructional practices (Deal and Celotti, 1979, Hallinger and Murphy, 1985).

Hallinger’s (2003) conceptual and empirical review of principal instructional leadership roles found that the increasing salience of principal instructional leadership during the 1980s did not initially emerge from research conducted on instructional leaders. Instead, the importance of this role of the principal was inferred from studies that examined change implementation (e.g. Hall and Hord, 1987), school effectiveness (Edmonds, 1979; Rutter et al., 1979), school improvement (e.g. Edmonds, 1979) and programme improvement (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982). Scholars conducting research in each of these domains consistently found that the skilful leadership of school principals was a key contributing factor when it came to explaining successful change, school improvement, or school effectiveness. Hallinger observed that the
conceptualizations of the principal leadership roles were based on instructional leadership that focused predominantly on the role of the school principal in coordinating, controlling, supervising, and developing curriculum and instruction in the school (Bamburg and Andrews, 1990; Hallinger and Murphy, 1985).

Murphy (1990), Gurr, Drysdale and Mulford (2006), showed that, in the 1980s and Early 1990s, instructional leadership, perhaps, reached its zenith in North America with the focus of leadership studies that concerned the instructional leadership role of the principal. Murphy (1990) proposed a framework for viewing instructional leadership role of the principal, in a major review of the instructional leadership literature that included studies of administrative work activities, analyses of administrative training programs, and investigations of administrative coordination and control which included four major dimensions:

- Developing mission and goals which include framing and communicating school goals. Effective principals have vision and the ability to develop shared purpose through the way they communicated their vision for their school.

- Managing the educational production function which includes promoting quality instruction, informally supervising instruction, evaluating instruction, allocating and protecting instructional time, active involvement in coordinating the curriculum, extending content coverage by developing and enforcing homework policies that require regular homework, and actively monitoring student progress.

- Promoting an academic learning climate which include establishing positive expectations and standards, maintaining high visibility in the classroom and around the school, providing incentives for teachers (e.g. increased responsibility, personal support, public and private praise and encouragement) and students (e.g. school-wide recognition systems, special emphasis on academic excellence), and promoting and encouraging professional development of teachers.

- Developing a supportive work environment which includes creating a safe and orderly learning environment through emphasizing effective discipline programs, providing opportunities for meaningful student involvement (e.g. system-wide activity programs, formal recognition for successful student participation, use of school symbols to bond students to school), developing staff collaboration and cohesion through having clear
goals and opportunities for teachers to be involved in professional interchanges and decision making, securing outside resources in support of school goals, and forging links between the home and the school (Murphy, 1990: ).

In addition, several research studies in educational management have reported that a principal, in his/her role as an instructional leader, has a significant impact on creating a more effective school leading to higher levels of student achievements (Quinn, 2002; Cotton, 2003; Gold, et al., 2003; Gamage, 2006b; Gentilucci and Muto, 2007; Gamage, Adams and McCormack, 2009). Further, Cotton (2003) claimed that an effective school principal establishes a clear focus on students learning by having a vision, clear learning goals, and high expectations for learning for all students, establishes interactions and cordial relationships with relevant stakeholders through communication and interaction, emotional and interpersonal support, accessibility, and parents/community participation in the school activities; develops a school culture conducive to teaching and learning through shared leadership and decision-making, collaboration, risk-taking that leads to continuous improvements; provides instructional leadership through discussions of instructional issues, observing classroom teaching and giving feedback, supporting teacher autonomy and protecting instructional time; and is accountable for effective and supporting continuous improvements through monitoring progress and using student data for programme improvements.

Harchar and Hyle (1996) investigated principals’ instructional leadership strategies in the midwest of the USA. For this purpose, grounded theory with a choice of open-ended interviews was employed. The study involved new school administrators, veteran administrators with experience of five years or more, and administrators who had taken up central office positions. These administrators have demonstrated close and friendly relationships with teachers and students; sharing a keen interest in student achievement, and actively participated in professional organizations. Harchar and Hyle (1996) concluded that excellent instructional leaders are very important and they are a vital part of effective schools in bringing schools up to high standards of student achievement as expected and demanded by most educators and communities. Accordingly, instructional leaders need to lead the teachers, students, and the community for
creating excellent schools by collaboratively establishing visions, developing trust, and earning the respect of all in school communities.

Whitaker (1997) understands the instructional leadership role as the provision of educational resources and support to the teachers and learners by the principal to improve teaching and learning at school. He, therefore, proposes four areas of strategic interaction for effective instructional leadership role: an instructional leader is an instructional resource, a resource provider, a communicator and a visible presence. Van Deventer and Kruger (2003) also found the instructional leadership task of the principal to be a multifaceted task, i.e. combining task and people-orientated management tasks to create a school environment in which teaching and learning can be realized effectively.

Quinn (2002) employed a survey and observations to conduct a study of the role of the school principal as an instructional leader and its relationship to changing instructional practices in improving student performances. His survey of the Seattle School district included 94 Likert-type items that measured schools’ organizational characteristics, such as strong leadership; dedicated staff; monitoring of student progress; high expectations; positive learning climate; early identification of learning problems; curriculum continuity; multicultural education; and gender equity. The survey was completed by one-third of the instructional faculty. They were randomly chosen from each of the 24 schools located across Missouri, USA. Based on analysis of the survey and observation data, Quinn (2002) employed the Pearson-product moment correlation and found that there was a relationship between strong instructional leadership of the principal and students’ success and academic achievements. He reported that the instructional leadership roles of the principals in terms of providing resources, instructional support, communicating, and being in visible presence at schools were essential to provide an atmosphere in engaging the teachers corresponded with student success and academic achievements.

Smith, Sparks and Thurlow (2001) asserted that the instructional leadership role implies that the principal is the figurehead in the school, who establishes the school’s academic goals, provides motivation to educators and learners, supports the educators with the needed instructional resources, communicates high performance expectations to the educators and designs policies and procedures by which to promote teaching and learning at school (Belle, 2007).
Blasé and Blasé (1999) investigated teachers’ perspectives on how principals promote a culture of teaching and learning in USA and have described their findings about how principals developed collaborative and problem-solving contexts for dialogue about instruction. They investigated the question about what characteristics such as strategies, behaviours, attitudes, goals of school principals that positively influence classroom teaching, and what effects do such characteristics have on classroom instruction.

Blasé and Blasé’s (1999) research showed two major elements, which are the principal talking with teachers to promote reflection, and promoting their professional growth. Concerning the principal –teacher talk to promote reflection, the results showed that effective principals valued dialogue that encouraged teachers to critically reflect on their teaching and learning and professional practice. The dialogue is based on five primary talking strategies including making suggestions, giving feedback, modeling, using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and giving praise. The authors noticed that principals made suggestions to teachers both during post-observation conferences and informally in their day-to-day interactions. They were purposeful, appropriate, non-threatening suggestions featured by listening, sharing their experience, using examples and demonstrations, giving teachers choice, contradicting outdated or destructive policies, encouraging risk-taking, offering professional literature, recognizing teachers’ strengths, and maintaining a focus on instructional improvement.

Blasé and Blasé (1999) also noted that effective instructional principals also provide feedback. Such principals held up a mirror, served as another set of eyes, and were critical friends, while engaging in thoughtful discourse with teachers. The feedback strategy emphasized classroom observation behaviour, was specific in the expression of care and interest, providing praise and oriented on problem-solving to respond to students’ concerns, through the principal’s availability for follow-up talk. This procedure impacted positively on teacher reflection, innovation and creativity, instructional variety, risk-taking, and better planning for instruction. Effective instructional principals adopted the following strategies; modeling; using inquiry and soliciting advice/opinions; and giving praise. Through these strategies, principals demonstrated teaching techniques in classrooms, modeled positive interactions with students; used a questioning
approach with teachers and frequently solicited teachers’ advice and opinions about instructional matters.

The second theme analysed by Blasé and Blasé (1999) is the principal’s instructional role to promote professional instructional growth that focused on emphasizing the study of teaching and learning; supporting collaborative efforts among educators; developing coaching relationships among them; encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes; applying the principles of adult learning, growth, and development to all phases of staff development; and implementing action research to inform instructional decision-making. However, Blasé & Blasé concluded that principals' instructional leadership strategies were in their infancy, thus no strong effects on teachers were apparent in their data.

Hallinger (2003), and Gurr, Drysdale and Mulford (2006), showed that the north American view of instructional leadership, as strong directive leadership focused on curriculum and instruction from the principal, is currently criticized because it tends to focus on the principal as the centre of power and authority while a more recent conceptualization spreads beyond the principal and includes all activities that affect teaching and learning. Gurr et al.’s (2006) research on school principals from Australian case studies proved that the instructional leadership role of the principal is now as important as at any other time. The authors added that the unrelenting focus on students’ outcomes, increasing use of design approaches to school reform, and consideration of the link between schooling and the knowledge society, have forced the principals to reassess their role and reassert their instructional expertise. This view is strongly supported in Australia and Hill (2002) suggested that, for schools to improve student outcomes, principals should devote more time to establishing preconditions and interventions directed at improving teaching and learning, and reduce time devoted to administrative and managerial roles.

Fulmer (2006) conducted a qualitative study to explore the principal’s instructional leadership role and its impact on instructional behaviors of teachers that leads to improve students’ achievements. The data was collected from 25 pre-service principals on their reflections in becoming instructional leaders along with secondary data from progress and curriculum intervention reports. The findings indicated that the instructional leadership role was crucial for
lasting and productive changes in schools and that instructional intervention of principals did impact on the thinking and behaviours of teachers to improve student achievement.

The most frequently conceptualized instructional principal leadership roles, according to Hallinger (2000), are to define the school’s mission, to manage the instructional program, and to promote a positive school-learning climate. The author suggested the functions of a school principal should be framing and communicating the school’s goals, working with staff to ensure that the school goals are clear, measurable, focused on academic progress, and involving the whole school community. He added that the principal should also be involved in managing the instructional program, focusing on coordination and involvement in control of instruction and curriculum, for example supervising, evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress and yet assuming the development of the academic school work is a key leadership responsibility of the principal (Hallinger and Murphy, 1985).

**Leadership for Learning**

Hallinger (2010) argues that the fervour of debates over which model offers the greatest leverage for understanding how school leaders contribute to learning has reduced in recent years. Empirical results across a large number of studies have begun to show fairly consistent patterns of impact, and the term leadership for learning has come to subsume features of instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and shared leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Heck and Hallinger, 2009; MacBeath and Cheng, 2008; Marks and Printy, 2003; Mulford and Silins, 2009).

Mulford and Silins (2003), Hallinger (2000 ), Day et al., (2010), Leithwood et al., (2006, 2010), MacBeath and Cheng (2008), and Robinson et al., (2008) say that leadership for learning describes approaches that school leaders employ to achieve important school outcomes, with a particular focus on student learning. While the term instructional leadership originally focused on the role of the principal, leadership for learning suggests a broader conceptualization that incorporates both a wider range of leadership sources as well as additional foci for action.
Dimensions of leadership for learning

Hallinger (2009) states that a legacy of the effective schools movement has been the institutionalization of the term instructional leadership into the vocabulary of educational leadership and management. Instructional leadership came to prominence as a paradigm for school leadership and management in the 1980s before being eclipsed by transformational leadership in the 1990s. Instructional leadership has recently been reincarnated as a global phenomenon in the form of leadership for learning. The author adds that leadership for learning has evolved out of earlier research and practice grounded in the concept of instructional leadership. It is a credit to the field that current conceptions of leadership have evolved through a cycle of conceptualization, research, critique, implementation in practice, further research, and reconceptualization. Based on this review, Hallinger (2009) summarizes four key areas in which leadership for learning adds value to the earlier conception of instructional leadership:

• Leadership for Learning as an organizing construct for school leadership is not limited to the principal as was the case with instructional leadership. It incorporates the notion of shared instructional leadership (Barth, 2001; Lambert, 2002; Marks and Printy, 2003).

• Leadership for Learning incorporates awareness that instructional leadership practices must be adapted to the nature and needs of the school’s particular context; there is no one-size-fits-all model available for quick dissemination and implementation (Leithwood et al., 2004, 2006).

• Leadership for Learning integrates educational features grounded in conceptions of instructional leadership with selected features of transformational models such as modeling, individual focus, and capacity development (Hallinger, 2003, Leithwood et al., 2004, 2006, Robinson et al., 2008).

• Leadership for learning can be viewed as a process of mutual influence in which leadership is but one key factor in a process of systemic change (Heck and Hallinger, 2009b).

An additional point is that leadership for learning focuses on learning while the main emphasis of instructional leadership is teaching (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2010).
Research on leadership for learning

Swaffield, and MacBeath, (2009) found that learning is a continuous activity, a social process, as children and young people individually and collectively construct identity, make meaning out of experience, and strive to build a repertoire of knowledge and skill. Leadership assumes a similar configuration - social processes, transformational and empowering in intent, but within an organization which, by its very nature, constrains and compels activity and places tight parameters round the exercise of agency.

MacBeath and Dempster (2009) argued about the complex nexus of leadership functions that constitute the key to the relationship between what leaders do and the achievement of educational organisations. They pointed out that there is no firm definition of the term ‘leadership for learning’ either nationally or internationally and usage is likely to be influenced by the immediate context of the educational organisation within which the discourse is located and the prevailing policy and cultural conditions of the country involved. However, the authors provided five major principles that underpin leadership for learning, including: shared or distributed leadership; a focus on learning; creation of the conditions favourable for learning; creation of a dialogue about leadership and learning; and, the establishment of a shared sense of accountability.

Rhodes and Brundrett (2010) examined the link between leadership and learning and showed that, despite the increasing emphasis on leadership and learning, unpacking the ways in which leaders can impact on learning has been problematic. Brundrett and Silcock (2002) confirmed that this is partly due to the fact that theories of learning have tended traditionally to offer two opposing views which emphasise either teacher-centred or pupil-centred approaches which can be characterised as ‘top-down’ or ‘bottom-up’ attitudes. Rhodes and Brundrett (2010) recognized that recent researchers (e.g. Shayer and Adey, 2002) drew on developments in cognitive theories to resolve this dichotomy by supporting co-constructivist techniques (Broadfoot, 2000) whereby twin perspectives that are both top down and bottom up are encouraged (Biggs, 1992). Within this co-constructivist approach, all members of staff cooperate, negotiate, resolve differences, mediate between options, and generally act in a socially skilled manner to reach decisions that will enhance student learning.
Burton and Brundrett (2005) confirmed that the new architecture of learning theory has thus caused a revolution in the perceived role of school leaders at all levels in the system since it has become clear that new forms of leadership that accentuate collaboration and distribution of power and authority are themselves central to learning.

Rhodes and Brundrett (2010) suggested that school heads improve teaching and learning indirectly through their influence on staff motivation, development, well-being and working conditions. The notion of becoming a learning-centred institution has emerged as a term that denotes that schools or colleges place both student and staff learning at the core of their work. Staff learning may be collaborative and shared in the sense of a learning community to serve the organisation in its endeavours to change, improve and further support student learning outcomes. The leadership of such a venture may be termed leadership for learning.

As leadership for learning integrates educational features grounded in both conceptions of instructional leadership, with selected features of transformational leadership, (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2004, 2006; Robinson et al. 2008), the next section deals with the role of the principal as a transformational leader.

The principal as a Transformational Leader

Mees (2008) noted that the theory of transformational leadership was first dealt with by Burns (1978), and was later extended by Bass (Liontos, 1992). While Burns and Bass studied transformational leadership in relation to political and business leaders, and army officers, (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Liontos, 1992), Leithwood and his colleagues extended the study of transformational leadership into the field of education (Stewart, 2006) and developed the most complete model of school transformational leadership (Leithwood and Duke, 1999).

Lambert (1998), Leithwood and Louis (1999) contend that transformational leadership seeks to generate second-order effects. The authors understand transformational leadership as the ability to increase the capacity of others in the school to produce first-order effects on learning. For example, transformational leaders create a climate in which teachers engage in continuous learning and in which they routinely share their learning with others. Transformational leaders work with others in the school community to identify personal goals and then link these to the
broader organisational goals (Barth, 1990; Lambert, 2002). This approach is believed to increase the commitment of the staff who see the relationship between what they are trying to accomplish and the mission of the school. These changes are conceived as second-order effects in the sense that the principal creates the conditions under which others are committed and self-motivated to work towards the improvement of the school without specific direction from above. Transformational leadership is often considered as a type of shared or distributed leadership. Rather than a single individual—the principal—coordinating and controlling from above, transformational leadership focuses on stimulating change through bottom-up participation (Day et al., 2001; Jackson, 2000; Marks and Printy, 2003). Indeed, transformational leadership models may explicitly conceptualise leadership as an organisational entity rather than the property of a single individual, accounting for multiple sources of leadership.

**Dimensions of transformational leadership**

Leithwood (1994) has conceptualized transformational leadership along eight dimensions that are based on building school vision, establishing school goals; providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, modeling best practices and important organizational values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture, developing structure to foster participation in school decisions.

Senge et al. (1999, 2000), and Marks and Printy (2003), stated that schools depend on the principal’s transformational leadership role to shape productive futures through a process of self-renewal and to enlarge the leadership capacity of schools attempting to improve their academic performance. Some principals involve teachers in sustained dialogue and decision making about educational matters. While remaining central agents for change, these principals recognize teachers as equal partners in this process, acknowledging their professionalism and capitalizing on their knowledge and skills (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Rowan, 1990; Marks and Printy, 2003).

Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) say that transformational leadership evolved into an interpretation which includes three categories and nine practices of transformational principal leadership role (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). The first category, setting direction, is evident in a leader’s ability to demonstrate competencies in the three practices of building a vision, developing specific goals and priorities, and conveying high performance expectations (Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach,
The second category, developing people, consists of three practices; providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, and modeling desirable professional practices and values (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood et al., 2006). The final category lies in redesigning the organization and also has three practices; developing a collaborative school culture, creating structures which foster participation in school decisions, and creating productive community relationships (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood et al., 2006).

Leithwood et al. (2000) denotes that a transformation leader facilitates a redefinition of people’s mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment and restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment. The transformational principal leadership role, therefore, is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into the leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. Hence, transformational leadership role is grounded in moral foundations. Bass (1997) added that transformational leadership occurs when the leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group, and when they stir employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group.

Gamage (1990) asserted that it is necessary for a transformational principal to understand where he or she stands along the leadership continuum in leading and managing a school towards improving student achievements. The author added that transformational principal has a clear understanding of the major dimensions of his or her position, that includes: the aims and goals which his or her school is attempting to achieve; the means or the resources available to achieve these goals; the degree of freedom delegated to him or her by the employing authority to innovate or modify existing educational methods and procedures in order to achieve these goals; the legal, traditional and personal authority vested in the role of the principal; the constraints and boundaries likely to limit school-based decisions; and the extent of the principal’s responsibility and accountability for funding, staffing and administration of the school.
Research on transformational leadership

Leithwood (2003) refers to Ross and Gray’s (2006) large-scale study in two districts of Ontario, Canada. This focused on how transformational school principal leaders have contributed to increased student’s achievements by building teachers’ professional commitment and beliefs, and their collective capacity, through raising the values of members, motivating them to go beyond self-interest to embrace organizational goals. The study found that teacher’s beliefs in their capacity and their professional commitment mediated the impact of principals on student achievements. The results showed that the principals who adopted a transformational leadership style had a positive impact on teacher beliefs in collective capacity and commitment to organizational values. The authors asserted that the transformational leadership role has influenced teachers’ professional commitment to a school’s vision, professional community, school norms of collegiality, collaboration, and joint work, as well as a commitment to community partnerships. Further, teachers who were found more committed to organizational values were more likely to adopt instructional practices encouraged by the organization, assisted their colleagues, and worked harder to achieve organizational goals, and contributed to higher levels of student achievement.

Rutherford (2002) conducted similar research on the impact of collaborative working environments in enhancing student performance and achievements, in six high-achieving Catholic primary schools in Birmingham. He found that the successful head-teachers or principals promoted collegial approaches while practicing positive, dynamic, and flexible transformational leadership styles.

Dinham (2004) explored the transformational role of principals in producing outstanding education outcomes in Years 7 to 10. Through triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data from 38 secondary schools across New South Wales, the author concluded that the principal’s leadership was taken to be the key factor in the achievement of outstanding educational outcomes with both subject departments where teams were responsible for across the school programs. Therefore, he identified six factors of principal leadership contributing to outstanding educational outcomes which are an external awareness and engagement; a bias towards innovation and action; personal qualities and relationship; vision, expectations and a culture of
success; teacher learning, responsibility and trust; student support, common purpose and collaboration; the core category of factors being focused on students’ learning and teaching.

Gurr, Drysdale and Mulford (2006) conducted a study on transformational principal leadership that demonstrated changes through achieving individual potential, student engagement, self confidence and self-direction, a sense of identity, and literacy and numeracy outcomes, in Victoria and Tasmania, Australia. The principals for the study were selected on criteria based on the reputation of the schools, the acknowledged change of the principals by peers, and evidence of improved student outcomes over time. Deep reflection of the participants was facilitated by open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews. They found that their values and beliefs of principals, and capacity building, did contribute to the student outcomes. The principals’ values and beliefs were grouped into three main categories: innate goodness and passion demonstrated through honesty, empathy and commitment to equity; being open and flexible believing that all can learn; and dispersed leadership and responsibility. School capacity building was focused on school culture through collegiality, collaboration, support and trust, school structure through shared decision-making, distributed leadership, and school wide professional learning, were built through good communication and a carefully managed change process.

Marks and Printy (2003) compared these two major conceptions of school leadership i.e. instructional and transformational, to examine the potential relations between principals and teachers and found that, in the late 1980s, the hierarchical orientation of the instructional role of the principal conflicted with the democratic and participative organization of schools that emerged with school restructuring and the movement to empower teachers as professional educators (Marks and Louis, 1997; Marks and Printy, 2003). They found that, functioning as leaders; principals serve to transform school cultures or to maintain them (Firestone and Louis, 1999; Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999, Marks and Printy, 2003).

In conclusion, a transformational school principal leads to increased student performance through cultural change based on strong school leadership and management. This requires setting appropriate school vision and goals in conformity with school and systemic expectations linked to students’ progress monitoring, and the involvement of all school stakeholders, to stimulate school performance and student achievement.
The role of the Principal in Developing Countries

Oplatka (2005) refers to developing countries as the countries outside Europe and North America, with a few exceptions of countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Japan. Developing countries were ruled by Europeans for a long time, their economy is more agricultural-based, and they are usually characterized by high mortality rates, high birth rates, high levels of poverty, and large gaps between rich and poor. However, even though the developing countries share some similarities, they have many differences. They have diverse cultures, political systems, economies, religions, and aspirations. These differences may contribute to dissimilarities in school principalship among these developing countries (Oplatka, 2005).

Oplatka’s (2004) research on the principalship in developing countries shows that, although there is no single portrait of school principalship in developing countries, some common features were revealed, such as limited autonomy, an autocratic school leadership style, summative evaluation, low degree of change initiation, and lack of instructional leadership functions. He added that education systems are structured in very different ways. The dissimilarities stem, at least in part, from cultural, national and sociological contexts underpinning education in any nation. In that sense, cultural contexts impact on principals’ sets of attitudes, values and norms for behavior which may be very different from those used by school leaders in other contexts (Heck, 1996; Dimmock and Walker, 1998; Oplatka, 2008).

Education in developing countries, as well as in the developed nations, has always been taken as the cornerstone of socio-economic growth and development. Quality education is inevitably a key component for nations to compete in the 21st century global economy. Confronted by the global economic market, and a demand for high quality in the work place, developing countries have attempted to prioritize their quality education systems. These concerns are reflected in the large scale educational reforms that have been taking place all over the world in the name of decentralization and school restructuring, through reforms that are directed towards improving the quality of education (Nguni, 2005).
Oplatka (2004) noted that, in most developing countries, principals’ power is severely limited by the rules of the systems. The educational system in these countries is highly centralized, constraining principals’ autonomy, a situation that has not changed dramatically subsequent to decentralization reforms introduced in some developing countries (for example China, Thailand, Singapore, Malta, Botswana) during the 1990s and this is also exemplified by the case of the creation of the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) in Rwanda in which principals have no direct role to play regarding the main responsibilities dedicated to NCDC.

The author confirmed that government is directly responsible for a host of educational issues. The Ministry of Education (MoE) in many African and Asian countries, including China, Thailand, Singapore, Malta, Nigeria and Pakistan, designs a unified national curriculum, syllabus, materials and exams, and guides, funding and staffing of schools, including, principals’ appointment, and teacher selection, recruitment and staff development (Uwazurike, 1991; Fenech, 1994; Hallinger et al., 1994; Ligger et., 1997; Simkins et al., 1998; Morris et al., 1999).

**Principals’ Leadership in Africa**

**Principals’ training**

Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997) researched the problems facing beginning principals in Kenyan secondary schools, and noted that, despite the growing awareness of the importance of school principal and the unique problems faced by new principals, very little is known in general about problems facing school principals, being new or experienced, in developing countries. Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997) claimed that the means by which most principals in developing countries, such as Kenya, are trained, selected and inducted are ill-suited to the development of effective and efficient school managers. Their findings demonstrated that principals in Kenya face problems that are uniquely and typically associated with developing countries and mostly relate to lack of pre and in-service training, management problems, instructional problems, relationship problems and student problems (e.g. lack of school fees, shortage of school equipment, long distance etc.). These are ascribed to the failure of educational systems in most developing countries to provide adequate financial support for their schools.
Bush and Oduro (2006) pointed out that principals in Africa face a daunting challenge as they work in poorly equipped schools with inadequately trained staff. Principals rarely have formal leadership training and are mostly appointed to that position on the basis of their teaching record rather than their leadership potential. In most cases, school principals’ induction and support are usually limited and therefore they adopt a pragmatic approach to carry out their day–to–day duties.

Many scholars still wonder about how school principals in Africa conduct their responsibilities since there is no formal requirement for principals to be trained managers. Kitavi and van der Westhuizen (1997) said that principals are often appointed on the basis of a successful record as teachers, implying that this provides a sufficient starting point for school leadership. They say that, in Kenya, deputy principals as well as good assistant teachers are appointed to the principalship without any leadership training while teaching abilities are not indicators of educational management capacity. Herriot et al. (2002) add that many Kenyan principals have become leaders of schools on the basis of dubious qualifications, often of a personal nature, rather than relevant experience and proven skills in the field of management. Amezu-Kpeglo (1990) reveals that the Ghana Education Service assumes that successful teachers necessarily make effective school administrators. Oplatka (2004) adds that, in some African countries such as Nigeria and Botswana, teaching experience may even not be necessary, since principals are not even appointed on quality criteria regarding their teaching performance. Many have never been in a classroom and political connections may be a dominant factor in their appointment.

However, Oplatka (2008) recognized that principalship and educational management is a fast-moving field in developing countries, and it is likely that some countries are rapidly changing. For example, the Kenyan government recognized the significance of training principals in management practices (Herriot et al., 2002). Similarly, the Ministry of Education in Zambia reconstructed its approach to the management and implementation of education (Miti and Herriot, 1997).
Principals’ leadership styles

DeJaeghere et al. (2009), writing about the Ugandan educational system, showed that demand for, and attention to, secondary education has grown in the past decade, for three reasons. First, the greater completion of primary education, in part as a result of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), place more demands on secondary school principals and other staff members. Second, there is recognition that educating these young people has an impact not only on their lives, but also on the development of their country and of future generations. Finally, increased attention is being given to new competencies, knowledge and skills needed to participate in changing national and international systems, and secondary education has an important role to play in developing these competencies (World Bank, 2005). These reasons are all present in the policy initiative for universal secondary education (USE) in Uganda (Keating, 2001; Penny et al., 2008; DeJaeghere et al., 2009), and are also relevant for other developing countries, including Rwanda.

Zame, Hope, Warren and Respress (2008) report on multiple educational reforms in Ghana that sought to improve quality education from the colonial period. The Ghana Education Service (GES) developed the Head Teachers’ Handbook with the purpose to improve quality teaching and learning at basic school level through its expectations of head teacher behaviour. The authors noted that not all the reforms had focused on the development of head teachers’ school leadership proficiencies, which are integral to the success or failure of the reforms. They added that Ghana still faces school leadership challenges related to head teachers’ professional development.

Zame et al.’s (2008) research conducted in Ghana showed that principals (head teachers) have a major effect on virtually every aspect of school life. Their decision-making and influence reverberate throughout the school and the community. The authors claimed that effective school principals have the following aptitudes and characteristics: principal as an initiator i.e. s/He gets the project started; principal as an innovator i.e. who sustains, supports or brings new strategies; principal as a motivator means s/ He influences others through collaboration to set, reach vision, aims, goals and objectives; principal as a calculator which means that s/He sets the school activities on a clear strategic plan; principal as a communicator i.e. someone who communicates
vision, leads school community members’ vision ownership, stimulates school wide community relationships.

Botha’s research in South Africa (2004) showed that the principal is the educational leader and manager of a school and, therefore, is responsible for the work performance of all the people in the school i.e. both staff and learners. Effective principals consider people as human resources of schools, and use material resources such as finance, information equipment, and other facilities, to produce an educated learner. Their major concern is to help the school achieve a high level of performance through the utilization of all its human and material resources and this has to be done through effective, and ultimately excellence in, leadership. More simply, Botha argues that a principal’s role is to get things done by working with, and through, other people. In this aspect, the leadership role of a school principal is of utmost importance and also the most important element of the principal’s duty. Botha (2004) demonstrated that the principal should be a visionary leader, who leads the school community in its development to use more effective teaching and curricular strategies, and supports educators’ efforts to implement new programs and processes. To accomplish his/her responsibilities, school principals should be instructional and transformational leaders.

Botha (2004) reviewed literature on the changing role of the professional principal in South Africa and found that, traditionally, school principals had more managerial and administrative tasks, and less teaching duties, than those in Western countries. However, Caldwell (1997) and Botha (2004) viewed the image of the contemporary school principal as an educational strategist in which s/he is to be an expert in the areas associated with instructional and transformational leadership, but in which special emphasis is given to the principal being able to formulate strategic intentions.

The role of the principal in centralized contexts

Oduro (2008), focusing on educational leadership and quality education in disadvantaged communities in Tanzania and Ghana, recognised that, at the centre of various strategies for accelerating the achievement of quality teaching and learning, is effective school principal leadership at all levels of the school system. The author noted that quality indicators should move beyond inputs governments provide in terms of infrastructure, teachers and materials.
Greater attention should be given to what happens in the classroom, with specific reference to teaching and learning time utilization. The author suggested a need for policy makers to be guided by the fact that providing expanding access through the construction of classrooms and increasing enrolment, as well as decentralizing decisions, does not guarantee quality in education. What matters most is how principals, teachers and pupils make use of the resources available to promote teaching and learning.

The study of policy development in Ghana and Tanzania suggests, however, that generally school leaders are still locked into a technicist, civil-servant transactional mode of operation (Oduro, 2008). Most principals are seen as being responsible for carrying out Ministry orders rather than acting as professional educators, leading fellow colleagues in an endeavour to improve the education received by pupils (Zame et al. 2008). Headteachers need to be empowered to provide the requisite leadership for implementing quality education initiatives (Oduro, 2008).

Vusi (2009) explored the School Governing Bodies’ perceptions of the role of school principals in the democratic governance of secondary schools in South Africa. He showed that Governors viewed the principal as in charge of the professional management of the school, who ensures that all duties are carried out adequately, sets the tone in SGB meetings, and is responsible for interpreting education policies and ensuring that they are well implemented, including the curriculum. Governors view principals as the engine of the school, playing a positive role in SGBs and as a resource person for other members on the SGBs. Vusi found that principals have the responsibility of ensuring the maximum participation of both parent and learner governors in decision-making in SGBs, so as to create conditions which are in line with democratic principles of participation.

However, the author added that principals should be willing to share their power and authority for the effective functioning of the SGBs. Principals should also contribute greatly to school governance issues, since they are usually at an advantage in terms of their familiarity with official regulations, provincial directives and knowledge of educational reform measures. In addition, principals should guard against the danger of a conflict of roles, which may manifest in
power struggles, and might occur when principals take crucial decisions without involving parent and learner governors. If principals overplay their roles, they may end up usurping powers, which may reduce the SGB to a puppet status. Principals have wide-ranging duties on top of their traditional duties, as they have to introduce new members to legal issues affecting SGBs so as to prevent discrepancies in SGBs. However, because of their position, principals can be intimidating to learners; it is thus their responsibility to counteract this by encouraging learner participation. The researcher suggests that principals should create space for debate and dialogue for parents and learners to participate sufficiently in SGBs. In this way issues of inclusion, democracy and social justice would prevail and there would be a great potential for their voice to be heard and they would feel the sense of belonging. They would therefore engage fruitfully in dialogue, as they feel included in debates and decision-making processes, thus arriving at what Martin and Holt refer to as ‘joined-up governance’. Silencing the voice of learners implicitly or explicitly would mean that issues of social justice and democracy are not taken into account in SGBs.

The next sections discuss the Rwandan principals’ roles, and the principals’ job descriptions, as a starting point for exploring how principals enact their roles.

The Role of the Principal in Rwanda

Kitavi and van der Westhuizen’s (1997) overview of school leadership in Africa suggests that the school principal is the most important and influential individual in any school. It is his/her leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for the learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers and degree of concern for what students may or may not become… If a school is vibrant, innovative, child-centered place, it has a reputation for excellence… If students are performing to the best of their ability, one can always point to the principal’s leadership as the key to that success. Their research provides a starting point, to understand how principals in Rwanda lead and manage their schools.

The OECD (2005) states that school governance structures vary by country (and sometimes within country), and these variations help shape the roles, responsibilities and societal
expectations of school leaders. In highly centralized systems, for example, where virtually all important decisions about curriculum, assessment, teacher hiring and school budgets are made centrally or regionally, the school leader’s job is more narrowly confined to implementing policies decided elsewhere. At the other end of the continuum, in systems that have devolved authority over curriculum, personnel, and budgets to the school level, the school leader’s job is obviously very different, with a much higher premium on creativity and entrepreneurial skills. In some instances, principals in high-reform nations are even being asked to take on systemic leadership responsibilities, leading networks of schools in transformative change (Hopkins, 2005). In most countries, however, school governance is closer to the middle of the continuum, with some functions centralized, others decentralized, and substantial interplay among leaders at the different levels of the system. The author’s research will seek to establish where the role of the Rwandan principal fits in this continuum.

The following section discusses the school principal’s job description as set out in the General Inspectorate of Education booklet (MINEDUC, 2009). This will provide a starting point to explore the principals’ role in Rwanda.

Principal’s job description

The National Curriculum Development Centre, (NCDC), (2008) published a training manual, prepared by the MINEDUC-School Management Project, related to school principals’ job descriptions, as stipulated in the Organic Law nr 20/2003 of 30/08/2003 organizing education in Rwanda. School principals’ responsibilities included three major following aspects in order of priority:

- Administration
- Teaching and learning
- Social responsibilities.

Concerning administrative responsibilities, the principal ensures that current education laws, rules and regulations are respected; develops internal rules in conformity with current educational governing laws, ministerial decrees and particular conventions recognized by the Government. Secondly, principals have to assume professional leadership by supervising the
preparation of an action plan for the school, co-coordinating school activities, and distributing responsibilities to employees. They have to ensure discipline and order, prepare and supervise school meetings, and design personnel and student identification cards. Thirdly, principals have to prepare salaries list to hand to the district level, register their employees to the Social Security Fund and Health Insurance, signing staff and students report forms and other official documents. Finally, they have to supervise staff regularity and authorize occasional or official staff leave; punish mistakes and send meeting reports to relevant authorities, and then supervise ceremonies taking place at school.

The teaching and learning roles of the principal include welcoming new teachers and explaining the structure and organization of the school, then give them their job description and teaching materials. Principals have to ensure that teaching and learning are carried out properly through predetermined curricula, classroom visits, availability of teaching materials, ensuring proper coordination and supervision of teachers, students and staff, pedagogic meetings, syllabus coverage, control of teachers’ documents (e.g. scheme of work and lesson preparations). They have to evaluate students’ progress, and then organize training for teachers following the district officer’s directives.

The third aspect of the principal’s role involves representing the school in its relationships with educational stakeholders and authorities at all levels and taking part in meetings related to educational issues, and working with the general assembly and executive committee of the school at the province, district and local levels. Principals have to care about the interests of the school, school environment (hygiene, students’ health, and security), students’ diet, parental guidance, listening to and solving their problems and circulating information to all concerned people in the school. For staff recruitment, the principal receives applications, informs the district mayor and then the applicant has to be nominated by the relevant authority.

**Leadership and Values**

Gold, Evans, Earley, Halpin, and Collarbone (2003) say that school leaders are value-carriers and that the kind of educational values they seek to reproduce in their leadership and management practices articulate with, and have consequences for, the quality of education.
provided by their schools. The authors subscribe to the view that school improvement is not a technocratic science, but rather a process of seeking ever better ways of embodying particular educational values in the working practices, including management structures, of particular schools. The researchers endorse the NCSL’s proposal that school leadership must be ‘values-driven’ (NCSL, 2001: 5).

Concepts

Bush (2003) stated that leadership may be understood as influence but the notion is neutral in that it does not explain what goals or actions should be sought through the process. He suggested that certain alternative constructs of leadership focus on the need for leadership to be grounded in firm personal and professional values. Wasserberg (2000) claimed that the primary role of any leader is the unification of people around key values. Dion (1996) understands values as specific desires for concrete objects that are personally considered as important. These values are basic determinants of human behaviour and social attitudes. They define what is desirable and acceptable to individuals, i.e. personal values, or to a society, as societal values. Wood (1990) adds that values have four functions: a) they serve as decision criteria; b) they shape the way people understand and interpret themselves, their world and their God; c) they limit available choices; d) they define positive sanctions (rewards, bonuses, praise, respect), and negative sanctions (for example criticism, disapproval, ostracism, demotions etc.) that are applied to actions.

Steyn (2002), and Botha, (2004), comment that school principals / or leaders have an understanding of “real issues” or values of life (i.e. power, justice, responsibilities, influence, the nature of the future, etc.), and are not only clear in their personal views but are also open to the views of others. They are prepared to “stand up” and do “what is right.” Botha (2004) quoted Greenfield and Ribbins (1993) who understood that it is important how a leader values values. To be humane, to escape the fact-driven calculable world, the leader must be human.

Mestry, Pillay and du Plessis, (2006) state that values represent basic beliefs about a certain way of doing things that is preferable to another. Thus, a moral principle lays the foundation for an individual’s values and determines his/her views on what is right and what is wrong. Value systems refer to the arrangement of values in order of priority for an individual. What is
important to one individual regarding his/her values and value system is likely to influence his/her attitude, levels of motivation, perception and individual behavior.

Van der Westhuizen (1994) adds that values which are accepted by a school community have a powerful and continuous influence on the educational expectations of schools as institutions where one’s philosophy of life is formed. It should be noted that the values of leaders influence their relationships within the school and with the community it serves. Thus, the educational leader will have to consider various aspects (such as the ethical and religious convictions in a particular community); because these influence his/her planning, decision-making, organizing, guiding and controlling school matters. The value system of the educational leader is not only interwoven with that of the school community but also with that of the state and the department of education. All decisions which an educational leader need to make should be tested in the light of his value orientation and this may force him/her into a choice between various values.

Manasse (1986) maintains that values are principles that a leader considers to be important or desirable, for example, honest communication. He adds that vision is based on personal or personalized professional values. Manasse (1986) also argues that visionary leadership demands a clear sense of personal and organizational values.

Research findings

Day, Harris and Hadfield’s (2001) study of 12 effective schools in England and Wales concluded that good leaders are always informed by, and communicate, clear sets of personal and education values which represent their moral purposes for the school.

Seeley’s (1992) research on visionary leadership includes a discussion of the need to be aware of leaders’ values because there is no way for leaders to avoid moral responsibility. He states that visions are normative statements and consequently whoever would embrace them or urge others to embrace them are responsible for their moral content. The connection between leaders' values or beliefs, and their vision for their organizations, is important. However, Seeley (1992) confirmed that there is minimal information concerning the impact of values and beliefs on the leadership abilities of effective leaders or instructional leaders. However, the limited studies of the values and beliefs of effective educators indicate slight differences among principals, and teachers and other stakeholders and all of them place high value on students' learning outcomes.
In addition to believing that schools are for students' learning, effective principals are loyal to their school community vision. Effective school principals strongly believe in meeting the instructional needs of all their students. Reports concerning teachers' sense of efficacy indicate that they value students' learning and that students' success is rewarding and motivating to teachers, parents, principals and to the school as a whole structured organization.

Gold, Evans, Earley, Halpin, and Collarbone (2006) discussed the relationship between educational values and the models of leadership by reflecting on the range of values that interpenetrate and underpin the two prescriptive models of school leadership that currently have pre-eminent status in England and worldwide. The sense of pre-eminent is the way the authors refer to the extent to which the models of leadership i.e. transformational and instructional, feature prominently with the contemporary academic school management discourse as well as the study programmes delivered by school leadership training providers. In addition, the educational values that underpin and provide the raison d’être of the two educational leadership models are suggested by Bottery (1992: 186) through Gold, et. al. (2006: 130) as:

- Transformative; - dispersed and democratic; - invitational and consensual; - visionary and optimistic; - empowering and trusting; - educative for staff and students alike; - consultative and respectful; - inclusive and participatory; - critical, skeptical and experimental.

More explicitly, Botha (2004) explains that, apart from those values, effective school principals in the modern age possess certain qualities of leadership that distinguish them from their peers. Qualities such as reflection, vision, commitment, courage, power, and empowerment are significant when one thinks about excellence in principalship.

Botha (2004) reported five values/or qualities of principal leadership derived from prior research on the principalship and can be understood as the cornerstones of principal leadership (Senge, 1990; Klmann, 1991; Terry; 1999; Edwards, 2002, in Botha, 2004:241). These researched five qualities are:
1. **Reflection**: Good principals value reflection. Reflection can be regarded as “reminiscent thinking” or “focused review”. It is looking back over the shoulder seeking to identify causes and effects, new learning and implications from what has been experienced. As principals think about their actions and experiences in their own contexts, they produce new pictures of what might be attainable – new visions, so to speak.

2. **Vision**: Good principals value vision. A vision is a blend of our experience from the past, hopes and aspiration for the future: a statement of possibilities; a broad picture of where a school might be going, what a group of people want to achieve. Botha (2004:241) found that vision is a waking dream which becomes the basis for day-to-day decisions and actions. Its importance of quality is that it results from discussion and is understood and owned by everyone involved.

3. **Commitment and courage**: Good principals value commitment and courage. Their importance lies in the willingness and resolve to “stand up” for the things that are truly important in education. The focus is what principals think about the big issues that are crucial to provide better teaching and learning opportunities – perhaps more than the daily activities in which it is so easy to become embroiled in their schools.

4. **Power and empowerment**: The good principal values empowerment and the best use of power. Empowerment is the collective effect of leadership, where people feel valued and part of the action. Botha (2004:241) interprets power as an ability used “to do things” rather than being “in charge over” other people.

5. **The head learner**: The good principal values the role of the head learner. Hart (1995: 21) argues that an educator and/or a school principal is the mainspring in a community of learners, not only as the headmaster or head teacher, but also as a thinker about the important issues which face his school.

Aplin (1984) investigated on how values and beliefs influence school principals’ vision and actions. He found that the clarity of professional values is related to the role of school principals’ effectiveness in leading and managing their schools effectively and efficiently. In her research, Aplin (1984) identified five values that guide a school principal’s work. First is that the instructional programs and/or learning is the highest priority of the system and decisions are assessed as to whether the instructional programs or the learning are enhanced or threatened.
The second leadership value is equity in person relationships and instructional decisions. She explained the third kind of leadership value through the practices of power delegation, teaming, flexibility of process and incremental planning with extensive communication. The fourth value she commented on is the need to retain a high level of local control while the fifth value discussed is the belief that the quality of decision is improved if there has been free and honest disclosure among interested parties.

Heneveld and Craig’s (1996) research showed that facilitating conditions are crucial to leadership values. These are: community involvement, to include good school/community relations and parental involvement in the school; school-based professionalism to include leadership by the school head, teacher collegiality and commitment, accountability through assessment and supervision; flexibility relevant to pupil curricula, adjustments in level and pace, organizational flexibility to include school clusters, multi-grade teaching, pedagogical flexibility to include teaching innovations; and the will to act, i.e. having a vision and using de-centralized, school-based solutions to problems.

However Gold, et al. (2006) found in their research in England that the ultimate focus of school leadership practice – that is, the efficient and effective preparation of young people to be productive members of the society – is defined by the government, thus leaving school leaders in a position described by Wright (2001) as ‘bastard leadership’, while saying that leadership to underpin the school direction has been removed from leaders and become located at the political level where contestation, modification and adjustment to local variations is not really available. Wright adds that the dominant values are those of government, not school leaders.

The discussion above outlines the leadership values that underpin ideas of how effective and successful schools are led and managed. This links to how principals transform, or should transform, schools worldwide, especially in developing countries, including the Huye district of Rwanda, which is the author’s research site.

**Overview**

This chapter consists of the theoretical framework and review of the literature on how principals lead and manage their schools. The chapter discusses concepts of leadership and reports
research, from developed and developing countries, about the role of the principal. The literature suggests there are two predominant educational leadership models; instructional and transformational leadership. The author’s research in Rwanda will be interpreted mainly through these two models.

Through these two predominant models, the literature review consists of different normative perspectives on how principals facilitate and play a major role in the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared, supported by the school community. It also presents views from different scholars on how principals advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and effective instructional climate that is conducive to successful students’ learning as well as staff professional development.

This literature shows how a professional school principal is the educational leader and manager of a school, responsible for the work performance of all the school community members. It also describes how the principals’ major enactment is to lead the school to achieve a high level of performance through the utilization of all its human and material resources and this is done through effective leadership. The principals’ role is to get things done by working with and through other people rather than through single–handed leadership.

However, although school culture has multiple conceptualizations, the literature review shows that the principal, together with other school members, shape their school culture and adapt it, as culture is active and a living phenomenon through which people create and recreate the worlds in which they live (Morgan, 1997).

The next chapter discusses the research design and the methods used to collect data in the Huye district of Rwanda. The author uses a mixed-methods approach.
Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

Gelo, Braakmann, and Gerhard (2008) argue that methodology deals with the logic of research methods, and refers to principles governing the research activity. It can be defined as a set of rules, principles and formal conditions which ground and guide scientific inquiry to organize and increase our knowledge about phenomena. Silver (2006) states that the way a researcher argues the suitability and utility of his/her choice of methods is his/her methodological reasoning. Methodology is therefore more than a collection of methods but also indicates what their value in a study is and why they have been chosen. Silver distinguishes the terms methodology and method. Methodology refers to the coherent group of methods that complement one another and have the goodness of fit to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the research purpose. The term method, on the other hand, denotes a way of doing something and the methods of data collection and analysis will also be coherent because the researcher thinks about them in a way that makes sure that they are compatible with the study. The researcher is the methodologist-in-action; therefore s/he explicitly indicates where s/he stands in terms of methods and methodology (Silver, 2006).

This chapter outlines the research methodology aiming to provide the rationale that guided the choice of the employed methodology. The chapter started with the purpose of the methodology followed by a discussion of the research paradigms to be applied as a lens to explain and explore the various views from the research participants. Drawing on these paradigms, a research design has been chosen, based on mixed-methods. The research design has two consecutive phases; a quantitative phase, followed by a qualitative element.

This chapter also presents the research instruments (see below) to be used for data collection and analysis, the site selection, the sample population and sample size criteria, the validity, reliability and triangulation, the ethical considerations of the research and an overview of the chapter.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say that the procedures for conducting research includes when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. The research method
indicates the general plan: how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, and what methods of data collection are used. The researcher’s study is mixed-method, quantitative and qualitative, with a survey for the first phase and case studies of two schools for the second. The purpose of this two-phase research was to quantitatively explain, and qualitatively explore and describe, the Huye District high school principals’ role in leading and managing school culture and practices. The study targeted, among other school culture factors, to explore their main responsibilities, how they lead and manage staff and other resources, their relationships with other stakeholders in the school community. Further, the research explored how principals cope with the national educational policy and how their leadership and management practice is interpreted in the light of leadership and management concepts derived from educational literature.

In summary, the focus of this chapter was to explain and justify the research methods being used for an explanation and exploration of the principals’ leadership role in relation to school culture.

**Research Paradigms**

To make sense of research information and transforming it into data, Morrison (2007) says that researchers draw implicitly or explicitly upon a set of beliefs or epistemological assumptions called paradigms. These paradigms are sometimes called epistemes (Foucault, 1972; Morrison, 2007) or traditions (MacIntyre, 1988; Morrison, 2007) related to how research evidence might be understood, patterned, reasoned and compiled. Bassey (1999) and Morrison (2007) explain that a paradigm is a network of coherent ideas about the nature of the world and the function of researchers which are adhered to by a group of researchers and conditions the patterns of their thinking and underpins their research actions.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) discuss the ontological, epistemological, and methodological foundations of different research paradigms and contend that ontology reflects beliefs about the nature of reality and wonder whether reality is an objective phenomenon that holds truth or if it is virtually constructed through social, political, and gender meanings etc. On the other side, they understand epistemology as referring to beliefs about the preferred relationships between the researcher and the researched, including whether researchers should remain objective and
removed from what they study or get immersed in it. Further, they conceptualized methodology as referring to techniques researchers use to collect information about the world. They ask if researchers should manipulate and measure variables in order to test hypotheses or search for meaning in words and behaviours. However, Guba and Lincoln state that, ontology, epistemology and methodology are not independent from one another, but represent differences between positivism, interpretivism and other ways of knowing.

Morrison (2007) notes that research enquiry is full of challenges and uncertainties and, in trying to make sense of the world in which educational research operates, researchers work within a range of beliefs about the ways in which education and research are or can be understood as practice. Therefore, disputes may sometimes occur about forms of enquiry to be conducted at the level of method or technique with relatively less attention to issues of epistemology, ontology, or methodology. For McKenzie (1997), and Morrison (2007), the two fundamental questions for researchers in educational areas are to know what is the relationship between what we see and understand, i.e. our claims to know and our theories of knowledge or epistemology, and that which is reality i.e. our sense of being or ontology. Briefly, it consists of how researchers go about creating knowledge about the world in which they live.

Epistemology is said to be central to research endeavour since all researchers wonder about knowledge, the way it is found, recognized, when is it found and how to use it, and then how knowledge distinguishes truth from falsehood. In other words, researchers seek to know the reality they are describing. Further, educational researchers bring a wide range of theoretical perspectives to their work and perhaps the widest of these is ontology. This consists of a range of perceptions about the nature of reality and is important because the latter affects the way in which researchers can know (Morrison, 2007).

Scott and Morrison (2006), and Morrison (2007), explain that methodology is also critical as ontology and epistemology affect the methodologies that underpin researchers’ work. These authors define methodology, to connect it to epistemology and ontology, as the theory (or set of ideas about the relationship between phenomena) of how researchers gain knowledge in research contexts and why. This ‘why’ question is critical since it is through methodological understanding that researchers and readers of research are provided with rationale to explain the
reasons for using specific strategies and methods in order to construct, collect, and develop particular kinds of knowledge about educational phenomena.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) understand a research paradigm as the basic belief system or worldview that guides the researcher/investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways. The ontology chosen to underpin this research is based on both positivist and interpretivist paradigms.

**Positivist**

Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) demonstrate that different researchers make different epistemological assumptions about the nature of scientific knowledge and how to acquire it. The authors understand the positivist research paradigm, which embodies quantitative aspects, as grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an independent reality and are relatively constant across time and settings. Positivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviours of samples and then subject these data to numerical analysis. Although I included a survey of 14 principals in Huye secondary schools, and these data were subject to numerical analysis, this is not really a positivist approach as the survey was primarily about attitudes.

Neuman (2003) views positivism in social science research as an organized method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity. Morrison (2007) sees positivism as a social theory and pupils, students, teachers, heads of departments, principals and parents are objects of educational research, notwithstanding their uniqueness as one from another and from the other objects of the natural world.

The variables, in the survey phase, consisted of explaining the views, attitudes, opinions and behaviours, on the role and/or enactment of 14 secondary schools’ principals in Huye district and on how they lead and manage their schools and their conception of school culture. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews conducted with each individual, to enable the researcher to compare the outcomes deducted from empirical perceptions of each principal’s
behaviours. The survey responses of 14 individualized principals were quantitatively organized, and numerically measured by combining a deductive logic of educational leadership and management established theories (see Phillips, 1996, Phillips and Wagner, 2002, Wagner and Masden-Copas, 2002, School Culture Triage Survey tool) with empirically observable experience of individual principal’s enactment in order to discover and confirm how their behaviours can be generalized to a larger population or beyond the location of the study and replicated. Combining these principals’ observable experience and roles, as variables, helped to capture the educational leadership and management activities in which they are engaged.

**Interpretivist**

Morrison (2007) contends that a range of issues confront researchers who may be working within the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivism is expressed by Scott and Morrison (2006) as being where social actors negotiate meanings about their activity in the world. Thus, interpretivism subscribes to realist ontology and educational researchers insert themselves into this continual process of meaning construction in order to understand it.

Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) define interpretivist, which shares some features with qualitative research, as grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment are constructed as interpretations by individuals and that these interpretations tend to be transitory and situational. Interpretivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting primarily verbal data through the intensive study of cases and then subjecting these data to analytic induction. The interpretivist paradigm was used to guide the qualitative phase of the author’s research. The second phase of the research comprises two school-based case studies, identified following the quantitative phase of the research. The variables to explore were, mainly, the perceptions and views of the school management teams, two representative teachers, two parents and two students on their schools’ leadership and management enactment, and the influence it had on the school culture creation, support and/ or maintenance. Their views were grouped under themes such as collaboration, communication, empowerment, leadership and relationships among them.

Analysing these themes involved interpretivism that has been summarized by recent scholars (e.g. Guba 2000, Schwandt 2007, Neuman 2000, and Crotty 1998), as relating to the assumptions
that individuals use when seeking to understand the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences which they direct towards certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the researcher in these two case studies was to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied. The researcher’s questions were broad and general, through semi-structured interviews, so that the participants could construct their own meanings of the situation (Creswell, 2009).

Crotty (1998) argues that the interpretivist philosophical assumption is that the basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive with the inquirer generating meaning from the data collected in the field.

Neuman (2003) understands the interpretivist philosophical assumption in social science research as concerned with how people interact and get along with each other. This interaction was a key factor to comprehend the respondents’ experience and their participation in how they viewed the school was being run around there. The interpretive research approach is the systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct detailed observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social worlds (Neuman, 2003).

**Research Approach**

A research approach, according to Gelo, Braakmann and Gerhard (2008), is the plan of actions or structure which links the philosophical foundations and the methodological assumptions of a research approach to its research methods, in order to provide credible, accountable and legitimate answers to the research questions. Nachmias and Nachmias (1992), and Yin (1996), understand a research approach as a plan that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting observations. It is a logical model that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation. A research
approach is a blueprint of research dealing with at least four problems: what questions to study, what data are relevant, what data to collect, and how to analyze the results.

This research was guided by the following research questions:

What are the main responsibilities of school principals in Rwanda?

How do high school principals enact their leadership and management?

How, and to what extent, do Rwandan principals lead teaching and learning in their schools?

How do high school principals lead and manage staff and other resources at their schools?

How do principals relate to their stakeholders, including the hierarchy, teachers and students, support staff, parents and the community?

How do principals affect their schools’ culture?

Johnson (1994) states that, since each approach has its own strengths and weaknesses, in any study, the researcher may find it convenient to use one or a combination of two or more of the approaches to obtain the necessary information on the research questions under the study. Further, McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say that the use of mixed-method research approaches, which combine quantitative and qualitative methods, under the positivism and interpretivism research paradigms, is becoming increasingly popular because many situations are best investigated using a variety of methods. With mixed-methods approach, researchers are not limited to using techniques associated with traditional designs, either quantitative or qualitative, but both research methods are used either simultaneously or consecutively.

The author’s research was a mixed-methods research approach in which quantitative data were collected first. Subsequently, qualitative data were gathered to elucidate and explain the quantitative findings. In the study, 14 principals from different schools in Huye district were surveyed on how they lead and manage school culture, their experience and behaviours were analysed to provide comparable outcomes. In the second phase, two principals were selected who represented extremely high and low scored schools based on a comparison drawn from the variables studied in the survey. The two case studies also involved the two principals; eight members of the two school management teams; two teachers; two parents and two students, all in
the two selected schools. Therefore, 16 total participants were interviewed in the qualitative phase and the criteria for the selection are detailed in the sample selection section.

This two-stage approach, a survey followed by two case studies, is appropriate because the survey included cross-sectional exploration that used semi-structured interviews to collect information on variables of interest and with the intention of generalizing from a sample. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 14 high school principals in Huye district and were used to learn about principals’ attitudes, beliefs, values, demographics, behaviours, opinions, habits, ideas, and aspects of how they led and managed their schools and to assess whether and how their leadership impacted on their schools. The survey was designed to collect data from participants in order to generalize the findings to a population that the sample intended to represent. The researcher’s survey investigated participants’ views on the existing leadership and management behaviours and experience in relation to its existing school culture.

The two school case studies were intended to explore significant features of the phenomenon, in particular whether and how the 16 participants in two secondary schools in Huye district, one which scored highly and another with a low score, perceived their schools’ leadership and management and whether or how school culture was created, supported and maintained. The researcher interviewed the 16 participants to create a plausible interpretation of what was found in the first phase research results and to test for the trustworthiness of these findings, through respondent triangulation. In these case studies, the researcher wanted to know about the impact that the principals’ leadership and management have on the school culture creation, support and maintenance. The case studies also involved two other research methods, observation and document analysis (see below). These different research methods provided the potential for respondent and methodological triangulation. The study investigated an empirical of contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially to understand whether the boundaries between phenomenon and the schools settings are clearly evident.

Scott and Morrison (2006) assert that it is through methodological process that the researcher provides the rationale for using specific methods. The researcher found the two-phase research suitable in order to quantitatively explain, and qualitatively explore, the study. The researcher is the methodologist-in-action and s/he shows where s/he stands in terms of methods and methodology (Silver, 2006). The two-stage approach was used in order allow the researcher to
construct, collect, interpret and analyse particular kinds of knowledge on how high school principals led and managed their schools in Huye district. Further, the mixed-methods approach was used to provide methodological triangulation and to increase validity and reliability. This triangulation procedure was a way of converging and corroborating results from the two complementary approaches which also provided results from different research instruments.

Survey

Creswell (2009) understands survey research as an approach that provides quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of the population. A survey includes cross-sectional study using semi-structured interviews for data collection, with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population (Babbie, 1990). McMillan and Schumacher (2006) add that, in survey research, the investigator selects a sample from a larger population and administers a questionnaire or interviews to collect information on variables of interest. In this research, semi-structured interviews were conducted in person to 14 high school principals in Huye district and were used to learn about principals’ attitudes, beliefs, values, demographics, behaviours, opinions, habits, ideas, and other types of information related to their experience on how they led and managed their schools and to assess whether or how their leadership impacted on school culture in their school settings. The survey was designed to collect data from participants in order to generalize the findings to a population that the sample intended to represent.

Fogelman and Comber (2007) contend that it is extremely difficult to arrive at a straightforward and uncontested definition of survey research. However, they state the definition of Hutton (1990), who understands survey as a research method for collecting information by asking a set of pre-formulated questions to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population. The researcher shared Cohen et al.’s (2000) understanding that surveys typically gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events. The researcher based his survey on an investigation of the participants’ views on the existing leadership and management behaviours and experience in relation to its existing school culture.
Case study

Bassey (2007: 143) defines an educational case study as an empirical enquiry which is conducted within a localized boundary of space and time. It may relate to any aspect of an educational activity, or programme, or institution, or system, mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons in order to inform the judgments and decisions of practitioners or policymakers or of theoreticians who are working to these ends, and such that sufficient data are collected for the researcher to be able:

To explore significant features of the case, -to create plausible interpretations of what is found, - to test for the trustworthiness of these interpretations, -to construct a worthwhile argument or story, - to relate the argument or story to any relevant research in the literature, - to convey convincingly to an audience this argument or story, - to provide an audit trail by which other researchers may validate or challenge the findings, or construct alternative arguments. (Bassey, 2007: 143)

The two school case studies were based on an interpretive paradigm in order to explore significant features of the phenomenon, in particular whether and how the 16 participants in two secondary schools in Huye district, one which scored highly and another with a low score, perceived their schools’ leadership and management and whether or how school culture was created, supported and maintained. All the 16 participants were interviewed in order to create a plausible interpretation of what was found in the first phase research results and to test for the trustworthiness of these findings, through respondent triangulation (see below). In these case studies, the researcher wanted to know about the impact that the principals’ leadership and management have on the school culture creation, support and maintenance.

The case studies also involved two other research methods, observation and document analysis (see below). These different research methods provided the potential for respondent and methodological triangulation. The study investigated an empirical of contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially to understand whether the boundaries between phenomenon and the schools settings are clearly evident. Yin (1994) argues that case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there are many more variables of interest than data points, by using multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation fashion. The case study as a research strategy comprises an all encompassing method, with the logic of design incorporating specific approaches to data collection and to data
analysis. In this sense, the case study is neither a data collection tactic nor merely a design feature alone, but a comprehensive research strategy.

Johnson (1994) mentions several possible disadvantages of case study that were considered during the design phase. First, it may lack scientific rigour in that the design of the case study is situation-dependent and follows no set rules. It is therefore heavily dependent on the skills of the researcher. Secondly, the material may be unique, so that the findings about a specific case may not be meaningfully transferred to another situation at another time. Thirdly, there may be possible uneven access to all aspects of the phenomenon to study. Fourth, the case study relies on time, ready access to settings and familiarity with a range of research skills. The author’s research design addressed these disadvantages by using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time (Stake, 1995). The researcher aimed at presenting a holistic in-depth description of the relationship between the participants’ views on school leadership and management and its influence on school culture.

Research Methods

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews formed the method of data collection for the first, survey, phase of the research. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say that, once the researcher decided to use interviews to collect data, an interview schedule is constructed. The schedule lists questions to ask, related to the objectives of the study. In most cases, the written questions are exactly what the researcher asks, however, appropriate probes are used for clarification.

Ribbins (2007) quoted Dexter (1970) who said that interviewing is the preferred tactic of data collection when it appears that it will get better data or more data at less cost than other tactics. The purpose of interviewing was to find out what was in participants’ mind but not to put things there. To interview people is to explore their views in ways that cannot be achieved by other forms of research. Findings are reported, as far as possible, in participants’ own words.

These semi-structured interviews were conducted face-to-face with 14 secondary school principals to gather information from each individual participant and for about 30 minutes each during the survey phase. When conducting semi-structured interviews, it is important to avoid
the ‘naïve assumption’ model which means a model of standardized survey research in which there are no communication problems and respondents perfectly match their thoughts (Creswell, 2009). In the author’s research, there were pre-arranged questions but these were supplemented by open-ended questions, prompts and probes mainly for clarification rather than to extend the discussion. Non-standardized interviews can increase the validity of the survey research by improving the consistency in how respondents interpret the meaning of the survey questions and responses (Creswell, 2009). Further, the researcher avoided bias either from him or the participants through any kind of influence that could impact on the participant’s way of responding. The survey of the 14 principals used an approach closer to the structured end of the semi-structured continuum and this enabled the researcher to produce comparable outcomes.

In the case study phase of the research, semi-structured interviews were used. The interviews were open-ended and assumed a conversational manner. Case study interviews are usually of an open-ended nature in which the researcher asks key respondents for facts as well as for the respondents’ opinions about events. Creswell (2009) distinguishes between interviews in survey research and case studies, saying that quantitative researchers strive to eliminate sources of interview bias and respondent confusion, while qualitative researchers offer valuable insights into how people construct meaning in various social settings.

Ribbins (2007) argues that the fundamental objective of qualitative interviews is to provide a framework within which respondents can express their views in their own terms. This entailed the researcher broadly controlling the agenda and process of the interviews, while leaving interviewees free, within limits, to respond as they best saw fit. This means the production of a semi-structured interview schedule largely determined in terms of sequence and wording. In contrast to survey interviews, the researcher probed more deeply with the case studies and also linked the participants’ opinions to other data sources; documentary analysis and shadowing observation.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say that the qualitative researcher’s first goal, related to the case studies, is concerned with understanding social phenomena from participants’ perspectives. That understanding was achieved in the author’s research by analyzing the many contexts of the participants and by narrating participants’ meanings for these situations and events. The
participants’ meanings included their feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and actions, collected through the three research instruments and grouped into themes linked to the research questions.

Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) stress some advantages of interviews over questionnaires. The authors say that, even if the cost of sampling respondents over a wide geographic area is lower, and the time limit required to collect the data typically is much less while conducting questionnaires, however, they cannot probe as deeply into respondents’ opinions and feelings as interviews. In addition, once the questionnaire has been distributed, it is not possible to modify the items, even though they may be unclear to some respondents. The interview’s major advantage is its adaptability because a skilled interviewer can follow up a respondent’s answer to obtain more information and clarify vague statements. Interviews can also build trust and rapport with respondents, thus making it possible to obtain information that the individual probably would not reveal in a questionnaire response.

**Observation: shadowing**

The researcher shadowed the two principals only during the second phase of the research. Each principal was shadowed in his/her respective school for one day. The research was with the school principal for one day to observe the different activities run in the school setting, as a way of establishing how they lead and manage their schools, and how this relates to the schools’ culture.

Yin (1994) argues that observation is useful in providing additional information about the topic to be studied. Moyles (2007) says that observation is a data collection tool that is not dependent on respondents’ personal views but seeks explicit evidence through the eyes of the observer. Observation leads to a description of people’s views, actions, events and culture. It is a holistic approach concerning the observation of the everyday activities, and the description and construction of meanings, rather than a reproduction of events.

The purpose of the researcher’s observation was to explore how the two high school principals, one in the highly scored school and the other in the lower scored school, enacted school leadership and management in their respective schools. Moyles (2007) says that whatever it is we observe, and want to understand, undergoes significant interpretation. Moyles (2007) adds
that the shadowing procedure is not always perceived as observational research but her understanding is that it clearly stands in that category. She qualifies it as often being a non-participatory approach, requiring field observations in very close proximity to the subject. A non-participatory approach requires certain conditions to be met, not least of which is that the subject must feel wholly at ease with the researcher in constant attendance. For that reason, the shadowing needed careful setting up and considerable non-shadowing trial time so that the person, who was shadowed, as far as possible, felt both comfortable and able to ignore the researcher sufficiently to make the research outcomes valid.

During the shadowing, the researcher was a non-participant agent. Participant observation allows the researcher to be part of the natural setting and to become part of it often with no predetermined view about what findings will emerge or how they will be interpreted, while a non-participant observer usually enters the scene or setting of the research with knowledge of what he wants to observe, and why, without being part of the natural setting (Moyles, 2007). This shadowing observation mainly consisted of discovering what was happening in each of the two schools involved in the two case studies and not what the researcher was told by the participants. It consisted of looking at how the schools were being run, how relationships and communication were organized, and to observe school life in general.

However, shadowing school principals for one day does not provide a valid basis for making inferences about their behaviour. This aspect of the research provided only a snapshot of principals’ daily work.

**Documentary analysis**

Fitzgerald (2007) understands documentary research as a form of interpretive research that requires researchers to collect, collate and analyze empirical data in order to produce a theoretical account that either describes, interprets or explains what has occurred. These are helpful in the sense that they can provide other specific details to corroborate information from other sources.

Documentary analysis was the third method used in the two case studies. The analysis focused on documents related to collaboration, communication, staff empowerment, leadership and
relationships. The documents examined included available letters, memoranda, communiqués, minutes of meetings, internal and external administrative documents (like pedagogical documents which included the principal and the head of studies teachers’ supervision and assessment, feedback discussion reports etc.); proposals and progress reports (either from the school leaders at the different levels, or from the stakeholders like parents or district authorities etc.). Further, the researcher explored the school policy documents, the school vision documents, school management resources accountability documents, staff and students’ involvement in school decision making through meeting documents, and compared them with what the interviews and observation provided.

These documents were read and notes taken, and then interpreted with regard to the research questions and the themes identified by the researcher. Similar themes were used for interviews, documentary analysis and shadowing observation in order to triangulate the instruments and the respondents’ views. The document analysis instrument allowed the researcher to get more information on the school life and how it was being run once triangulated with other instruments in the research.

Fitzgerald (2007) argues that documents from schools, colleges and universities can provide valuable information about the context and culture of these institutions. It can also provide another window for the researcher to read between the lines of official discourse and triangulate information through interviews, observations and questionnaires. Secondly, observation and interview tools could be employed to determine whether what the school publicly says about how it operates is embedded in the actions of principals, teachers and students.

Atkinson and Coffey (2006) state that a significant amount of contemporary research fieldwork takes place in literate societies, in organizational or other settings in which documents are written, read, stored, and circulated. The authors’ observation is that qualitative field research should pay careful attention to the collection and analysis of documentary realities. They say that a close scrutiny of documents is very important. The authors add that it must also incorporate a clear understanding of how documents are produced, circulated, read, stored and used for a wide variety of purposes.
Fitzgerald (2007) considers documentary analysis as a form of qualitative research that requires readers to locate, interpret, analyze and draw conclusions about the evidence presented. For researchers in the field of educational leadership and management, documentary research can contribute to aspects of case study research. Documentary research allows for sufficient data to be collected for researchers to be able to identify the significant features of a particular event, activity or case.

**Sampling**

Fogelman and Comber (2007) contend that a researcher studies a sample of the population; preferably one that can be shown to be representative of a larger group and which therefore allows the researcher to be reasonably confident about the validity of whatever generalizations the researcher makes. The authors suggest that methods of sampling can either be probabilistic for quantitative or non-probabilistic for qualitative research. In probabilistic sampling, the sample must be representative of the population and, in this research; the quantitative sample consisted of 14 principals in 14 secondary schools, a 100% sample of the whole population of the extended grade secondary schools in Huye district. With the non-probabilistic sampling, to be applied in the two case studies, a purposive sampling was used, comprising the top ranked school from the survey and the lowest ranked school where the principal is of a different gender.

**Site selection**

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) argue that a clear definition of the criteria for site selection is essential. The criteria should be related to, and appropriate for, the research problem and purpose. This author’s research focus was to explain, describe and explore the role of high school principals in leading and managing school culture in the Huye District in the Southern Province of Rwanda. The choice of this site was informed by the District’s involvement in a school leadership and management project initiated from 2007 by the Ministry of Education in Rwanda in collaboration with a Belgian NGO (VVOB) in order to help all school principals, and their school management teams (SMTs) to lead and manage their respective schools. The research intended to explore the principals’ role in leading and managing school culture and the
research found the selected site suitable because the Ministry/VVOB project should have sensitised participants to the importance of leadership and management. The site choice was also influenced by the fact that the researcher lived in that district, could access its schools without much cost and intended to contribute to the educational system of his district, but had no previous professional knowledge of the schools.

**Population and Sample Size**

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) claimed that the logic of the sample size is related to the purpose, the research problem, the major data collection strategy, and the availability of information-rich cases. The insights generated from qualitative inquiry depend more on the information rich nature of the cases, and the analytical capabilities of the researcher, than on the sample size. In addition, McMillan and Schumacher comment that a case study that is descriptive and exploratory may not need as many persons as a self-contained study that is explanatory and related to quantitative research. Therefore, qualitative researches are guided by circumstances, that is, a study may have a small sample size, but the researcher may be continually seeking confirmation while returning to the same situation or informants in his research.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) add that qualitative inquirers view sampling processes as dynamic rather than static or a priori parameters of populations. While there are statistical rules for probability sample size, there are only guidelines for a purposive sample size. Thus, purposive samples can range from 1 to 40 or more. Typically, qualitative samples seem small compared with the sample needed to generalize to a larger population.

Fogelman and Comber (2007) talk about probabilistic sampling that embodies quantitative research and that the sample depends on the availability and accessibility of the sampling frame. The researcher’s sample size in the first phase is a probabilistic approach with a 100% sample of all 14 principals in the Huye district with a complete secondary cycle. The second phase of case studies involves two of the 14 schools. The first criterion for selection of the two schools was one school which scored highly in terms of the principals’ leadership and management enactment and school culture variables, and the second where one school scored low. However it was supplemented by another third stratified sampling criterion based on the type of the school,
either being a government or a private school, and that the principal was from the opposite
gender.

Within each case study school, members of the school management teams, as well as one parent,
one teacher and one student, were purposively selected. This purposive sample was intended to
produce views from different perspectives, thus contributing to respondent triangulation. In
addition, one teacher in each school was chosen on the basis of their long service in the schools,
compared to their colleagues. The other school-based participants were one elected students’
representative and one elected member of the parents’ school committee. In brief, the total
sample size in the second phase involved 16 people, eight at each school.

Instrument Design

Data collection consisted of two phases, the first phase being survey research, using a
quantitative research approach, and the second being two case studies using a qualitative
research approach.

The design of the instruments for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research was
derived from the research questions. In the survey, the semi-structured interviews were designed
to quantitatively explain and measure how the leadership and management of the school
principal impacted on school culture, while the semi-structured interviews in case studies were
designed to explore and interpret the school principal’s leadership and management from a range
of perspectives.

These two phases were conducted using different research tools. The first phase of data
collection was conducted by administering semi-structured interviews with the principals of 14
high schools of Huye District. In this phase, all the 14 participants had the same interview
schedule, which targeted the role of these principals in leading and managing school culture. The
interview schedule was structured but also provided potential for probes and prompts. The
researcher translated the instrument into French and Kinyarwanda for respondents who were not
capable of answering in English (see appendix one).
Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) contend that interviews consist of oral questions by the interviewer and oral responses by the research participants. Interview respondents typically speak in their own words, and their words are recorded by the interviewer, either verbatim on audiotape, videotape, through handwritten, or by computer-generated notes, or in short term memory for later note taking. The interviewer is largely in control of the process, scheduling with the participants a mutually agreeable time and place then controlling the question pace and sequence to fit the circumstances of the situation. The researcher mainly used verbatim, MP3 for recording and handwriting techniques in his study. These techniques were used in order to capture the respondents’ views as they were stated.

While drafting the semi-structured interviews, the researcher first focused on relating all the questions to the objectives of the study. Table 3.1 shows the link between the research questions and the interview questions.
Research questions | Interview questions
---|---
1. What are the main responsibilities of school principals in Rwanda?  
- What are your main responsibilities in this school as a school leader?  
- What do you perceive as the top priority for the school principal?  
- Do you think your school principalship is your school success or failure, i.e. judged by how efficiently things are run? If yes, explain how?  
2. How do high school principals enact leadership and management?  
- What are the vision/mission/goals and organizational structure of your school?  
- Do you as a principal or do you think your principal operates through collegial/collaborative/participative/shared and distributed leadership style?  
- How do you formulate the vision of your school, the overall aims and objectives and policies for their implementation?  
3. How and to what extent do Rwandan principals lead teaching and learning in their schools?  
- How, if at all, does your school community participate in the elaboration of the national curriculum?  
- How, if at all, do you encourage your teachers to develop their intellectual capacity?  
- Do you intervene in teachers' lesson preparation and classroom teaching? If so, please give more details?  
- How, if at all, do you encourage teachers to meet the students' varying ability levels in your school (low, average and high)?  
- Do you keep students, parents, district officer, stakeholders, and the wider community informed of students' learning progress and achievements?  
4. How do high school principals lead and manage staff and other resources at their disposal?  
- Do you work with the school management team to develop a strategic plan for the school in its community, within the local and national policy context? If so, explain how?  
- How do you manage the school's resources and properties at your disposal?  
- How, if at all, do you collaborate with the district leaders and motivate parents, stakeholders and the community to engage in the ownership of the school work?  
5. How do principals relate to their stakeholders including the hierarchy, teachers and students, support staff, parents and the community?  
- To what extent, if at all, do school staff and stakeholders feel ownership of school policies and decisions?  
- Do you promote, lead and manage in close liaison with other local schools to improve the development of the school? If so explain how?  
- How, if at all, do you support, maintain and sustain a culture that promotes school social cohesion, and social relationships that are satisfying, supportive and sociable?  
6. How do principals affect their school culture?  
- How, if at all, do you work collaboratively with all stakeholders to develop a school culture that is flexible, collaborative, innovative, and supportive of efforts to improve the achievements of the students?  
- How, if at all, do you promote a culture that facilitates staff professional development?  
- How, if at all, do you control teachers' and students' activities, and the support staff, in their day-to-day functions?  
- How, if at all, do you create a culture that helps to combine the achievement of school goals and the maintenance of harmonious relationships and a positive learning climate?  

Table 3.1: Links between the research questions and the interview protocol

The interview protocol for the survey consisted of open-ended questions to be asked orally with appropriate probing and prompts for clarification. After writing the questions, the researcher piloted them to check for bias in the procedures and questions. The pilot test (see below) helped the researcher to be sure that the procedures were identical to those that would be implemented in the study, and the researcher noted any questions that could make the respondents feel uncomfortable or were not fully understood by the respondents.

The analytical tool used in this quantitative analysis consisted of an instrument developed, refined and used by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002), and Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002) for measuring school leadership and management practices and assessing its impact on school culture. It has been used in the United States and Canada and the researcher
found it worthwhile to be revised and adapted to this research study as it is related to the author’s research questions. However, some points have been revised to relate them to this research study.

The tool, known as School Culture Triage Survey (Phillips, 1996), was a rating instrument based on three main themes: professional collaboration, affiliative collegiality relationship and self-determination and efficacy. It involved five school culture practices for the first theme and six practices for the second and third leadership practices which were adapted to the researcher’s interviews results transcription. The researcher correlated the interview responses using five-point Likert scales ranging from 1= never, 2= rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always or almost always, to compare the outcomes.

After conducting the first phase of this study, the researcher developed an interview protocol (Creswell, 2005) to guide him in the second phase and related the questions to a list of themes and questions to be covered in his research. The interviews mainly targeted the perceptions and views of 16 participants in two secondary schools and the major explored themes were collaboration, communication, staff empowerment, leadership and relationships, to address how school culture is created, supported, and maintained. The researcher conducted his interview in both English and French, sometimes explained in Kinyarwanda, to avoid language misunderstandings and to help the participants to feel at ease while expressing their thoughts, without worrying about the need to produce correct English. Probes and prompts were also of great importance for clarification and this interview guide was piloted before the main start of the second phase. Piloting is discussed in the next section.

Piloting

Fogelman and Comber (2007) suggest that undertaking a pilot study before the main study is sensible for the sake of the clarity and validity of the instrument to be used. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) recommend that it is best to locate a sample of subjects with characteristics similar to those that will be used in the study and the administration of the pilot study instruments should be the same as that to be used in the study. Opie (2004) argues that the piloting phase has a great importance since it helps to avoid vague questions that may appear in the instruments. Further, piloting influences the relevance of the instruments and its ease of understanding by the respondents. Turner (2010) adds that a pilot study tests the research
instruments on a small number of persons with similar characteristics to the research population. In this research, the survey instrument was piloted and conducted in two schools in an adjacent district (district of Gisagara), while the first of the two case studies was designed as a de facto pilot.

For the survey pilot study, I first contacted each of the two principals individually, and explained the objectives of the research, then agreed upon the arrangements for the interviews. The interviews took place in their respective schools. This pilot was of great importance since it helped the researcher to test the interview protocol wording and relevance for the real study. Some changes occurred in the survey interview protocol following the pilot study. Questions 3, 4 and 6 have been rephrased, while 7 and 8 were dropped because they were repeated and could bring confusion. (Appendix two shows the survey piloting protocol guide; appendix three shows the major survey protocol guide).

As for the case studies piloting, the researcher met the principal from the high ranked school as related to the survey results because the school was taken as a de facto pilot to make an appointment for the interviews. The principal was aware of this research because of his participation in the first phase, and consented to take part in its second phase and to plan a meeting with the other seven participants from his school. The principal organized a two days interview, one on Wednesday and another on Friday in the afternoons in their free time to avoid any impact on their daily school activities. The interview was not subjected to changes because the questions were clearly formulated; however the researcher was inspired about proving more probes especially for questions that related to the major themes of the research for more clarification as participants like students, parents and some secretaries would be not enough informed about leadership and management theories. Though, the interview guide was used for both case studies with no changes.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

This research data collection was twofold and used different instruments. The first phase was a survey which consisted of semi-structured interviews with 14 principals in 14 different high secondary schools while the second phase was two case studies, using methodological
triangulation, in which the researcher tools were semi-structured interviews, shadowing observation, and documentary analysis.

**Quantitative data analysis**

The researcher first transcribed and captured the data in Microsoft Word before starting the data analysis to make sure errors and mistakes have been avoided or any other distortion that could impact the results. The semi-structured interviews results from each principal were manually drafted, coded and revised before correlating them to the School Culture Triage Survey tool. The data were compared and tabulated following the presented themes related to principals’ perceptions, attitudes on how they were leading and managing school culture practices.

The analysis delivered 14 responses for each subscale, ranging from 1 to 5, which equals 70 responses for the first theme (in terms of 14 principals x 5 school culture practices), and 168 responses for the second and third themes (in terms of 14 principals x 6 school culture practices in each of the two) and a total of 238 responses for the three. Calculations were carried out manually to differentiate between the highly scored principal and the lowest by vertically adding each principal’s scores. Manual statistic analysis allowed the researcher to conclude who was highest ranked and who from the opposite gender was lowest ranked.

**Qualitative data analysis**

Crotty (1998) links interpretivism to qualitative research by saying that meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Qualitative researchers use open-ended questionnaires or semi-structured interviews to enable the participants to express their views. Qualitative researchers seek to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context, gathering information personally and interpreting what they find through their own experience and background. Creswell (2002) contends that qualitative research involves gathering many views and seeking to reduce them into themes, meaningful categories and patterns, to help in interpreting the information. Denscombe (2003) adds that the researcher identifies the core elements of a phenomenon and arrives at the underlying principles that explain
it. Watling and James (2007) note that qualitative researchers are likely to be searching for understanding rather than facts, for interpretations and values rather than measurements.

The researcher first analysed data collected from the semi-structured interviews. The data analysis procedure consisted of transcribing the raw interviews, capturing them in Microsoft Word and coding the 16 (eight in each school) participants, in order to obtain the working copies required for analysis.

Watling and James (2007) point out that, in qualitative analysis, it is unusual to use all the data gathered during the research project, but the researcher reduces the amounts to a manageable size, focusing on the more purposeful, important and relevant information. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) add that qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organizing data into categories and identifying patterns (i.e. relationships) among the categories, while seeking for plausible explanations. In this study, the researcher followed a thematic analysis procedure with the three types of data.

For the interviews, data organization consisted of re-reading the transcripts from each participant several times, becoming familiar with what they have said to get a sense of the whole and to generate the recurring ideas and meanings. The researcher embarked on this organization bearing in mind some initial ideas for data organization from his research questions and interview guide. While reading and revisiting the transcripts, the researcher started to generate a descriptive name/or initial code from each set of data from each principal. Then, the researcher compared the data, grouped similar codes to avoid duplication and overlapping descriptions while relying on the research questions at hand. The following process consisted of organizing the presented codes into categories and therefore arranging the relevant categorised data under potential themes. This organization led the researcher to develop the major themes for data analysis and to present what each theme embodies. This helped the researcher to interpret the participants’ views and produce conclusions.

The shadowing observation data analysis consisted of two principals in the two case studies. It involved transcribing and organizing the notes taken during the field work and then the data were
captured in Microsoft word together with the data collected from the eight participants from each of the two schools. The researcher read and revisited the data alongside with data from the interviews, used the same codes to generate potential themes either similar or different from those presented in the interviews for additional information. Finally, the results from both interviews and observations were organized within the major developed themes to help the researcher make a holistic interpretation of both the participants’ views and the shadowing data.

The documentary analysis stage (in each school) consisted of reading and re-reading the available documents and taking notes from the documents at hand. The next procedure was capturing and organizing the data in Microsoft Word and transcribing the data alongside the two preceding data sources, then developed a coding system related to both preceding research instruments. Further, the researcher sorted out similarities and discrepancies. Similarities were grouped within the same themes derived from both interviews and observation data categories while differences led the researcher to generate new themes to provide additional information to this research study.

To find regularities in the data sources, the researcher compared the three different sources and methods to see whether the same patterns kept recurring.

**Reliability, Validity and Triangulation**

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) say that research involves gathering information about the variables in the study. Bush (2007) adds that the authenticity of educational and social research is judged by the procedures used to address validity, reliability and triangulation. Despite the different views on both validity and reliability in quantitative and qualitative research, Brock-Utne (1996) argues that the questions of validity and reliability within research are just as important within qualitative as within quantitative methods, though they may be treated somewhat differently. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) suggest that each method has advantages and disadvantages, and the specific approach adopted should be the best one for answering the research questions. It is important to understand and address the two basic
principles of validity and reliability. These are used to evaluate the adequacy of data collection reported in the research.

Reliability

Hammersley (1987) supports the view that reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or method would produce identical or similar results. Yin (1994) contends that reliability demonstrates that the operations of a study, such as data collection procedures, can be repeated and find the same results. Scott and Morrison (2006) explain that a measure is reliable if it provides the same results on two or more occasions, when the assumption is made that the object being measured has not changed. When a series of measures give similar results, it is possible to say that it has high reliability.

Reliability is defined by McMillan and Schumacher (2006) as the consistency of measurement, the extent to which the results are similar if repeated with the same instrument on different occasions. Another way to conceptualize reliability is to determine the extent to which measures are free from error. Bush (2007) understands reliability in surveys as aiming to collect a substantial amount of data in order to draw conclusions about the phenomenon under investigation.

In the author’s study, the interview guide was piloted in two adjacent schools (Gisagara province) before its use in the main study. The findings from the pilot were cross-checked and were helpful as a reliability check. Another survey reliability factor in this study is the use of a 100% survey sample of 14 principals in 14 schools having a complete secondary cycle in Huye district. In this study, the researcher administered the semi-structured interviews personally, following refinement through piloting, and interacted directly with all the participants using the same interview protocol. The use of the same instrument with the whole sample helped the researcher to increase reliability.

Yin (1994) applied the concept of reliability to case studies, saying that the objective is to be sure that, if a later investigator followed the same procedures and conducted the same case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. The goal of reliability is to minimize the errors and biases in a study.
Bush (2007) says that it is not easy to ensure reliability using unstructured or semi-structured interviews in a case study because of the deliberate strategy of treating each participant as a potentially unique respondent. However, the researcher administered the interviews personally during the first case study to pilot the instrument. The instrument was revisited to minimize the errors and biases. Even if the researcher probed and prompted for in-depth understanding of the participants’ views, this was for clarification and not intending to change any of the questions. The responses were cross-checked and this helped to provide a degree of reliability.

In observational research, Bush (2007) says that, if the observation had been made at a different time, the phenomena would have changed. However, for the sake of reliability, the researcher opted for a predetermined purpose that focused on shadowing two principals. This also focused on educational activities related to pre-established research questions. Cross-checking the observed activities, and comparing the results from other instruments, helped to increase the degree of reliability.

For documentary analysis, the researcher focused on content analysis using available documents. Robson (1994) regards reliability as one of the advantages of content analysis because data are in permanent form and hence can be subjected to re-analysis, and allowing reliability checks and replication of the study.

Validity

McMillan and Schumacher (200) argue that validity is a judgment of the appropriateness of a measure for specific inferences or decisions that result from the score generated. It is a situation-specific-concept i.e. it is assessed depending on the purpose, population, and environmental characteristics in which measurement takes place. To assure validity, the researcher needs to identify assumptions or make arguments to justify an inference or use for a specific purpose and then collect evidence to support these assumptions.

Bell (1987) says that validity tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. Bush (2007) contends that validity, like reliability, is primarily associated with positivism and has been questioned by researchers who favour interpretivism. Some analysts argue that validity may be an inappropriate term in a critical research context and find
trustworthiness as a more appropriate concept to use in the context of critical research (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1998).

To address the validity of the study, the researcher used a multi-method strategy that allowed triangulation in data collection and data analysis. The study was a quantitative and qualitative research that included a survey before the case study second phase. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) comment that most qualitative researchers employ several data collection techniques to enhance validity but usually select one as a central method. To some extent, non-/ or participant observation, interviewing, and documents analysis are interwoven techniques. How each of these strategies is used varies with the study. These different strategies yielded different insights about the author’s research topic and increased the credibility of findings.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) understand validity as a process that refers to the degree of congruence between the explanations of the phenomena and the realities of the world. Validity is the degree to which the interpretations have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher. Another possible strategy to enhance validity in this study was the participants’ language and their verbatim accounts. These helped the researcher to obtain the literal statements of the participants as well as some quotations from the documents to be analyzed. The interviews were phrased in the informant’s language where necessary for those who could not understand English, and then abstract terms were avoided.

Further, the third strategy for research validity consisted of low-inference description which McMillan and Schumacher (2006) describe as considering concrete, precise descriptions from field notes and interview elaboration which are the hallmarks of qualitative research and the principal method for identifying patterns in the data. Low inference means that the descriptions are almost literal and that any important terms are those used and understood by the participants. These descriptions stand in contrast to the abstract language of a researcher.

The training in leadership and management of school management teams, offered by the Ministry of Education in Rwanda, in collaboration with the Belgian NGO (VVOB), creates an environment that can help to explore the capabilities high school principals in the Huye District have in school leadership and management. This links to the validity of this study in the sense
that the researcher embarked on a setting that is favourable for investigating the phenomenon he intended to describe.

**Triangulation**

Bush (2007) says that triangulation consists of comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information or phenomena and a means of cross-checking data to establish its validity. Cohen and Manion (1994) understand it as using two or more methods of data collection and contrast it with a more vulnerable single-method approach because triangular techniques explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) consider triangulation design as a mixed-method study in which both quantitative and qualitative data are collected at or about the same time. Triangulation occurs when the strengths of one method offset the weakness of the other, so that together, they provide a more comprehensive set of data. To the extent that the results from each method converge and indicate the same results, there is triangulation and thus greater credibility in the findings. Theoretically, the triangulation design is used because the strengths of each approach can be applied to provide not only a more complete result but also one that is more valid.

Bush (2007) argues that triangulation is fundamentally a device for improving validity by checking data, either by using mixed methods or by involving a range of participants. The researcher achieved respondent triangulation, in this study, by using a 100% sample survey design of 14 principals in the first phase and two case studies with 16 participants in the second phase. The researcher achieved methodological triangulation by using interviews with different respondents, shadowing observation of two principals, and conducting documentary analysis in the two schools.

Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) state that case study researchers might begin a case study with one method of data collection and gradually shift to, or add, other methods. The use of multiple methods to collect data about a phenomenon can enhance the validity of case study findings through a process of triangulation. Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) add that triangulation is a process of using multiple data collection methods, data sources, or theories to check the validity of case
study validity findings. It helps to eliminate biases that might result from relying exclusively on any one method of data collection. The key to triangulation is to vary in some way the approach used to generate the finding that a researcher is seeking to corroborate. The authors assume that, depending on what type of finding a researcher is seeking to validate, and the kinds of resources available to the researcher, other forms of triangulation might be used.

Yin (1994) argues that the use of multiple sources of evidence in case studies allows an investigator to address a broader range of historical, attitudinal, and behavioral issues. However, Yin (1994) says that the most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of converging lines of inquiry, a process of triangulation. Through this process, any finding or conclusion in a case study is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several different sources of information, following a corroboratory mode.

Yin (1994) advocates that, with triangulation, the potential problems of construct validity also can be addressed because the multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon. He confirms that an analysis of case study methods found that those case studies using multiple sources of evidence were rated more highly, in terms of their overall quality than those that relied only on single sources of information.

**Trustworthiness and Authenticity**

Scott (2007) contends that quality, authenticity and trustworthiness are important as they assess the quality of work undertaken by other researchers and also helps to determine their own research approach and methodology. Further, the authors add that the authenticity and quality of educational and social research are judged due to the procedure the researcher employed to address validity, reliability and triangulation. They also stress that these concepts were originally conceived to be used in positivist or quantitative approach, however, Yildirim (2010) argues that they may also be used in qualitative research. Brock-Utne (1996) goes further saying that the question of validity and reliability within research are just as important within quantitative and qualitative methods even if they are treated differently. The assumption that qualitative methods pay attention to validity and not to reliability is false.
Bush (2012) argues that validity, like reliability, is a notion primarily associated with positivist research and has been questioned by those who favour qualitative, or interpretive, approaches. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) emphasise the central importance of validity within positivist paradigms and claim that it is inappropriate for other perspectives. However, Kincheloe and McLaren (1998) reject the traditional assumption of validity as unhelpful for critical qualitative research and join Bassey (1999) in advocating the alternative concept of trustworthiness.

Despite this negative view, several writers regard validity as wholly appropriate for both quantitative and qualitative research. Hartas’s (2010) definition links validity to trustworthiness. Validity is a criterion for the integrity of a study in terms of accuracy of inferences and the trustworthiness of results.

Lincoln and Denzin (1998), in Bush (2012), go beyond the debate about positivist and interpretive research and pointed out that validity is not an absolute concept:

> Validity represents the always just out of reach, but answerable, claim a text makes for its own authority ... the research could always have been better grounded, the subjects more representative, the researcher more knowledgeable, the research instruments better formulated, and so on ... validity is the researcher’s mask of authority, which allows a particular regime of truth ... to work its way on the world. (Lincoln and Denzin, 1998: 415)

The authors recognised that authenticity may be an elusive target, but it is an important objective for educational management researchers. While there is no perfect truth, a focus on reliability, validity and triangulation should contribute to an acceptable level of authenticity sufficient to satisfy both researcher and reader that the study is meaningful and worthwhile (Bush, 2012).

**Ethical Considerations**

Cohen et al. (2000) state that ethics embody individual and communal codes of conduct based upon adherence to a set of principles which may be explicit and codified, and which may be abstract and impersonal or concrete and personal. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) add that
ethical guidelines include policies regarding informed consent, deception, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, and caring. However, field workers must adopt these principles in complex situations and researchers have to devise ways to elicit cooperation, trust, openness, and acceptance. When participants adjust their priorities and routines to help a researcher, a researcher should be indebted to them and devise ways to reciprocate within the constraints of research and personal ethics. Therefore, this may be done through collaboration with the participants, or by giving them time, feedback and attention.

Linking to these ethical principles, principals, school management team members, teachers and staff, the district officer in charge of education, the elected parents and students’ representatives were asked for their informed consent to the research and permission was also sought, from the district officer and the principals, to conduct research in their schools. Participants were informed that participation in the research is voluntary. The researcher was also committed to protecting the privacy of all participants. Participants and their schools were not identified. The recorded data was coded, transcribed and stored in the researcher computer for research use only. It was kept confidential and access required a password. The raw material was destroyed after the researcher completed his work.

Overview

The author’s study links to a training project in school leadership and management implemented from 2006 to 2013 by the Ministry of Education in Rwanda (MINEDUC), in collaboration with a Belgian NGO (VVOB) sponsored by the Flemish Technical Cooperation (FTC). This project aims at building, improving and reinforcing the country’s school principals’ and school management teams’ capacities to lead and manage schools effectively. However, this research does not intend to evaluate the project, but aims at exploring, describing, and interpreting the high school principals’ enactment of their leadership and management with a focus on school culture, in Huye District, in the Southern Province of Rwanda.

This study was conducted using mixed-methods, involving quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research had two phases. The first phase involved a survey, using semi-structured interviews with the principals of 14 secondary schools in Huye District. Two of these
14 principals were selected as case studies, based on high scores and low scores from the survey. The case studies involve three modes of data collection; semi-structured interviews, shadowing and documentary analysis. There were 16 case study participants, comprising the school management team members in each school, one teacher with significant experience in the school, one elected student representative, and one elected member of the school parents’ committee.

The next chapter provides the findings from the first phase of the research, the survey of 14 school principals.
Chapter Four: Survey Findings

Introduction

The author used both quantitative and qualitative methods to explore the research questions. This chapter presents and discusses the findings from the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTS) that has 17 items broken down into three school culture dimensions: a) Professional collaboration; b) Affiliative/Collegial relationships; and c) Self-determination/Efficacy. The survey was developed by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002), and Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002), for assessing school culture in schools. The SCTS wording was adapted to meet the specific aims of the author’s study. The survey was conducted through semi-structured interviews with the principals of 14 secondary schools in the Huye district. Each principal’s responses were tabulated to present the views, beliefs, attitudes and perceptions on how he/she leads and manages school culture, linked to the SCTS scoring guide (Masden-Copas, 2002). The latter proposes four varied ranges of scores in proportion to the five Likert scale types ranging from 1= Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5= Always.

The scoring guide ranges between 17 i.e. [17 items x 1 (= Never)] as the lowest score and 85 [17 items x 5 (= Always)] as the highest. There are five items for the professional collaboration dimension and six each for the affiliative/collegial relationships dimension, and the self-determination/efficacy dimension. The findings are presented according to the three school culture dimensions and consist of seven main sections. The first section presents the survey findings in form of a table showing the frequency of scores, mean and standard deviation for all principals while the three following sections deal with each individual principal’s scores and the overall mean under each of the three school culture dimensions. The findings interpretations and implications show, according to Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002) SCTS, what in the principals’ opinions, attitudes and beliefs would make the school culture the best it can be. The scores may be categorised into four ranges, as shown below:

- 17-40 = the school culture is critical and immediate attention is necessary in order to invest all available resources in repairing and healing it.
41-60 = the school culture modifications and improvements are necessary and the principal is recommended to make a more intense assessment of the school’s culture to find out which area is most in need of improvement.

61-75 = the school principal is recommended to monitor and continue making school culture positive adjustments.

76-85 = the school culture is positive but continuous monitoring to support and maintain the improvement is recommended to be sure the school stays at the top.

This range of scores helped to differentiate findings for the 14 schools, and how each principal leads and manages the school culture.

Section five consists of a correlative analysis of the results drawn from the 14 principals’ existing school culture practices with the scores presented to show the highest ranked as well as the lowest ranked for the second qualitative phase of the research. Section six involves the implications for school culture according to the SCTS scoring guide and the location of each school within each range of scores. The last section comprises an overview of the chapter.

**Frequency Scores of the School Culture Dimensions**

This section deals with the 14 principals’ frequency scores on the three school culture dimensions. Descriptive statistics that is total, frequencies, mean, and standard deviation, of the respondents’ scores, were calculated to determine the most predominant and influential attitudes and behaviour revealed by the 14 principals. The mean has been determined by aggregating the mentioned responses (numbers) in a table and then dividing that sum by the number of variables (count) included in the sum. The standard deviation has been calculated to show the variability among the responses and was based on the following formula proposed by Michael Sakowski (2007).

\[
S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{N - 1}}
\]
The formula means that one proceeds by subtracting the mean to each variable, then squaring its results, adding the next variable’s results using the same procedure, dividing the results total to the number of scoring ranges minus one and calculating the square root of the found number. The 0 sign used in the table shows that none of the principals’ views and/or attitudes on a certain item matched the corresponding scale in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Total, frequencies, means and standard deviation of participants’ scores of the three school culture dimensions related to the SCTS developed by Masden-Copas (2002).

Table 4.1 presents the 14 school principals’ responses (frequencies, mean and standard deviation) that were provided to the 17 school culture practice items, within the three school culture dimensions. The totals in the table show the number of frequency scores for each item.
and the means indicate the averages that derived from the sum of frequency scores divided by the number of respondents while the standard deviations show the levels of variability of the frequency scores regarding the five Likert scale type. These different numbers served to interpret the findings in order to show the respondents’ views, attitudes, beliefs and implications on their schools’ culture.

Table 4.1 presents the results on the professional collaboration dimension and demonstrates that the principals generally do not encourage teachers to become involved in decision-making concerning materials and resources but they do claim high levels of involvement in curricular issues, and planning time allocation. The findings also indicate that respondents believed that two other school culture practices, developing the school activities schedule with teachers and staff, and collaboration to establish a school community members’ code of conduct, received modest support. However, the table shows that only two items have mean scores that exceed 3.4, showing high levels of agreement on this dimension while three other items show lower overall scores ranging between 2.7 & 1.7.

Table 4.1 also shows that the second school culture dimension, affiliative and collegial relationships, was claimed to be more positively practiced than the two other dimensions. Four items have mean scores in excess of 4.2, showing high levels of agreement. Two items, encouraging school members to debate events that mark the school’s values, and exchanges with other local schools, were also positive but with lower overall scores.

With regard to the efficacy /self-determination dimension, the respondents claimed that people work in the schools because they enjoy it and that there is interdependence and a supportive culture that values each member in the school. Two other practices were claimed to exist, collecting and analysing information together, and including staff in the school’s problem solving, but with a lower overall mean. The lowest enacted practices appear to be empowering the school staff to make instructional decisions and seeking innovative teaching and learning.

The overall findings show that affiliative and collegial relationships dimension scores most highly. In contrast, claims about professional collaboration, and self-determination and efficacy, are lower, suggesting that teachers have limited autonomy and only modest involvement in decision-making.
The next section presents the findings for the 14 individual principals. These findings also serve to identify the highest and the lowest ranked schools, which were chosen as case studies.

**School Culture Findings**

**Professional collaboration**

This section consists of an analysis of the individual findings of the 14 principals’ views, beliefs and enactment of professional collaboration school culture dimension among the school community members. The section contains 14 individual tables, each ranging according to a five point Likert-type scale from ‘never’ to ‘always’, to measure whether the five items that characterise professional collaboration exist or not. Descriptive statistics of percentage and overall mean of the scores are shown in the tables to allow a comparison with the SCTS from Phillips (1996), Masden-Copas and Wagner’s (2002) scoring school culture guide. These authors state that the professional collaboration dimension is based on investigating whether the principal, teachers and staff members meet and work together to solve professional issues that include instructional, organisational and curricular issues. The following tables show the findings from each principal. The highlighted space in the individual principal’s table marks that the principal’s enactment does not match the item.

**Principal PKA**

Table 4.2 presents the perceptions of principal PKA on the professional collaboration dimension broken down into five items. The results indicated that PKA perceived that the school community members’ code of conduct and the students’ behaviour code are often the product of collaboration and consensus. Similarly, she believes that planning and organising time allocation is sometimes a collective activity in this school. In contrast, the principal admitted that teachers and staff are not involved in decisions about resources and rarely work together to develop the schedule of school activities.
### SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional collaboration</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behaviours</strong></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 1 2 3 8

| Percentage | 20% | 20% | 20% | 40% | 0% |

Overall mean 2.8

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

### Table 4.2 Principal PKA professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

**Principal PCF**

Table 4.3 indicates that principal PCF viewed that time allocation and organisation is often a product of collective work. In addition, the principal claims that sometimes instructional and curricular issues are discussed, school schedule activities are developed together and codes of conduct for school members and students are consensually produced. However, the principal perceived that staff are never involved in decision-making about resources and materials.
### Table 4.3 Principal PCF professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behaviours</strong></td>
<td><strong>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always*

**Principal PKB**

Table 4.4 demonstrates that principal PKB believed that instructional strategies and curricular issues are always a result of school members’ debate, and time allocation planning and organization are similarly derived from teachers’ and staff collective agreement. Further, the principal viewed that teachers and staff involvement in decisions regarding resources and school materials sometimes occurs in his school. In contrast, the principal felt that staff involvement in
developing the school activities schedule rarely occurs and that the school members’ code of conduct and the students’ behaviour code is not a product of consensus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School culture behaviours</th>
<th>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>✔</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th></th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.4 Principal PKB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)
Table 4.5 Principal PAU professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.5 shows that PAU perceived that the allocation of time to school members always results from collective planning. The findings also show that the principal believed that they only sometimes debate curriculum issues and pedagogical strategies. Similarly, developing the school’s schedule of activities, and the codes of conduct for school members and students, only sometimes come from collaboration. However, the results show that the principal believed that staff are never involved in decision making about resources and materials.
Table 4.6 Principal PGS professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.6 indicates that principal PGS perceived that instructional and curriculum issues are always discussed and that the codes of conduct for school members and students are always consensually produced. In addition, the principal claims that sometimes the school schedule activities and time allocation for school members are developed together. However, the principal said that staff are never involved in decision-making about resources and materials.
Table 4.7 Principal PGT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.7 shows that principal PGT believed that time allocation for staff is always collectively planned and that the schedule of school activities is often a product of collaboration. Further, the principal perceived that pedagogical and curricular issues are sometimes discussed. In contrast, the principal stated that staff are never involved in decision-making about school materials and resources and that the codes of conduct for both staff and students are never a product of consensus.
Principal PGB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behaviours</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.8 Principal PGB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.8 indicates that principal PGB felt that pedagogical strategies and curricular issues, and the time allocation for staff and teachers, are always consensually discussed. In addition, PGB believed that staff and teachers are only sometimes involved in decision-making about materials and resources and the codes of conduct for both school members and students are sometimes a product of collaboration. In contrast, PGB stated that the schedule of school activities is never developed together with teachers and staff.
Table 4.9 Principal PKI professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002).

Table 4.9 demonstrates that principal PKI believed that the school staff and teachers are always involved in decision-making about resources and materials, and that pedagogical and curricular issues are often collectively discussed. Further, PKI perceived that the school schedule activities, and time allocation for staff and teachers, are sometimes a product of consensus. However, the principal stated that the school codes of conduct for staff, and for students, are never the outcome of consensual collaboration.
## Principal PKT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behaviours</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.10 Principal PKT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002)

Table 4.10 indicates that principal PKT believed that the school schedule of activities is often a result of discussions with teachers and staff. In addition, the principal perceived that instructional strategies and curriculum issues, and time allocation for teachers and staff, are sometimes collectively debated. However, he stated that teachers and staff are never involved in decision-making regarding materials and resources or in collaboration about the school codes of conduct.
for both staff and for students. The findings show that principal PKT appears to be reluctant to share power with his staff.

**Principal PMT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.11 Principal PMT professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

Table 4.11 shows that principal PMT perceived that organizing time allocation for teachers and staff is always collectively discussed and that the schedule of school activities is often developed together. The results also show that PMT believed that instructional strategies and curriculum
issues are sometimes discussed. However, he also stated that teachers and staff are never involved in decision-making regarding school resources and materials and that the establishment of the school codes of conduct for school staff, and for students, is never a product of collaboration. These findings suggest that principal PMT is reluctant to share power on key dimensions of school management.

Principal PSB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behaviours</td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.12 Principal PSB professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).
Table 4.12 demonstrates that principal PSB believed that instructional strategies and curriculum issues, the schedule of school activities, and the time allocation to teachers and staff are sometimes discussed. However, the principal stated that teachers and staff are never involved in the decision-making process with regard to materials and resources, and that the codes of conduct for school members and for students are never a result of consensus. The results indicate that the principal is reluctant to share power with his school community members.

**Principal PSV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school community members' code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Always

*Table 4.13 Principal PSV professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).*
Table 4.13 shows that principal PSV perceived that the school members and students’ codes of conduct, and the planning and organization of time allocation for staff and teachers, are always a result of collaboration. Similarly, the principal felt that instructional strategies and curriculum issues, and the schedule of school activities, are sometimes a product of consensus. In contrast, PSV said that teachers and staff are never involved in decision-making regarding materials and resources. The findings show a greater willingness of principal PSV to share power with his staff.

**Principal PRP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behaviours</td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

*Table 4.14 Principal PRP professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).*
Table 4.14 indicates that principal PRP viewed that the codes of conduct for school staff and for students are always a result of collaboration. In addition, he perceived that instructional strategies and curriculum issues, and planning and organizing time allotted to teachers and staff, were sometimes collectively discussed. Similarly, he claimed that teachers and staff are sometimes involved in decision-making about material and resources. However, the principal stated that the schedule of school activities is never developed collectively.

**Principal PRS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional collaboration</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behaviours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff discuss instructional, pedagogical strategies and curriculum issues.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff work together to develop the school activities schedule.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and staff are involved in the decision-making process with regard to material and resources.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school community members’ code of conduct and the student behaviour code are a result of collaboration and consensus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The planning and organisational time allotted to teachers and staff is used to plan as collective units/teams rather than as separate individuals.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Percentage | 40% | 20% | 20% | 0% | 20% |
| Overall mean | 2.4 |

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Always

Table 4.15 Principal PRS professional collaboration school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).
Table 4.15 shows that principal PRS perceived that only the codes of conduct for school staff and for students are always discussed and that the schedule of school activities is sometimes developed together with other members. In contrast, the principal believed that instructional and curriculum issues are rarely discussed among the staff and that staff are never involved in decision-making on resources and materials, and that the time allocation for staff is never a result of collaboration. The results show that principal PRS is reluctant to share power within his school.

**Affiliative/ collegial relationships**

Affiliative and collegial relationships dimensions are said to be based on how people enjoy working together, support one another, and feel valued and included in their daily activities (Phillips and Wagner, 2002). This section presents the survey findings on how the 14 surveyed principals believe that they enact these kinds of relationships with staff and other community members.

**Principal PKA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/Collegiality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate event that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes
Table 4.16 Principal PKA affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002).

Table 4.16 shows that principal PKA believed that the affiliative/collegial relationships dimension of culture is a strong feature of his school. Five of the six items are said to always occur. The only cautious response relates to the item on rituals, traditions and celebrations where this principal felt that she only sometimes encourages such activities.

Principal PCF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/Collegiality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate event that marked and supported the school’s values.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The school reflects a true sense of community.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Sometime

Table 4.17 Principal PCF affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002).

Table 17 shows that PCF believed that he always supports and appreciates ideas sharing with other school members. Further, the principal perceived that three of the school culture practices
often take place in his school while the two items relating to the principal’s encouragement of rituals and celebrations were only sometimes supported.

**Principal PKB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affiliative/Collegiality relationships</strong></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.18  Principal PKB affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.18 indicates that principal PKB perceived that he always supports and appreciates ideas sharing, also encourages rituals and celebrations that sustain good interpersonal relationships, and that the school always reflects a sense of community. Similarly, the principal perceived that he only sometimes encourages celebration of events that mark the school’s values, only sometimes exchange with local schools and that the school schedule activities and the strategic plan only sometimes reflect collaboration.
Principal PAU

Table 4.19 shows that principal PAU believed that the affiliative/ collegial relationships dimension is highly practiced in his school, with four of the six items said to always happen. However, the responses to the two items on celebrations of events that have marked the school’s values, and exchange with other local schools, suggest a more cautious response, because he only sometimes facilitates such events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/Collegiality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
<td>2=Rare</td>
<td>3=Sometimes</td>
<td>4=Often</td>
<td>5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.19 Principal PAU affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Principal PGS

Table 4.20 indicates that principal PGS felt that the affiliative/ collegial relationships dimension of school culture is a strong feature of his school. The principal believed that four of the six
items always occur in the school. However, the principal admitted that he only sometimes supports and appreciates sharing ideas and that staff exchange with other local schools is rare.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/Collegality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2 3 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0% 16.6% 16.6% 0% 66.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.20 Principal PGS affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002).

Principal PGT

Table 4.21 shows that principal PGT believed that he always encourages celebrations of events that mark the school’s values and that the school always reflects a true sense of community. The principal also stated that three of the school culture practices often occur in the school while exchanges with other local schools only sometimes happen.
### SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</strong></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

**Table 4.21** Principal PGT affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

**Principal PGB**

Table 4.22 indicates that principal PGB perceived that he always encourages celebrations that mark the school’s values. The principal claimed that he often supports and appreciates ideas sharing. Three of the six items sometimes occur in the school but the item relating to rituals and celebrations was only rarely supported.
### Table 4.22  Principal PGB affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.22  Principal PGB affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

**Principal PKI**

Table 4.23 demonstrates that principal PKI perceived that the affiliative/ collegial relationships dimension is a very strong feature of his school. The principal claimed that all the six items relating to this culture dimension always occur in her school, suggesting a strong emphasis on collaboration. However, this is based on self-reporting and cannot be confirmed.
### SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behavior</strong></td>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

**Table 4.23** Principal PKI affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

**Principal PKT**

Table 4.24 shows that principal PKT claimed that the affiliative/ collegial relationships dimension is manifested in the school. Four of the six items are said to always occur. There were more cautious responses to the two items on rituals, traditions and celebrations, and on the strategic plan, where the principal stated that these practices only sometimes occurred.
### Table 4.24  Principal PKT affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden–Copas (2002)

**Principal PMT**

Table 4.25 shows that principal PMT believed that the affiliative/collegial relationships school culture dimension is strongly practiced in the school, with five of the six items always happening. The only practice that only sometimes occurs relates to staff exchange with other local schools.
## SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td>✔️</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Sometimes*

Table 4.25  Principal PMT affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002)

### Principal PSB

Table 4.26 indicates that the principal PSB perceived that three of the six items always occur in the school. In addition, the item related to the school as a true sense of community often characterizes his school. However, there were more cautious responses concerning staff exchange (sometimes) and celebrations of events that mark the school’s values (rarely).
### SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

**Table 4.26** Principal PSB affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

**Principal PSV**

Table 4.27 indicates that principal PSV believed that the affiliative/collegial relationships school culture dimension is a strong feature of his school. Four of the six items are claimed to always take place. In contrast, the principal sated that staff exchange only sometimes happens and that he rarely encourages sharing ideas within the school community.
### Table 4.27 Principal PSV affiliative/collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden-Copas (2002).

#### Principal PRP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affiliative/Collegiality relationships</strong></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff school members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes
Table 4.28  Principal PRP affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.28 indicates a mixed response from principal PRP in respect of the affiliative/collegial relationships school culture dimension. The principal claimed that three of the six items always take place while the three other items are said to occur only sometimes.

**Principal PRS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affiliative/ Collegiality relationships</strong></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Teachers, staff and students and other staff members are encouraged to remember, debate and celebrate events that marked and supported the school’s values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal, teachers and staff exchange experience with other local schools, visit or meet inside or outside of the school to enjoy each others’ company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school reflects a true sense of community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school schedule activities and strategic plan reflect frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other staff members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The principal encourages, supports and appreciates the sharing of ideas by members of the wide school community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal encourages and facilitates rituals, traditions, celebrations to maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.29  Principal PRS affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.29 suggests that principal PRS is reluctant to share power. He often facilitates rituals, traditions and celebrations and three of the school culture practices are perceived to sometimes take place in his school. However, the two items relating to encouraging celebrations of events that marked the school’s values, and collaboration over the strategic plan, were never facilitated.
Self-determination/ Efficacy

Phillips and Wagner (2003) based the efficacy and self-determination school culture dimension on assessing whether the school community members work because they want to be there, or if they work to improve their skills as true professionals, or they simply consider themselves as helpless victims of a large and uncaring bureaucracy in their schools. These views drive the analysis of the 14 principals’ behaviours and how they perceive that they respond to these items on self-determination and efficacy among their staff community members. This section presents the findings as follows:

Principal PKA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.30  Principal PKA efficacy/self-determination school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.30 shows that the principal claimed that people work in the school because they enjoy it and that staff are empowered to make instructional decisions. She also believed that the school
has a supportive culture. In contrast, it seems that innovation is rare at this school. Problem solving is perceived to occur sometimes or often.

**Principal PCF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-determination/Efficacy</strong></td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repearing what has always been done.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4.31 Principal PCF self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).*

Table 4.31 indicates that principal PCF perceived that his staff works in the school because they often enjoy it and there is often interdependence and a supportive culture among school members. The results also show that he agreed there is sometimes inclusion of school members in problem solving but the culture of innovation and staff empowerment is still rare.
**Principal PKB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
<th>1=Never</th>
<th>2=Rare</th>
<th>3=Sometimes</th>
<th>4=Often</th>
<th>5=Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td>✅</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
<td>✅</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td>✅</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

**Table 4.32 Principal PKB self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).**

Table 4.32 shows that principal PKB perceived that interdependence and a supportive culture that values each member and inclusion of school members in problem solving, always occur in his school. The principal also felt that people work in the school because they often enjoy it. However, there were more cautious responses to the items on collaboration regarding information collection and analysis, innovation in teaching and learning, and staff empowerment, where the principal believed they were rarely supported. These findings suggest that the principal is reluctant to encourage collaborative decision-making.
## Principal PAU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
<th>1=Never</th>
<th>2=Rare</th>
<th>3=Sometimes</th>
<th>4=Often</th>
<th>5=Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>66.6%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2=Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4=Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.33 Principal PAU self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

The striking feature of table 4.33 is that four items relating to collaboration are rarely supported, according to principal PAU. He claimed that there is always interdependence and a supportive culture among the school members and that people work in the school because they sometimes enjoy it. These data collectively suggest a reluctance to share power in this school.
### Principal PGS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage</strong></td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall mean</strong></td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

**Table 4.34 Principal PGS self –determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).**

Table 4.34 shows that principal PGS thought that there is always interdependence and a supportive culture among the school members and people work in the school because they always enjoy it. He also believes that staff are sometimes able to solve problems collectively. However, the principal admitted that three of the six practices on the self-determination/ efficacy dimension never occur in the school, suggesting a reluctance to share power.
Table 4.35 Principal PGT self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.35 indicates that principal PGT viewed that school members are always included in problem solving. He also claimed that there is often collaboration while collecting and analyzing information, interdependence and a supportive culture among school members, and that staff work in the school because they often enjoy it. However, the results show that the principal accepted that staff empowerment to make instructional decisions, and encouragement to be innovative, rarely occur.
**Principal PGB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>![Checkmark]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>16.6% 0% 50% 0% 33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.36 Principal PGB self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.36 shows that the principal PGB claimed that there is always staff inclusion in school problem solving and people work in the school because they always enjoy it. In addition, the results indicate that the principal perceived that three of the six practices sometimes occur in the school. However, the principal admitted that staff are not empowered to make instructional decisions.
### School Culture Factor Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-determination/ Efficacy</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0% 16.6% 16.6% 0% 66.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.37  Principal PKI self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.37 shows that principal PKI perceived that the self-determination/efficacy school culture dimension is a strong feature of his school. Four of the six items are said to always occur and the staff are sometimes empowered to make instructional decisions. However, the principal admitted that seeking innovative teaching and learning is only rarely encouraged.
Table 4.38 Principal PKT self-determination/efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden-Copas (2002).

Table 4.38 indicates that principal PKT felt that the self-determination/efficacy dimension of school culture strongly exists in his school. The results show that the principal believed that four of the six items always occur in the school and additionally he perceived that staff empowerment also sometimes takes place. The only cautious response relates to the item on seeking innovation that he believed is rare.
## Principal PMT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2 3 4 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0% 16.6% 16.6% 16.6% 50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes*

Table 4.39  Principal PMT self-determination/ efficacy relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.39 demonstrates that principal PMT claimed that there is always interdependence and a supportive culture in his school, staff are always included in problem solving, and people work in the school because they always enjoy it. In addition, it seems that collecting and analyzing information together, and empowering staff, occur sometimes or often. However, encouraging innovation is still rare in the school.
Table 4.40 Principal PSB self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.40 shows that this dimension is a weak feature at this school. Collaboration to collect and analyse information, and encouraging innovations, are perceived to be rare while staff inclusion in problem solving never occurs. Principal PSB believed that the school has sometimes interdependence and a supportive culture among school members. He added that staff are sometimes empowered and that they work in the school because they sometimes enjoy it.
### Principal PSV

#### Table 4.41 Principal PSV self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never 2=Rare 3=Sometimes 4=Often 5=Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2 3 4 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>33.3% 0% 16.6% 16.6% 33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.41 shows that principal PSV felt that people work in the school because they always enjoy it. The principal also agreed that there is always collaboration in collecting and analyzing information. Further, the principal believed that the school has often a supportive culture and staff are sometimes empowered. However, he also said that innovation seeking, and inclusion in problem solving, never take place in the school.
Principal PRP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/ Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School culture behavior</td>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[1=\text{Never}; \ 2=\text{Rare}; \ 3=\text{Sometimes}; \ 4=\text{Often}; \ 5=\text{Sometimes}\]

Table 4.42 Principal PRP self-determination/ efficacy school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.42 indicates that principal PRP claimed that there is often interdependence and a supportive culture in the school, staff empowerment about instructional decisions, and that people work in the school because they often enjoy it. He also said that collecting and analyzing information collectively sometimes happens. However, the principal added that innovation, and inclusion in problem solving, rarely occur.
**Principal PRS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE FACTOR</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-determination/Efficacy</td>
<td>1=Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School culture behavior</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with staff members to collect and analyse information on something not working in order to predict and prevent than reacting or repairing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitation of school members’ interdependence and a supportive culture that values each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement of school community members to seek for innovative alternatives to teaching and learning than repeating what has always been done.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of school community members to define the school problem and find solutions other than blaming each other.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school staff is empowered to make instructional decisions than waiting for supervisors to tell them what to do.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People work in the school because they enjoy and feel ownership.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1=Never; 2= Rare; 3=Sometimes; 4= Often; 5=Sometimes

Table 4.43  Principal PRP affiliative/ collegial relationships school culture practice scores as assessed by the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTC) developed and refined by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Masden –Copas (2002).

Table 4.43 shows that principal PRS perceived that people work in the school because they always enjoy it. The principal also claimed that the school sometimes facilitates interdependence and a supportive culture that values people, and staff inclusion in problem solving. However, the principal believed that collaboration to collect and analyse information, seeking innovation, and empowering staff to make instructional decisions are rare in this school.

**Correlation of Principals’ School Culture Dimension Scores**

Phillips (1993) understands school culture as including the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours that characterize the school in terms of how people treat, and feel about, each other, the extent to
which people feel included and appreciated, and the rituals and ceremonies reflecting professional collaboration and collegiality and self-determination.

This section presents a correlative summary of the beliefs of the 14 principals on the three school culture dimensions and their scores are tabulated and compared to the SCTS scoring guide (Masden-Copas, 2002) to rank the highly scored and lowest schools. The table presentation and interpretation follow below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL CULTURE DIMENSIONS</th>
<th>Professional collaboration</th>
<th>Affiliative / Collegial relationships</th>
<th>Self-determination/ Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Items Scale Score.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>56 %</td>
<td>28 %</td>
<td>83.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PK A</td>
<td>1 2 3 8 0</td>
<td>0 0 3 0 2 5</td>
<td>24 80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PC F</td>
<td>1 0 9 4 0</td>
<td>0 0 6 1 2 5</td>
<td>18 60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PK B</td>
<td>1 2 3 0 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 9 0 1 5</td>
<td>20 66.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA U</td>
<td>1 0 9 0 5 5</td>
<td>0 0 6 0 2 0</td>
<td>16 53.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG S</td>
<td>1 0 6 0 1 0</td>
<td>2 3 0 2 0</td>
<td>16 53.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG T</td>
<td>2 0 3 4 5 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 3 1 2 0</td>
<td>16 53.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PG B</td>
<td>1 0 6 0 1 0</td>
<td>2 0 0 4 1 2</td>
<td>16 53.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PKI</td>
<td>1 0 6 4 5 16 64 %</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 3 2 0</td>
<td>23 83.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PK T</td>
<td>2 0 6 4 0 12 48 %</td>
<td>0 0 6 0 2 0</td>
<td>25 83.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM T</td>
<td>2 0 3 4 5 1 44 %</td>
<td>0 0 3 0 2 5</td>
<td>24 80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS B</td>
<td>2 0 9 0 0 11 44 %</td>
<td>2 3 4 1 2 5</td>
<td>14 46.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS V</td>
<td>1 0 6 0 1 7 68 %</td>
<td>2 3 0 2 0</td>
<td>19 63.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR P</td>
<td>1 0 9 0 5 15 60 %</td>
<td>0 0 9 0 1 5</td>
<td>19 63.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR S</td>
<td>2 2 3 8 0 12 48 %</td>
<td>2 0 9 4 0 15 80 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.44 14 principals’ correlated beliefs’ scores of three school culture dimensions as assessed by the SCTS developed by Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002).
Table 4.44 shows the findings of the 14 secondary school principals’ beliefs on the school culture practices they enact according to the three school culture dimensions. The calculation to determine the percentage of the principals’ views was based on the Likert scale, from ‘never’ to ‘always’, to determine the highest and/or lowest prevailing behaviour among the three school culture dimensions according to the SCTR scoring guide (Masden-Copas, 2002) for assessing school culture in schools.

According to the correlation, affiliative/collegial relationship appears to be more prevalent in the 14 schools than the two other dimensions with the percentages ranging between 50% and 100% while efficacy/self-determination ranges between 46.6% and 83.3% and professional collaboration is between 44% and 68%. The results for each school culture dimension as viewed by each school principal are:

a) The professional collaboration is perceived at the level of between 44% & 48% by three principals; four principals at 56% and seven principals at a level between 60% & 68%.

b) The affiliative/collegial relationship is believed to be enacted at the level of 50% to 76.6% by three principals; while nine of the principals perceived to enact it between 80% & 86.6%. The results show two principals who perceived this dimension more highly than others, one scoring 100% and one 93.3%.

c) The self-determination/efficacy behaviour is viewed to be enacted at 46.6% by one principal; between 53.3% & 56.6% by three principals and between 60% & 66.6% by five principals. The correlation also shows that five principals enacted the dimension between 70% & 83.3%.

**Implications for School Culture According to the SCTS Scoring Guide**

The survey findings show the implications for school culture according to Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002) and Wagner and Masden-Copas’S (2002) SCTS scoring guide. The correlation also presents the 14 principals’ opinions, attitudes and beliefs and it helped the researcher to establish how these principals view their schools’ cultures. The principals’ scores
are categorised following the ranges below in order to locate each school within each category, according to the principals.

✓ 17-40 = the school culture is critical and immediate attention is necessary in order to invest all available resources in repairing and healing it. No schools are perceived to be in this range.

✓ 41-60= the school culture modifications and improvements are necessary and the principal is recommended to make a more intense assessment of the school’s culture to find out which area is most in need of improvement. Nine schools are perceived to be in this category.

✓ 61-75 = the school principal is recommended to monitor and continue making school culture positive adjustments. Five schools are perceived to be in this range.

✓ 76-85 = the school culture is positive but continuous monitoring to support and maintain the improvement is recommended to be sure the school stays at the top. No schools are perceived to be in this category.

These results imply that the schools which range between 44 & 60 (PRS, PSB, PCF, PAU, PGB, PGS, PRP, PKB, and PGT) have a school culture which is perceived to be in need of modifications and improvements and the principal is recommended to make a more intense assessment of the school’s culture to find out which area is most in need of improvement.

Five schools (PSV, PKT, PMT, PKA and PKI) range between 61 & 71. These results imply that the school principal is recommended to monitor and continue making school culture positive adjustments.

The results from the correlation of the three school culture dimensions with regards to the SCTS ( Masden-Copas,2002) scoring guide proves PKI to be the highly ranked with 71 points out of 85 ( i.e. 83.3%) while PRS is the lowest ranked with 44 out of 85 ( 51.7%). According to the criteria set out in chapter three, these two schools were chosen as the case studies for the qualitative phase of the research. PKI is a female while PRS is male, so the case studies also provide a gender balance.
Overview

This chapter presented the findings and quantitative analysis of the survey of 14 school principals’ attitudes, beliefs and perceptions on how they enact leadership and management of school culture in their respective schools. The analysis is based on the School Culture Triage Survey developed by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002), Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002) that has 17 items, grouped under three school culture dimensions: a) professional collaboration, b) affiliative/ collegial relationships, c) and efficacy/ self-determination.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the 14 principals and the results were tabulated and interpreted. Descriptive statistics were used to provide the results, showing the mean, standard deviation and different percentages to indicate the level of frequency the 14 principals thought they practiced the school culture in their schools.

A correlative table of the three school culture dimensions was presented to indicate the most prevailing school culture practice. This was also used to identify the highest and lowest ranked principals for the case study phase of the research.

The next chapter provides the findings from the first case study of the highest ranked principal (PKI).
Chapter Five: Case Study Findings for School PKIH

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the first case-study school. This school was purposively selected as the highest ranked school from the quantitative findings of 14 principals who participated in the first phase of this study. The data presentation is based mainly on semi-structured interviews with the PKIH school management team (SMT), (including the principal, the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar), and one representative teacher, one representative parent and one student. The findings also include data from the documentary analysis, and from the shadowing of the principal.

The findings consist of an exploration and explanation of the eight participants’ attitudes on their school’s leadership and management enactment and its impact on the school culture creation, support and /or maintenance. The participants’ meanings involved their feelings, beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and actions, collected through semi-structured interviews, while documentary analysis and shadowing supplemented the interview data for methodological triangulation.

This qualitative data analysis was an inductive process of organizing data into categories and identifying patterns (i.e. relationships) among the categories, while seeking for plausible explanations. Further, the researcher followed a thematic analysis procedure of the three types of data that were generated from semi-structured interviews, documentary analysis and shadowing-observation. Data are structured into three main themes: collaboration and communication, staff empowerment, leadership and relationships.

The presentation is subdivided into five sub-sections within each theme as follows: documentary analysis, interview with the principal, interviews with the SMTs, interviews with other stakeholders (teachers’ representative, students’ representative and parents’ representative), and the findings from the shadowing. The third section is an overview of the findings.
To comply with my undertaking of guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality of interviewees I coded the name of the school and the names of the respondents are identified only by their positions: The principal, the head of studies, the discipline master, the bursar, the secretary, teachers’ representative, students’ representative and parents’ representative.

**Thematic Data Analysis and Findings**

The thematic data analysis started with the data organization in order to become familiar with what participants have said and to get a sense of the whole. The author embarked on generating the recurring ideas and meanings, then giving a descriptive name/ or initial code to each set of data derived from each participant and notes taken from the national education policy and PKIH school documents and from the notes of the shadowing. I compared the data, and grouped similar codes to avoid duplication and overlapping descriptions. The data were organized into categories, within each theme. This organization led the researcher to develop the major themes for data analysis and to present what each theme embodies as follows:

**Collaboration and communication**

This section deals with a presentation and analysis of the findings derived from what the national education policy and the school’s (PKIH) documents stipulate about the nature of collaboration and communication in schools, the findings from the interviews with the PKIH school principal, the SMT members, and the three education stakeholders, and the findings from shadowing the principal.

**Documentary analysis**

The analyzed school documents comprised:

- The roles and responsibility (job description) of a secondary school head teacher (principal).
- The internal and external administrative documents, such as the vacancy announcement and appointment forms, the working contract and termination, dismissal and/ or resignation, and report components (school entry and annual reports).
- Pedagogical documents, including the principal’s and the head of studies teachers’ supervisions assessment and feedback discussion reports etc.

The researcher also examined the school and national education policy documents related to secondary school:

- Legal texts adopted by the government to lead the education system e.g. the organic law no 20/2003 of 03/08/2003 establishing education organizations.

- The Presidential order no 11/01 of 07/03/2005 and the Prime Minister’s order no 05/03 of 15/03/2003 establishing the organization and functioning of the General Inspection of Education.

The training manual for secondary school principals’ leadership and management (MINEDUC school management, 2008) stipulates that the laws, rules and instructions are established to regulate and promote collaboration and communication among the human resources of secondary schools that include the administrative staff (head teacher, head of studies, discipline master, the bursar and secretary), the teaching staff, supporting staff, students and parents (as partners). This collaboration and communication is mainly depicted through the organizational structure of the school to show vertical and horizontal patterns of authority and collaborative relationships between and among school stakeholders. Vertical collaboration and communication consists of top-down instructions and/or rules from MINEDUC to the province and that the principal receives from the district education office and disseminates through the school’s middle leaders. Horizontal collaboration and communication mainly takes place in the school setting when the principal or any other school middle leader addresses the school community on issues for debate, to reach a common understanding.

Collaboration and communication often follow the formal organizational structure of the school, which also shows the collaborative relationships between the different groups inside the school and with the different school stakeholders. Figure 5.1 describes the different levels of collaboration and communication in Rwandan secondary schools, as prescribed by the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP, 2008-2012).
Principal’s job description

The mission of the Ministry of Education for schools in Rwanda is to transform the Rwandan students into skilled human capital for a socio-economic development of the country by ensuring equitable access to quality education that focuses on combating illiteracy, promotion of science and technology, critical thinking and positive values (MINEDUC, 2006).
To achieve that, the school principal’s job description (MINEDUC School management, 2008; organic law nr 29/2003 of 30/08/2003) states that the principal’s job involves five aspects:

- Leadership and management of policies, regulations, and procedures for staff and students’ supervision in a safe learning environment to meet the approved curricula and the mission of the school.
- General administration through good governance of the school and of extra curricula activities.
- Leadership of administrative, pedagogical and social activities; financial and human resource management.
- Inspiring others in their ideas and actions towards an honourable goal.
- Organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling the school activities in collaboration and communication with all education partners.

The Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) document stipulates that:

- The principal and the school community have the power to collaborate and communicate in taking strategic administrative decisions about resource management and operational activities for daily school management to achieve the goals.

However, the ESSP also states that schools have to conform to the education policy system i.e. laws, rules and regulations (Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2008-2012).

The Prime Minister’s order nr 05/03 of 15/03/2003 requires the school principal:

- To collaborate and communicate with others through justice, equity and impartiality; and a democratic spirit.

- To avoid any action that may undermine the existing good collaboration between the school and its stakeholders.

- To inform other school authorities and learners about problems that may affect their work, and to meet parents to discuss the conduct, progress and results of their children.
Interview with the principal

A semi-structured interview was conducted face-to-face with the principal of PKIH’s school and assumed a conversational manner in which the researcher asked for facts as well as for the principal’s opinions about events. This section focuses on collaboration and communication.

At the beginning of the interview, the researcher asked about the principal’s top priority for the school:

“*My top priority is based on good relationships inside and outside the school, teaching and learning, educating for God and the country through the school vision which is ‘Patriotism, Unity & Work’... so that students can succeed in school exams and the national examinations. Further, I have to promote the success of all students and facilitating the implementation of teaching and learning that is shared and supported by the whole school community, ... sustaining a school culture and instructional programme conducive to student learning and professional growth, ... ensuring the management of the school’s organization and resources for an efficient and effective learning environment, ... collaborating with parents and the whole school community through integrity, fairness and in an ethical value-based manner***.”

This quotation confirms that the principal’s priority was to achieve success through good collaboration with the whole school community and other stakeholders. She added that:

“I believe my principalship is a success because I always collaborate and discuss instructional and pedagogical issues with teachers and other principals of the district in our monthly meeting... and... I think that 85% of my students’ success is due to teachers’ work, collaboration as a family and their teaching and learning quality, and ... a system of collaboration which is supplemented by regular meetings with staff and students”.

To strengthen that collaborative spirit and communication with other education stakeholders, the principal claimed that she operated through a participative leadership style:

“You know... all the school structures here very often meet... some meet on a weekly basis like teachers... I also meet students each morning and monthly in a general meeting... and each structure gives reports for the whole school after having time to share ideas ... and in order to participate and have a share in decision making each at his/her level. Another issue is that I think all school members have up to now shown a good collaboration among the leaders and the led so that each may have space and rights of expression”.
The principal extended her belief in communication and collaboration to the wider school community:

“I regularly meet with teachers, students, district officers and parents and discuss what may develop our school, and try to find out different solutions for the problems we have through a common understanding with all concerned parties because... it improves trust and therefore has a positive impact on what happens in the school and among its members”.

The principal added that her school collaborates with the neighbouring schools either to share from their experience or to share knowledge:

“We try to visit other schools and we make our students meet with their peers from other schools like in sports competition, traditional dance exhibition and performance. We... for example... have an organization named “educators’ Carrefour” made of three adjacent districts of Huye, Nyanza and Gisagara through which we test our students especially those intending to do the national examination in senior three and senior six”.

The principal also expressed how she is in close contact with her staff and students and told the researcher how the wider school community, students and parents were informed about the students’ learning progress:

“Concerning the learning progress of the students... when time comes to inform people about it... I regularly organize meetings with the school staff and inform them... I also send reports where necessary like to the district officer... and then the class masters give each student his/her results’ bulletin or transcript and each student goes back home with an information sheet for parents to let them know what takes place in this school... also requiring the parents to acknowledge they have received information and asking them to sign the sheets and give some suggestions when their children are back at school”.

The principal also explained how she inducts new students and staff:

“Normally... the staff members contribute a little money each month for probable happy or bad occasions that may happen through the school year... so at the beginning of the year for example... we always make a warm welcome feast for newcomers being teachers and students, and share meals and drinks. We go on inducting them, especially teachers, through conversations we make during the 10h00 tea break, providing them with the necessary teaching materials, and being at their disposal at any time they need our help”.

155
In summary, the principal self-report claimed to prioritise good relationships inside and outside the school and also added that her school succeeded because of collaboration and communication with the school community and discussion with teachers about some instructional and pedagogical issues. Further, she claimed to communicate students’ learning progress through different meetings held at school and through students’ transcripts to their parents. She also claimed to induct new teachers and students.

*Interviews with SMT members*

This section presents data on how four of the SMT members (the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar) perceived collaboration and communication with the school principal, the hierarchy and other education stakeholders.

The findings are structured into seven themes:

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.
2. How the principal achieves success.
3. The principal’s participative leadership style.
4. Collaboration with the student council.
5. Communication of the students’ learning progress.
6. Inducting new school members.
7. Liaison with other schools.

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.

This section addresses issues of the SMT members’ beliefs on their school principal’s priorities. The four participants offered overlapping views on what they believed their principal was prioritizing, with some similarities and some slight individual differences. Three SMT members confirmed that their principal’s priorities included the school vision, accountability and working for the better management of the school. Their views were as follows:
Though the discipline master’s perspective is linked to his responsibility for the conduct of the students, he shared the same views with the secretary that their principal prioritizes quality education as shown below:

“The top priority for the school principal is to promote quality education and instruction in the school and also working in good collaboration with the school community members. I always hear her saying she wishes her students would better succeed, a reason why I can confirm what I say”. (Secretary)

“The top priority for the school principal is to lead and manage the school life including teaching activities, propose a recruitment of capable teachers and other staff, maintaining discipline at school, relating to parents and the wide school community as well as the government authority and making sure that these are well done. She is somehow democratic and energetic, committed to what she does, has an entrepreneurial spirit with values, conviction and expectations that all students can learn up to high ability levels… she as well inspires us with and through the school vision that has to mark students and staff both inside and outside the school building”. (Discipline master)

2. How the principal achieves success.

Two SMT members shared the view that the principal’s success is based on gathering information before any decision is taken and in developing cohesion among school members:

“I think that the principal promotes cohesion which is widely acknowledged as a key characteristic of effective team work in this school. When I talk about cohesion… I refer to the extent to which school members cohere, feel that they belong to this school and are happy to work together. It also means that school team members agree on the work at hand after the members have defined the school needs, and clearly link it with structural support in the sense that a team which knows its role in the organizational structure as a whole is more likely to feel a sense of belonging and purpose”. (Discipline master)

Two other SMT members revealed that the success of the principal derived from her collaborative and democratic manner:

“I believe… and really from the deep of my heart… this school’s success depends on our principal’s efficient way of running things. She helps me as the discipline master, leaves me freedom and responsibility to decide on what to do and sometimes we cooperate,
collaborate and then decide together as a team ... especially on matters concerning students' behaviour”. (Discipline master)

“The principal helps me to provide the necessary things needed in this school so that teaching and learning activities may be well achieved, it may for instance be buying enough food for student and on time, other school materials for teachers and students even for the support staff materials like stuff for the kitchen and dormitories, cleaning classrooms, materials for sports and other different games and entertainment etc”. (Bursar)

However one SMT member (the secretary) viewed the school principal’s success through her perspective on quality teacher recruitment:

“My view... even if I am not directly engaged in learning and teaching... is that if one regards how students succeed and the school reputation it is evident that students have a satisfying level and this derives from the recruitment of knowledgeable teachers who deliver quality teaching due to the efforts the school leader always makes despite the teaching materials which are difficult to get”. (Secretary)

3. The principal’s participative leadership style

Two SMT members claimed that they worked collaboratively with the principal:

“I think she leads through a participative way... because... you know... we take decisions together. For example she always follows and acknowledges ideas of colleagues or from parents when we meet and/ or during students’ daily activities. Further, she assigns duties to others, like students’ representatives in different classes, so as to help her accomplish her duties and also to create leadership among learners and has to show workmates that she recognizes their abilities.” (Discipline master)

“I am sure that the principal leads in a participative manner because... I know... she really tries to fulfill her daily duties through ideas sharing with all school middle leaders as co-workers and in a collaborative way.” (Secretary)

The researcher wanted to know the kind of participative leadership the principal advanced in the whole school community, and three SMT members (the head of studies, discipline master and the secretary) commented on this:

“Here in this school... I think work is based on mutual respect, humility and trust in each other to promote teamwork for the better of the school. I can say that here everyone has time to give his/her suggestions in several meetings held in this school... especially during the general assembly that occurs once a month with students, teachers and other staff members.” (Head of studies)
“The principal organizes weekly meetings with teachers and all the staff to examine probable issues about the school life including teaching and learning activities. However… students’ representatives do not attend those meetings but their wishes and wills are presented by their respective class teachers to be discussed. However, the school leader sometimes finds time to meet with all staff and students together to advise them about their learning and discipline in general.” (Discipline master)

“All members of the School Management Team always collaborate with others and cooperation is based on what each of the school community members does in the school but all the activities are linked to the school principal as the top leader of the school.” (Secretary)

However, one SMT member believed he only worked with the school principal and recognized he received other school members’ views from the principal as shown below:

“I mostly work with the school principal to know what the school needs and to plan for how the purchase has to be organized. Other staff, teachers, students’ needs have to be submitted to the school principal who in turn tells me the necessary ones to provide.” (Bursar)

4. Collaboration with the Student Council

Only two SMT members were in close collaboration with students on a daily basis:

“I am in permanent contact with the students’ representatives from different classes and it is a general rule that the class representatives come to me at any time of the day when they have an issue to discuss about their colleagues with me. This is an effective channel of getting information about the whole students’ community. However, when one student has a particular issue to debate he/she meets me without passing through the class representative.” (Head of studies)

“Each class has its representative and I always ask him/her to help me manage other students. The latter (all class representatives) have to make sure that information about students’ life (studies issues, social, health etc.) is known either by the class teacher, the discipline master or head of studies for possible quick solution when urgent or waiting for staff and teachers’ meeting to be solved. Another example is how I collaborate with the council of students to organize the in and inter-schools games and sports.” (Discipline master)

In contrast, the two other SMT members stated that they were working only with the school leaders and not engaged with the students’ council.
5. Communication about students’ learning progress.

Two SMT members believed their principal tried to inform the school community on students’ learning activities as follows:

“The principal encourages teachers to give feedback quickly and regularly after each test so that students may know how they are working and she makes a follow up in collaboration with the head of studies and class representatives to be sure that teachers do not delay to do so. Further, parents are allowed to visit their children on the first Sunday of each month, and I suppose their children show them their monthly results’ transcripts because the class teacher monitor does it before the parents come for the visit.” (Head of studies)

“The school tries to inform the wider school community of students’ learning progress and achievements during meetings with parents. However, local administrative authorities have never been invited despite maybe coming as parents who have their children at this school.” (Discipline master)

However, two SMT members claimed that the school has not established a clear system for leaders to communicate with parents and local authorities.

“The school has not up to now established a system that may help to know whether the parents have seen the transcripts or not. We only check the trimester results’ bulletins when students come back from the holidays because their parents have to acknowledge by signing the bulletins. For other stakeholders and district officers, they only know the students’ learning progress through the National Examination Council when it officially publishes the results after the national exams for those who finish either the first cycle (senior three) or the second (senior six).” (Head of studies)

“At the end of each trimester, there is a letter commonly known as “babyeyi” meaning “parents” and a result transcript/ or bulletin which are given to each student to communicate the students’ results and learning progress to his/her parents. The latter is signed and brought back to school to make sure the parents have seen it. But few students do not show it when they have failed and they sign it or find someone else to do it for fear of being reprimanded by their parents. We may know this situation when parents come for the following meeting and claim their children have not shown them the school bulletins pretending that they were not ready at the trimester end.” (Discipline master)

The other two SMT members stated that they are not directly involved in communicating students’ learning progress.
6. Inducting new school members

Induction is considered as a way of integrating new members into school life. However, only two SMT members believed they were playing a big role in collaboration with the principal while the two others believed they were not directly concerned. The first two SMT members expressed their perceptions as shown below:

“As I deal with studies... I work with the principal... especially inducting teachers mostly... by giving them the timetable... explaining how the work must be done... helping them to understand the contract... giving them the teaching materials to use... showing them their different classes at the beginning of the year and introducing them to students. The rest, like explaining the school vision, goals, aims and the government policy and other guidelines, are given by the principal.” (Head of studies)

“The first two SMT members expressed their perceptions as shown below:

“New students are mostly sent at this school according to the National Examination Council appointment list and the discipline master puts them into small groups around a care mother (meaning another student who is experienced and more older than them) who initiates them into school life. New teachers meet the principal with other teachers to get some briefings about the school activities for the first days. Further, the school principal usually organizes talks during the first week at the morning assembly for 25 minutes before classes start to give them instructions and to receive queries.” (Discipline master)

The two other SMT members are not directly involved in inducting newcomers, apart from participating in the school ceremony organized for that purpose.

7. Liaison with other schools.

Two SMT members stated that their school was working in close liaison with other local schools while the two other claimed that they were not informed about it.

“Sometimes with teachers and some students we visit other local schools to see what they may teach us and we exchange experience by visiting some teachers during their lessons, or laboratory practice. Further, we sometimes compete with their students through mock exams to prepare our students for the national examinations. Another issue... I can add is collaboration through different games and clubs where our students compete and relax... even create relationships with other and develop confidence and ... self-esteem through debates and other discussions held with students from other schools.” (Head of studies)
“Different meetings are held among principals concerning the district’s educational progress or weakness. I am sure that principals learn from other more performing schools while they organize visits to see how other schools are run.” (Discipline master)

In summary, the findings revealed how the four SMT members perceived the PKIH school principal’s collaboration and communication inside and outside the school setting. The data showed that the principal’s priority was to work collaboratively with the school members focusing on the school vision, accountability, and hard work and creating a good teaching and learning environment and to create a good teaching and learning environment. Her school’s success is strengthened by sharing ideas, effective teachers’ recruitment, inclusion of staff and students in decision-making and promoting trust and cohesion within the school setting.

In summary, the findings revealed how the four SMT members perceived the PKIH school principal’s collaboration and communication inside and outside the school setting. The data showed that the principal’s priority was to work collaboratively with the school members and to focus on what the school vision stipulates, trying to create a good teaching and learning situation. The success of the school was also due to sharing ideas, an attempt to recruit good teachers, and inclusion of staff and students in some decision-making at the school level, as this promotes trust and cohesion within the school setting.

**Interviews with other stakeholders**

This section presents data from the interviews with three stakeholders; a teachers’ representative, a parents’ representative and the students’ representative. Their responses are discussed through the same seven themes identified for the SMT members:

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.

Two of the three stakeholders claimed that the principal focused on creating a spirit of collaboration among others, developing quality education to attain the school goal, and caring for the staff and learners:

“The top priority for the school principal… as I know her… is to do her best to create a spirit of collaboration among the students and staff as a way of attaining the school goals and each individual’s aim through hard work in order to deliver good and quality
education and relevant knowledge to Rwandan youth in accordance to the school vision that is ‘Patriotism, Unity & Work’”. (Teacher rep)

“I think that the top priority for our school principal has been…first of all … to find quality teachers who can teach well and evaluate the knowledge of students. Further.... other priorities I have up to now noticed… are based on taking care of the students’ health and security, promoting entertainment (sports, different games, competitions with other schools, language clubs and other information clubs on issues like HIV and gender violence etc.), maintaining discipline… and collaborating with teachers and students to achieve success”. (Students’ rep)

However, the parents’ representative, who is not regularly in the school, viewed the principal’s priorities in a general way:

“I believe…that the principal is the top leader of the school and therefore her top priority is to coordinate all what happens in the school… whether the school succeeds or fails it is the principal who decides on how to improve the situation”. (Parents’ rep)

2. How the principal achieves success.

All three stakeholders believed that the reputation of the school depends upon their principal’s partnership and collaboration with others:

“Our school success is based on a strong teacher-school principal leadership collaboration and partnership in what we do here and we always look for any solution that can improve our school records and this is done on a weekly basis”. (Teacher)

“I may say that this school’s success depends on the school principal at 90% because she looks for quality teachers who are well trained and who teach well. The 10% of failure relates to lack of information which makes some students fail the national examination”. (Student)

“I think this school has got a good reputation … everybody would wish to bring his/her child here…. I think this depends on the principal’s leadership because she seems to be devoted to her duties of spiritually and intellectually educating our children”. (Parent)

3. The principal’s participative leadership style.

The three education stakeholders claimed that decisions were shared among the school community either during general meetings or through representation:
“During teachers’ meetings, for instance... I can tell you... no decision can be made without their consent and all the suggestions that I, as a representative teacher, submit to the school’s top leaders (principal, head of studies and head of discipline) are from teachers’ opinions. Further... all decisions that concern our learners are also discussed before they are put into practice”. (Teacher)

“The principal’s leadership is a participative one because she invites me as a students’ representative in different meetings which take place here at school and I discuss with other school authorities and teachers the issues that concern students’ life conditions such as learning, health, cleanliness of the school and other social problems students may have, including orphan students who have problems about school fees etc”. (Student)

“The principal calls different meetings related to the school activities ... even if I do not attend all of them, because I live far from the school and sometimes I find myself not available due to my other duties, ... but I think others like staff members and students’ representatives suggest ideas that are taken into consideration while making some decisions ... though I may say that they work as a team”. (Parent)

4. Collaboration with the students’ council.

Two stakeholders stated that students’ council members did not collaborate directly with the school leaders but through the students’ representative. Their views are shown below:

“I mainly work with students either individually or through their class representatives and does my best to report their issues to the hierarchy for quick solutions or wait until the weekly meeting when we meet with the principal and other school leaders to settle the students’ matters. Up to now I think I truthfully collaborate with school leaders and students”. (Student)

“The collaboration lies in a weekly meeting with the school principal to discuss probable issues, either good or bad, about the school life. It mostly concerns the class teacher monitors, students’ representative who meets the principal once a week to discuss the issues they collected from different classes. The meeting members discuss and analyse the problems and recommend the class monitors together with the students’ representative to meet students in their different classes in order to transmit the decisions to them”. (Teacher)

The parent representative was not able to comment on this issue.

5. Communication about students’ learning progress
The three stakeholders offered the following ideas:

“I think this school has only two ways of communicating the students’ learning progress. First… is the use of the school transcripts bulletins which students get at the end of each month and they are supposed to show them to parents when they come for a visit on the first Sunday of the month, second is information that is given during the trimester meeting and the bulletins that students bring at home when they go for holidays”. (Student)

“The school principal informs the parents about the students’ learning progress during the general parents’ assembly at the end of each trimester and, when students come for holiday, they bring home the school results’ transcripts to be checked and signed by each individual parent as a testimony that parents have noticed how their children progress”. (Parent)

“I think the only way the school informs and communicates the students’ learning progress and achievements is done through giving the school results’ bulletins to students who in turn are supposed to get them signed by their parents”. (Teacher)

6. Inducting new school members

Only the teacher representative was able to comment on this issue:

“I am really involved because I have to collaborate with the principal and the head of studies to be sure that the new teachers have got the necessary things to start their work. It may be their contracts, small loans for beginners to equip themselves, and other life issues for someone who is still new in a place”. (Teacher)

7. Liaison with other schools.

Two of the stakeholders commented on this issue, while the parent said he was unaware of it:

“Our school is in permanent collaboration with other schools because the principal encourages teachers and students to visit them. We have two departments here (Arts and Science departments) and teachers and students visit other schools according to those departments to exchange experience with them, laboratories, books and sometimes giving model lessons to be reviewed by colleagues”. (Teachers)

“We often collaborate with other schools through mock exams, also our teachers bring us to other schools for laboratory practice especially in science experiments or group discussion with other students in different subjects. We also compete in varied clubs, sports and games. Mostly each weekend there are one or two big groups of students who are out of the school for various activities”. (Student)
In summary, the section above comprises the findings from the interviews conducted with three education stakeholders on how they perceived collaboration and communication in PKIH School. Two stakeholders claimed the principal focused on creating a spirit of collaboration among others, caring about staff and learners in order to attain the school goal. The stakeholders also claimed that school success was based on teacher-principal partnership, and inclusive decision-making. In addition, they confirmed that PKIH School was collaborating and communicating the students’ learning progress to parents and was liaising with other local schools to share experience and knowledge. However, only one stakeholder claimed to be highly involved in new members’ induction because of his position as teachers’ representative.

**Shadowing-Observation findings**

This section consists of data gathered by the researcher, when he shadowed the principal in PKIH to discover how she communicates and collaborates with the school community members. The observation lasted from 06.30 until 4 p.m.

The researcher observed the principal’s way of communicating with other people while carrying out her various activities and tasks. Once in the school compound, the researcher asked the gatekeeper where the principal was. I heard the principal conversing with the support staff in the kitchen as students had their breakfast at 6.30 a.m.

The record of the shadowing is shown below:

- 6.30-7 a.m.: with the students and support staff in the refectory during the students’ breakfast.

During this period, the principal was circulating from the kitchen to the refectory, communicating with cooks who were serving and she was also visiting different tables, talking to students in a friendly manner.

- 7 a.m.-7.25: With the students and teachers during morning assembly.

All the students (grouped according to their different classes), teachers and other school members met at the designated place for the national anthem. The principal talked to them for
about 25 minutes, reminding them of their daily duty of learning as their school vision stipulates (Patriotism, Unity & Work). Through reminding the students and teachers about this vision (which was written on their school uniforms), I thought of a school community that was working together and for the same purpose. The principal’s short speech revealed encouragement for better working through collaboration and communication that may facilitate the quality of teaching and learning, and the creation of positive social interaction, which may also improve the health of the school life. This speech expressed her belief to reinforce a good school climate that may positively affect the collective perception, attitudes and behaviour of the entire school community. Further, the speech showed the principal’s supportive and constructive communication to motivate teachers and students for hard work.

7.35-9 a.m.: Patrolling the school compound.

Following the anthem, the principal, together with the head of studies and the discipline master, patrolled the school compound until 9h00 to make sure all staff and students were in class. The school compound was very calm at this time apart from some voices of teachers who could be heard explaining or interacting with students in their different classes. The principal was not only checking the classes but also visited gardeners, and the laundry, toilets and the dormitory, where she was observed communicating with cleaners.

From 9 a.m.-10 the principal was in her office as shown in the discussion below.

- 10 a.m.-10.30: In the staff room during the tea break

The principal went to the teachers’ room to share tea with teachers and other staff. The teachers’ conversation mood changed until the principal started talking to one of them, maybe to break the ice. She appeared to be a principal who wants to be open, egalitarian, and friendly. Her discussion was about sharing ideas and communicating information on their daily work. She also discussed the different difficulties they encounter, in order to get experience and feedback from their peers. Even though the principal was addressing teachers as a leader who would like to advance participation in a collegial atmosphere, still teachers manifested some reticence and reserve.
• 9 a.m. - 10 a.m. and 10.30- 1.30: The principal was in her office.

During these periods, the researcher preferred to stay in the secretary's office as she also worked as a receptionist to observe the frequency of the visits the principal was receiving from staff, students or other visitors. There was a queue of up to 12 people waiting to meet the principal. However, the head of studies, discipline master and the bursar did not wait in the queue. Each one entered the principal’s office twice without waiting. It seemed that the principal has time to sit in her office and meet different people who come to her with varied queries.

• 1.35-4 p.m.

During this time, the researcher noticed that two activities took place. During the lunch break, the researcher again saw the principal controlling the support staff service, and checking whether all the tables have got food, but she was still conversing with students easily. At 2 p.m., students started playing different kinds of sports while some others were either cleaning their clothes or busy playing cards, pool etc. The researcher saw the principal also conversing with students about the competitions and she seemed really involved in what was happening.

At 3.30, the sports ended and the students went for a shower. The principal, the head of studies and the discipline master were walking around to see if the students were preparing themselves for the study time that started at 4 p.m. It is that time when the researcher left PKIH School.

The next section consists of data presentation and findings on staff empowerment.

Staff empowerment

This section presents the findings, from documents, interviews and shadowing, about how staff are empowered.

Documentary analysis

The analyzed documents comprise two brochures:

- The general Inspectorate of Education in Rwanda (MINEDUC, 2009) that establishes quality standards in education for elementary and secondary schools.
This document states that the principal ensures that the teaching staff is empowered with appropriate and sufficient teaching and learning materials (e.g. syllabus and teacher’s guides, teachers and students’ books for varied subjects, a library, and computers) for capacity-building and self development. The document adds that the principal provides opportunities for staff to expand their responsibilities for shared leadership inside and outside the school.

The MINEDUC (2008) school management project document stipulates that the principal follows his staff empowerment through internal training for teachers, especially science teachers, by their co-teachers, for example ‘World Teach Volunteers Teachers’; staff initiation to computerize and file school documents, delegation of power through academic departments leadership by election, continuous training on school leadership and management by VVOB including the community awareness to support educators and schools clarification of government education policies with regard to Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and the importance of decentralization and decision-making empowerment at the school level.

*Interview with the principal*

This section presents the findings on how the PKIH school principal perceived staff empowerment to achieve the school goals and vision.

The first issue concerns how the principal perceived the staff members and other stakeholders’ engagement in instructional and pedagogical decisions at the level of the school:

“It is my duty to implement pedagogical and instructional decisions and making sure the staff works in accordance with those decisions”.

A related issue is how the principal intervenes in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision to empower teachers:

“The intervention I do is class supervisions and thereafter giving feedback and advising them about how to improve their teaching methods. Further, all together we sometimes sit and decide on who will give a model lesson depending on such subject for discussion and better teaching”.

The researcher asked how the principal encouraged teachers to meet students’ varying abilities:
“The head of studies and I organize monthly in-service short workshops for teachers to shape pedagogical and instructional practices and teaching methods in order to monitor regular weak students’ learning progress and developing a culture of learning for students to become more participative.

The researcher also asked about whether the teaching staff was empowered through participation in the elaboration of the national curriculum:

“There is no clear process of participation in curriculum elaboration. Sometimes the National Curriculum Development Center staff meets with different education stakeholders to investigate about the national curriculum elaboration but we have no specific role in it as such”.

The researcher also focused on how the principal believed the school staff developed their intellectual capacity:

“The Ministry of Education sometimes organizes staff training for teachers who share the same field during the holidays; while I, at the school level, encourage the staff to continue their studies at higher degree level”.

The researcher also asked the principal about how she encourages stakeholders to develop an innovative culture that improves school achievement:

“I try to encourage each teacher to give ideas and suggestions on something new that can help the school to improve supportive teaching and learning, and strengthening a team work spirit in order to avoid individuals’ weaknesses in different subjects”.

Finally, the researcher asked about how the principal facilitated a staff professional development culture:

“I try to create an environment supportive of teaching staff to overcome pedagogical and instructional obstacles and building a collaborative, trusting and caring school community that can generate visionary ideas to the organization.”

In summary, the principal declared that the staff members had few inputs in pedagogical and instructional decisions. However, the principal claimed that she sometimes discussed model lessons to improve teaching methods and she also gave feedback after supervisions. In addition, she declared that she encourages teachers to meet students’ varying abilities by organizing in-service workshops to debate and empower teachers to monitor weak students’ learning progress and make them become more participative. However, the principal stated that teachers had no
power in curriculum elaboration but she encouraged them to pursue their studies to improve their intellectual capacities.

Interviews with the SMT members

This section presents the findings on how four of PKIH’s SMT members (the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar) perceived staff empowerment. The findings are organised into seven sub-headings:

1. How SMT members perceive engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.
2. The principal’s intervention in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.
3. How SMT members perceive teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.
4. How SMT members perceive teacher in the elaboration of the national curriculum.
5. How SMT members perceive the empowerment of staff intellectual capacity.
6. How SMT members perceive the innovative culture to improve school achievements.
7. How SMT members perceive the facilitation of a staff professional development culture.

1. How SMT members perceive engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.

This section deals with four SMT members’ perceptions on their engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions. Three members viewed their engagement with slight differences:

“Pedagogical and instructional decisions at the school level mainly concern the principal. The SMT members sometimes help for the good conduct of the school. Only teachers do the best to implement the NCDC decisions about the pedagogical and instructional issues but other education partners have no big impact”. (Head of studies)

“Pedagogical and instructional decisions are taken at the level of the MINEDUC and National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). We only hold meetings at the school level just to find ways of implementing the NCDC instructions”. (Discipline master).

“I think that they are included in pedagogical and instructional decisions when they are invited in different meetings held at this school in order to advise on how education and instruction can improve and benefit the students they all together have to educate”. (Secretary)

The bursar stated that he was unaware of pedagogical and instructional decisions.
2. The principal’s intervention in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.

Two SMT members linked the principal’s interventions in classroom teaching, lesson preparation and supervision to their responsibilities and commented:

“*Her intervention takes place when we discuss together with teachers after class supervisions as a way of giving feedback. Also we debate, in general, when we meet in the teachers’ room or in monthly meetings for assessing instructional issues and the school teaching and learning activities progress*. (Head of studies)

“My view is that she intervenes while checking the students’ behaviours to be sure whether they follow lessons with attention, take notes regularly, and sometimes intervening to settle misconduct that may occur among students or between students and teachers for a good space conducive to a favourable teaching and learning climate and/or the school security”. (Discipline master)

Two SMT members (the secretary and the bursar) were unable to comment on this issue.

3. How SMT members perceive teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.

Two SMT members believed their principal worked with them to help teachers meet the students’ varying abilities as follows:

“I work together with the principal and the class teacher monitors to empower teachers through internal workshops on how they have to follow regular weak students learning abilities and enhancing their participation in the daily tasks.” (Head of studies)

“The principal and I regularly hold work sessions on teacher classroom leadership empowerment including the way they daily manage students’ discipline regarding their learning progress and handling individual difficult cases”. (Discipline master)

Two SMT members (the secretary and the bursar) were not able to comment on this issue.

4. How SMT members perceive teacher in the elaboration of the national curriculum.

All SMT members stated that they were not involved in the national curriculum elaboration. However, two commented that some teachers were selected to give views.

“We have no big role in the national curriculum elaboration. However, sometimes the NCDC calls for principals across the country (especially in good outstanding schools) to select one or two teachers from their schools who seem to understand a particular
subject and the latter meet once in two years to discuss some points of the curriculum that are predetermined”. (Head of studies)

“Curriculum is dealt with the NCDC but I have heard that sometimes the centre calls a few numbers of teachers for one or two days in order to give ideas on some school subjects but mostly the school teaches in accordance with a predetermined curriculum and guidelines at the national level”. (Discipline master)

5. How SMT members perceive the empowerment of staff intellectual capacity.

Two SMT members believed the school tries to help staff to develop intellectual capacity through peer reviewing, upgrading their studies and use of school facilities as follows:

“The principal only encourages staff to discuss regularly with their peers like those who teach the same subjects in different classes. Further, teachers are encouraged to use the small library we have as well as the computer lab to update their lessons”. (Head of studies)

“The school allows and facilitates teachers and other staff who are willing to upgrade their knowledge at the National University of Rwanda or any other private university they would like to join or by distance learning courses. At school we only have a small computer lab also connected to internet and teachers are encouraged to use it in order to update their courses and get more other information related to their teaching field”. (Discipline master)

One SMT member (Bursar) commented that she has no idea about the school staff intellectual capacity development but one stated that it is the duty of the principal to help them:

“I have no idea about how teachers develop their intellectual capacity or how the school helps them to do so. I think it is the duty of the school principal to know how to help them improve their intellectual capacity”. (Secretary)

6. How SMT members perceive the innovative culture to improve school achievements.

Three SMT members believed that staff empowerment to innovate was not visible; however, devotion and a supportive spirit led them to handle their duties:

“Concerning innovation it is difficult to say but the principal tries to encourage staff to work hard with colleagues and to initiate and develop a school culture with a child-centered approach to improve school, staff and students outcomes.” (Head of studies)
“Innovation is not easily visible but the school staff is always stimulated through different school meetings to base their daily achievements on promoting a culture of tolerance, mutual respect, humility towards others and a supportive spirit for a collective work growth and school success”. (Discipline master)

“Everyone here is encouraged not to be strictly rule-bounded but to develop a supportive and collaborative culture towards co-workers and students to make the school achieve its goals”. (Secretary)

7. How SMT members perceive the facilitation of a staff professional development culture.

Two SMT members thought the school was doing a little to facilitate staff development:

“The school has no budget. It totally depends on government subsidy. So it is the Ministry of Education which plans some training, like when teachers of science undergo short training for about a week during the holidays. The school also encourages teachers to pursue their academic studies at different universities in the country but on their own. It is the school initiative to help teachers push ahead for qualification as a way of retaining them”. (Head of studies)

“I think teachers attend some local professional training (in different subjects) organized by the Ministry of Education or the district education office during the holidays”. (Discipline master)

The bursar was not able to comment on issues of staff development but the secretary declared:

“Staff development is not my concern… I think it is an issue that must be handled by the school principal together with other leaders like the head of studies, the district education officer and the Ministry of education to improve quality education here and in other schools”. (Secretary)

In summary, the findings show how the four SMT members believed PKIH’s school staff are empowered. The data demonstrate that staff members are not directly engaged in pedagogical and instructional decisions and the latter mainly concern the principal. Also, the principal discussed with teachers about supervision feedback, lesson preparations and student learning and worked with the class monitors to help teachers meet the students’ varying abilities. In addition, two SMT members recognised the principal encouraged peer reviewing among teachers, the use of the school facilities, and that teachers were facilitated to pursue studies for further degrees. However, the SMT members claimed that there was little participation in curriculum elaboration,
little staff intellectual capacity building and staff professional development empowerment and encouragement to innovation were hardly noticed.

*Interviews with other stakeholders*

This section presents the findings from three stakeholders (teachers’ representative, a parents’ representative and the students’ representative) on whether and how PKIH’s school staff was empowered. The discussion is structured into the same seven themes as in the previous section:

1. How the three stakeholders perceive staff engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.

Two of the three stakeholders commented that pedagogical and instructional decisions were fixed by the NCDC with little inputs from the school community members as shown below:

“*Pedagogical and instructional decisions are implemented at the district level by school leaders but they are mostly fixed by the NCDC and MINEDUC, and school community members have no big decisions about them or the way they are elaborated*”. (Teacher)

“*Pedagogical and instructional guidelines are all the time decided at the level of the National Curriculum Development Centre. I think the school members do not take part in pedagogical or instructional decisions they only implement with probably little internal contribution concerning the way of teaching at the level of the school*”. (Students)

The parents’ representative was not able to comment on this theme.

2. The principal’s intervention in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.

Only the teachers’ representative was able to comment on this issue:

“We discuss together with the principal after supervisions to see how teaching and learning methods can be improved. Also teachers help each others during the lesson preparation through teams, use almost the same sources provided by the school or any other that an individual teacher may possess. Most of the time preparations take place in the teachers’ room where teachers can discuss or share knowledge”. (Teacher)

3. How SMT members perceive teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.

Two stakeholders commented on how the principal talks to teaching staff and students’ representatives about how to help low ability students:
“The principal discusses with teachers and the students’ representatives about the level of each student. Further, the class teacher reports that students with low abilities are grouped together with high ones in small study teams to help each other and sometimes volunteer teachers come to join some teams during the weekend for extra explanation”. (Teacher)

“I know that the principal calls for school meetings to talk about low ability students to try to see how they can be grouped with others who can help them during assignments or revisions and exam preparations”. (Student)

The parent adds that the principal requires parents to suggest how to improve the low ability students:

“This sometimes happen during the general school meeting like when we advise teachers to take care of students who do not progress at the same level as their classmates in giving them some extra lessons to improve their abilities especially those who may be preparing the national examination”. (Parent)

4. How three stakeholders perceive teacher in the elaboration of the national curriculum.

All the three stakeholders stated that the school staff members were not involved in curriculum elaboration:

“I do not know because I have never seen any of this school staff members taking part in the national curriculum elaboration”. (Teacher)

“As I know the national curriculum is elaborated by the National Curriculum Development Centre”. (Student)

“I do not know if this school community participate in the elaboration of the national curriculum or not but what I may say is that there is a National Curriculum Development Centre which is in charge of curriculum at the level of the country. I cannot confirm the kind of relationships the centre has with the school”. (Parent)

5. How the three stakeholders perceive the empowerment of staff intellectual capacity.

Two of the stakeholders (parent and student) perceived they were not engaged in how the school staff intellectual capacity was empowered. However, the teacher stated that the principal encouraged capable teachers to pursue their studies:
“The principal encourages teachers to pursue their university studies and to upgrade their degrees or get new ones in different fields. For those who are able to pay the university fees the school leadership gives them a light timetable to allow them to study”. (Teacher)

6. How the stakeholders perceive the innovative culture to improve school achievements.

The three stakeholders commented that the principal and other school community members base innovation on mutual support and acceptance of each one’s idea and contribution:

“Innovation in this school is based on flexibility and support that underpin the mission statement of our school i.e. education for God and for the country. People feel equal, ready to understand and support others. They approach the students, advise them on their future and encourage them to work hard”. (Teacher)

“Most of the time the school authorities try to advocate for students with socio-economic problems like poor students or orphans asking teachers to be more flexible towards them and help them achieve their daily work”. (Student)

“This happens through ideas sharing during school general meetings that occur once a trimester when staff and parents discuss issues about students’ learning”. (Parent)

7. How the stakeholders perceive the facilitation of a staff professional development culture.

Only the teachers’ representative was able to comment on this issue:

“I may say that the principal facilitates teachers who feel more knowledgeable in a specific field than others to collaborate with their peers in order to improve knowledge and attain the school goals”. (Teacher)

In summary, the section above includes the findings derived from interviews with three stakeholders related to how they believed PKIH’s school staff was empowered. Two stakeholders believed they had no big impact on pedagogical and instructional decisions and only one ascertained that the principal debated with teachers on lessons preparation and supervisions to empower the teaching staff in teaching methods improvement. Further, two stakeholders claimed that they worked with the principal, teachers and students’ representatives to improve weak students abilities. In contrast, all the stakeholders declared not to be involved in curriculum elaboration and two also perceived they were not engaged in staff intellectual capacity empowerment. However, three perceived mutual support, idea sharing and advising
students helped to make some innovations and only one believed peer reviewing was used to develop staff professional development empowerment.

*Shadowing-Observation findings*

This section consists of data gathered by the researcher, when he shadowed the principal in PKIH to discover how the principal empowers the school staff. Conducted simultaneously with the principal’s shadowing about the first theme, the data collected on staff empowerment observation reveal staff empowerment activities that occurred alongside collaboration and communication.

The researcher observed how the principal inspired and influenced the school staff to carry out their various activities and tasks. Talking during the morning assembly, the principal reminded school staff and students to stick to their commitment to the school vision and goals. She was directing the human resources to the achievement of the desired purpose of success. Further, the principal was seen as a visible and accessible leader who was fostering an atmosphere that encouraged the teaching staff to take their responsibilities to meet the needs of students. The principal moved from one department to another to provide a caring environment instead of leaving everything to the discretion of the teachers. This contrasts with laissez-faire leadership, which would not be the best leadership style to use in the school because it may lead to performance problems, which are likely to affect the school’s effectiveness.

The researcher also shadowed the principal when she said that it is the school leader who has the role of awakening the school community members and advising them on pedagogical and instructional matters in the school. She was advising the staff that, through participation, they have to build trust, respect and commitment because it allows the school community to have a say in decisions that affect the institution’s goals and how the staff achieve their work. She added that students also have to be involved in the school’s leadership and in the implementation of decisions because these impact on their learning. For example, she said that all middle leaders have to motivate the staff to participate in the school activities because the teaching and learning progress depends on the exhibited contribution of each school community member. But through this process of working with all members, direction and school vision principles, mission and goals articulation might be followed and achieved.
The next section consists of data presentation and findings on staff leadership and relationships.

**Leadership and relationships**

This section presents the analysis of the findings drawn from documents, interviews and shadowing, on the nature of leadership and relationships in PKIH’s school:

**Documentary analysis**

The analyzed documents included the MINEDUC school management document entitled ‘Administration of secondary schools in Rwanda’ (2008) that stipulates:

“The principal is required to lead and relate with the school community members to plan for the future of the school and to be visible for the good conduct of the teaching and learning process. In addition, the principal takes the lead to influence and organize team work, to report on the institutional achievements and to reinforce the school relationships within and outside its environment”.

The leadership and relationships aspects involve two levels.

- On the administrative level, the principal is mandated to achieve the following:
  
  “The principal coordinates decision-taking in the school, delegation of powers and responsibilities, solves conflicts and sanctions irregularities and thereafter reports to relevant authorities. Further, he/she insures the respect of laws, rules and regulations in accordance with the school legislation and ministerial instructions. Also he/she supervises the school action plan preparation, insures the school order, discipline and respect of the school timetable. The principal prepares the school community and other stakeholders’ meetings, establishes personnel identification forms and updates students’ and staff files, payment of salaries, social security fund and signing official documents. Finally he/she evaluates staff and provides reports to higher authorities on any major incident that has occurred at school”. (Organic law nr 29/2003 of 30/08/2003)

- On the social level, the school principal’s leadership and relationships include the following tasks:

  “The principal links the school with all education stakeholders and participates in meetings organized for educational purposes. He/she inspires with his/her collaborators the promotion of socio-cultural and economic activities for the school and the neighborhood and insures the protection and security of people and school property.
Further he/she promotes extracurricular activities and encourages students’ participation in sports and other games and communicates the necessary information to teachers, parents, students and other stakeholders. Finally, he/she protects with other school members the school environment, hygiene and cleanliness”.

(www.mineduc.gov.rw)

Interview with the principal

This section focuses on the principal’s perceptions about how she leads and relates with the school community and other education stakeholders.

The researcher began by asking for the principal’s view on her main responsibilities:

“My main responsibility is for the overall good conduct of the school I lead, always ensuring students have good discipline and valuing the people I work with through honest relationships”.

The principal then addressed the link with the school’s vision:

“The school vision is ‘Heroism, Unity and Work’ but I did not take part in it because I was not yet here. However, I try to pursue that vision and my task is to reinforce it, to lead students to become heroes in the different daily tasks they have to achieve, to create good social relationships inside and outside the school, and to help staff to show a sense of cooperation in the various duties they are expected to achieve”.

The principal added that the SMT members and other stakeholders:

“Had no role in the school vision creation because, we all found it in the school”.

She claimed that staff and students own the school vision:

“All the school staff and students feel ownership of the school policy and decisions because they always take part in meetings held in the school and in whatever decisions are taken. Further, they are all welcome to suggest any idea that may bring improvement and at any time of their choice”.

The principal also mentioned the inclusion of the SMT members and other stakeholders in the preparation of the school’s strategic plan:
“We meet with all SMT members and other stakeholders at the beginning of the year and in different other meetings during the three terms, and write the strategies to follow, and then evaluate progressively with scrutiny”.

The principal also discussed how information was collected for decision-making in the school:

“Different meeting are organized during the year with all the school structures, however, the top authority of the school takes the last decision”.

Concerning the creation of a good climate conducive to effective teaching and learning, the principal asserted:

“I always relate and link students with teachers, visit and help teachers in their different activities, advise students on how they have to study and try to find out the most needed materials for both teachers and students”.

To emphasize the school’s good interpersonal relationships for an orderly teaching and learning environment, the principal revealed that:

“I encourage teachers and students to help each other in their everyday duties and working like members of the same family. Teachers discuss their lessons as well as students according to their classes and departments and each one is willing to contribute for the reputation of the school.”

The principal also referred to the perceived school culture of social cohesion and good social relationships:

“I encourage the whole school community to socially relate and we have installed a kind of association called ‘caritas’ i.e. ‘charity’ in which all the members of the school community participate financially and mostly the elders help the youngest like in handling life problems”.

Finally, the researcher wanted to know how the principal manages teachers’, students’, and the support staff’s, daily functions. The principal stated that:

“I am always at school and work with the discipline master, the head of studies and the class monitors to make sure all activities are well done and according to the school timetable. Concerning the students, I am always available to hear each of them and at any moment during the day. For the support staff I check what they have achieved regularly in the mornings and afternoons”.
In summary, the principal declared that her leadership and relationships focused on the good conduct, discipline and respect of the school members’ values. Further, she tries to pursue the school vision principles, and creates good social relationships inside and outside the school. Also, the principal claimed that she was trying to share ideas to help staff and students feel ownership, but the last word still belonged to her. In addition, the principal asserted that she led and linked students with teachers, provided the necessary materials, stimulated the stakeholders for team work, and created a good climate and interpersonal relationships conducive to an effective teaching and learning environment.

*Interviews with the SMT members*

This section presents the findings from the four SMT members (the heads of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar), on their principal’s leadership and relationships with school community members and other school stakeholders.

The data are presented within nine themes:

1. The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.
2. How the SMT members view vision formulation and implementation.
3. How the SMT members assess the school community’s sense of ownership.
4. How the SMT members think that the school strategic plan is developed.
5. How the SMT members perceive information collection for the decision-making process.
6. How the SMT members perceive whether the school climate is conducive to teaching and learning.
7. How the SMT members view the school members’ interpersonal relationships.
8. How the SMT members assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.
9. The principal’s perceived control of day-to-day staff and students’ functions
1. The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.

The researcher wanted to know how the four SMT members perceived the principal’s main responsibilities. Most of them focused on teaching and learning:

“Her responsibilities are leading teaching and learning, supervising the timetable, making sure books and other teaching materials for teachers and students are available, checking the computer lab and science laboratory, advising students and/or teachers with teaching and learning problems, making sure the National curriculum is followed and achieved”. (Head of studies)

“The principal’s responsibilities, together with other school members, are guiding and counseling students about their day-to-day conduct, learning activities, time management, thinking about the future of the school and establishing rules about discipline etc”. (Discipline master)

“Her responsibility is to lead and relate to her followers in order to achieve the good functioning of the school”. (Secretary)

“Her main responsibility lies in investigating and knowing the needed materials for the school to run, for example food for the students, other stuff for a clean space conducive to good teaching and learning, for sports and entertainment etc”. (Bursar)

2. How the SMT members view vision formulation and implementation.

All four SMT members declared that they did not have a role in creating the school vision but they work together under the principal’s leadership to implement it:

“The school vision is ‘Heroism, Unity & Work. However, I have never had any participation in its formulation because I found it there. It is found on students’ uniforms and the school logo at the entrance to help each one to remember the target of the school.” (Head of studies)

“I did not take part in its formulation. What we together do in the daily work is to try hard as a team to work towards it in order to achieve the school’s overall objectives.” (Discipline master)

“I had no participation in its formulation but each works for its implementation by trying to accomplish his/her responsibilities as required by the school rules”. (Secretary)

“I have not had any role in its formulation because I found it there but I try to follow it in my daily activities through collaboration with my colleagues”. (Bursar)
3. How the SMT members assess the school community’s sense of ownership.

Three SMT members commented on this issue but the bursar did not feel able to do so:

“Staff feels somehow involved in the school policies and decisions but not fully because they are not included in the school budget or the curriculum, the teaching calendar, annual load etc.” (Head of studies)

“Everyone seems to be only partially involved because the main decisions are from higher authorities. Further, parents are invisible in school decision-making. So their contribution is sometimes lacking.” (Discipline master)

“Each SMT member feels ownership regarding his/her responsibilities and what he/she does for the good school life run.” (Secretary)

4. How the SMT members think that the school strategic plan is developed.

Only two SMT members were able to comment on the school’s strategic plan:

“The school strategies are from the Ministry of Education mission statement and are stated within the national education policy”. (Head of studies)

“We just limit ourselves to the school schedule activities plan and thereafter follow what the Ministry of Education sends through the district education office that states what to cover by the end of each trimester according to the national education strategic plan”. (Discipline master)

5. How the SMT members perceive information collection for decision-making process.

All SMT members commented on this issue and two of them stressed that the last word belonged to the principal:

“Before any decision, each member investigates following his/her responsibilities but has to inform the principal for the last decision to be taken”. (Head of studies)

“Information is always collected from different school structures; however the last word belongs to the school head”. (Discipline master)

“I always share ideas on what to do with school leader to exchange information for a common and better understanding on how my duties can be well done”. (Secretary)

“I only work with the principal and mostly follow her directives” (Bursar)
6. How the SMT members perceive whether the school climate is conducive to teaching and learning.

Two SMT members perceived the principal inspired them to be visible, to reduce bureaucratic activities but rather focusing on being near students and teachers:

“The principal encourages me to be visible to teachers and students, to relate to them always, and not staying in offices but to circulate and be near them in order to hear their wishes and feelings and creating a friendly mood and trust in each other”. (Head of studies)

“A conducive climate to teaching and learning is created through counseling and advising the students about their daily work, keeping an eye on students who may disturb others when they are in class or revising their lessons, finding alternatives to keep the students busy when a certain teacher may be absent.” (Discipline master)

The other two SMT members are not directly involved in teaching and learning.

7. How the SMT members view the school members’ interpersonal relationships.

One of the SMT members referred to interpersonal relationships through teamwork while three others perceived it through social and mutual support in their daily life activities:

“Teachers meet in departments and discuss through teamwork to build trust. Also the school has established clubs in which volunteers meet students during the weekend to discuss different issues like HIV, gender-based violence, feminism. Therefore, they create and consolidate good interpersonal relationships among the school community”. (Head of studies)

“We help one another by providing mutual and social support to improve each ones’ welfare like solidarity gestures among the school community during misfortune or happy days. Together with the school principal, we all do our best to help each member to feel free and relaxed”. (Discipline)

“The school staff sometimes meets for different celebrations inside or outside the school for good interpersonal relationships as people who work for the common purpose.” (Secretary)

“Interpersonal relationships are maintained here because the whole school staff works like a family in mutual respect with financial support when necessary.” (Bursar)
8. How the SMT members assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.

Three SMT members declared that social cohesion and teamwork were encouraged in the school as well as focusing on teaching and learning:

“The school staff has a spirit of working in teams in order to strengthen good relationships, honesty, equality and harmony. We do not concentrate on studies only but we also approach students for moral conversations to show them the advantages of studying because they are still young and can be distracted by mundane things then drop out”. (Head of studies)

“I think that the more relationships are harmonious, the more the school is successful. We all together try to remove all social problems among the school wide community so as to meet our goals”. (Discipline)

“I have noticed a high level of social cohesion in this school and on each organizational level... school members do whatever they can to support each other and create good social cohesion inside and outside the school”. (Secretary)

The bursar mentioned that financial aspects of solidarity:

“The school has installed a mutual support fund called ‘Ikimina’ which facilitates the school community members to help each other socially and financially. For example during the Labour Day we get together to enjoy it and even invite our students to promote a supportive and sociable climate in our school”. (Bursar)

9. The principal’s perceived control of day-to-day staff and students’ functions.

Two SMT members believed that the principal was visible at school, to manage and help staff and students:

“Our principal is more engaged in her work. She is at school early morning to make sure everyone is there and on time, checking each has started his/her task, and has a permanent eye on what is really being done but without putting any kind of pressure on anybody. Also she is always visible to help”. (Head of studies)

“Each student has got a communication notebook. Each school staff may use it to report about the student in case he/she does not comply with the school discipline”. (Discipline master)
The other two SMT members thought that the day-to-day staff and students’ control was the duty of the principal, head of studies and the discipline master.

In summary the four SMT members perceived that the principal focused on teaching and learning, provision of facilities and relation with her followers. Also, the four SMT members claimed that they worked together to implement the school vision but had not participated in its formulation. Two of the SMT members believed that they were not fully involved in all the school activities but rather two others felt ownership depending on each one’s duties. In addition, all four believed not to be engaged in school strategic planning. Other three SMT members claimed that each school structure was contacted for information collection but the last word belonged to the school leader while two stated that they were inspired by the principal to be visible, advising students instead of focusing on bureaucratic duties only. Two testified interpersonal relationships through teamwork was a means of linking school members while three others emphasized social and mutual support. Related to the culture of social goals and harmonious relationships combination, three SMT perceived social cohesion to be also important than sticking on teaching and learning only. Finally, two SMT believed the principal was always visible for school staff and students’ daily control but also accessible for any needed help.

Interviews with other stakeholders

The data are presented using the same nine themes as for the SMT members:

1. The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.

All three stakeholders stated that the principal mainly leads teaching and learning activities, while also relating to internal and external stakeholders:

“Her responsibility lies in coordinating teaching and learning activities in collaboration with the head of studies and also ensuring smooth relationships among teachers, students and other school stakeholders”. (Teachers’ representative)

“The principal leads and follows all the school’s activities and especially the conditions in which the students live. She also represents the school inside and outside and represents the school to other official leaders”. (Students’ representative)

“I think her main responsibilities are to give advice on learning and how the students’ behaviours could be better handled”. (Parents’ representative)
2. How other stakeholders view vision formulation and implementation.

All three stakeholders declared they had no role in developing the vision but they also agreed that they were working to secure its implementation:

“The school vision exists but I had no role in its formulation. What we do is to work in accordance with that vision”. (Teachers’ representative)

“I have never taken part in its elaboration but I adhere to the school vision and help my colleagues to study heroically, to be hard-workers in their studies for the implementation of the school vision, goal and their future”. (Students’ representative)

“I know that the school has a vision ‘Heroism, Unity & Work’ but I have never had any role in its formulation… what I think is that the principal and other school leaders and teachers work in accordance with it because our children succeed well”. (Parents’ representative)

3. How other stakeholders assess the school community’s sense of ownership.

Two of these stakeholders felt that they were not involved at all in the school’s decision-making processes, while one felt a sense of ownership:

“Not all staff and stakeholders are always involved in the school policies and decision-making. For example, parents and support staff seem to be excluded from some meetings of the school and from decision-making, like the issue about the school fees where parents are informed without their consent”. (Teachers’ representative)

“Staff, student’s representatives and parents are invited to meetings but some policies and decisions seem to be taken in advance and it is like just informing them”. (Students’ representative)

“I feel ownership because I sometime . . . take part in meetings and other activities that occur in the school”. (Parents’ representative)

4. How other stakeholders think that the school strategic plan is developed.

All three stakeholders declared that they have not participated in developing the school’s strategic plan:

“All the members are not consulted as such. Mainly, the school strategic plan elaboration concerns the MINEDUC and top school leaders only”. (Teachers’ representative)
“I have no idea about how the school strategic plan is developed”. (Students’ representative)

“Mostly I only attend general meetings called by the school principal but I have never been invited to discuss the strategic plan of the school”. (Parents’ representative)

5. How the SMT members perceive information collection for decision-making process.

Three stakeholders declared that information was mostly gathered through meetings but the principal also does this informally, according to one stakeholder:

“Ideas are sometimes informally collected through conversations or when people meet in the teachers’ room”. (Teachers’ representative)

“Information is collected in meetings but some issues are discussed only by the principal, head of studies and the head of discipline. For example, no students take part in meetings about the school’s resources”. (Students’ representative)

“I and other parents give advice during meetings but decisions mostly come from school leaders rather than parents”. (Parents’ representative)

6. How the SMT members perceive whether the school climate is conducive to teaching and learning.

Two of these stakeholders agreed that they were involved with their peers to influence teaching and learning in the school:

“I work with my peers to share experience related to teaching and learning, solving internal misunderstandings when they occur to avoid teachers’ disputes that may have a negative impact on the school whole community”. (Teachers’ representative)

“I work in close contact with all the class representatives, discuss regularly to know how their classmates learn; which kind of problems do they meet in their learning, what other life problems they may have that can impact on their studies”. (Students’ representative)

The parents’ representative has a more limited role:

“I am really not concerned with teaching and learning but can advise in case there is a problem either among teachers or if there is a misunderstanding between teachers and their leader”. (Parents’ representative)
7. How the stakeholders view the school members’ interpersonal relationships.

The two internal stakeholders stressed the value of interpersonal relationships in the school:

“The school’s top leaders, teachers and students work with mutual respect and share the same feelings on what good or bad event may occur. Each member is free to make a contribution through the school’s structure”. (Teachers’ representative)

“We are from different socio-economic backgrounds and some students may be needier than others. Therefore it is a necessity to help them so that they may be in a favourable studying community”. (Student representative)

The parents’ representative stated that his only role was to advise students about their conduct:

“I have no direct or formal impact on the school’s function but as a parent I usually advise students to have a good conduct, to be friendly to others and relate to teachers and school authorities by following the school discipline and rules”. (Parents’ representative)

8. How the stakeholders assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.

The parents’ representative was not able to comment on this issue but the other two stakeholders stated that trust and ideas-sharing with peers were how social cohesion and social relationships helped to achieve the common goals:

“I do my best to create a good atmosphere among the teachers because nothing can be achieved successfully when co-workers live in permanent dispute or misunderstanding. Daily harmonious relationships, mutual respect, trust in each other’s ability and ideas are the basic foundation of achieving the common goals”. (Teachers’ representative)

“Students have the habit of meeting and discussing what they wish would be better and helpful for the school goals’ achievement, sharing ideas, and then I report their wishes to the school authorities to solicit their help and advice”. (Students’ representative)

9. The principal’s perceived control of the day-to-day staff and students’ functions.

The parents’ representative was not able to comment on this issue but the other two stakeholders declared that the principal dealt with punctuality and other activities related to teaching and learning:
“The principal checks punctuality, teaching progress, alignment with the curriculum and other activities related to teaching and learning”. (Teachers’ representative)

“Class representatives possess notebooks where they record the teachers’ punctuality and presence as well as the taught lessons. The class representatives bring the reports to the school principal each week for control and checking”. (Students’ representative)

In summary the findings show that three stakeholders believed that the principal mainly coordinates teaching and learning and relates to other education partners inside and outside the school. Three stakeholders declared they had no role in the school vision elaboration but do their best to accomplish it and two stakeholders felt that they were not involved in all decisions, however only one felt to be included in school activities. In addition, three stakeholders viewed that the school strategies were planned by the MINEC but claimed that information was sometimes collected through meetings and other times informally through conversations with staff or middle leaders. Also, only two stakeholders agreed they were sharing experience with their peers to positively impact the good function of the school. Two stakeholders contended that mutual respect and their socio-economic linked the school members, and also two stakeholders confirmed that trust, ideas-sharing among the school members helped them to combine school goals and harmonious relationships. Finally, two stakeholders declared that the principal focused on punctuality and other activities related to teaching and learning to control students and staff.

Shadowing-observation findings

This section includes data collected by the researcher while shadowing the principal in PKIH to know how she leads and relates with the school community members. The observation was conducted simultaneously with the two preceding themes.

The observed findings concern the principal’s various activities and duties that related to her influential leadership and relationships among the school community during the shadowing day. The overview of the shadowing is shown below:

The researcher noticed that the principal was supervising all the early morning activities and relating to the support staff and students in a friendly and trusting manner. In her talk with students and teachers, the principal focused on the school goals, encouraged open and honest relationships among the school community members, concern for each other and commitment to
their main responsibilities of learning and teaching. Also, the researcher noticed a sense of leadership control for the school activities’ direction. The principal intended to be visible from early in the morning to show a sense of belonging, support and involvement in the daily process of teaching and learning by making sure all staff and students were working in a favourable climate conducive to their duties. Her conversation indicated enthusiasm towards teamwork and collegiality and an influence to motivate staff to reach a high level of achievement for the reputation of the school. Staff were invited to stay open, honest and equal for the health of the school and vision attainment. Further, it seemed that visitors were satisfied due to their friendly mood while relating with the secretary after each had met the principal. This showed a good social and harmonious relationship the school had with internal and external school partners. In addition, the researcher noticed that the principal attended different kinds of activities in the afternoon such as students’ games, discipline and maintenance of a good and calm climate for students to revise lessons, and preparing for the next day.

**Overview**

This chapter consists of qualitative results from the first case-study school. The data followed an inductive process under a thematic procedure structured into three themes: collaboration and communication, staff empowerment and leadership and relationships. Each theme consists of the findings from the documentary analysis, the interviews with eight participants and the shadowing of the principal.

Collaboration and communication comprised the results from the school and national education policy documents, the interviews results with eight participants and the shadowing of the principal. The documents showed the organizational school structure chart, the principal job description and the laws and rules that stipulate collaboration and communication between and among school stakeholders. The findings from the interviews with the eight participants revealed that seven believed that the principal focused on a spirit of collaboration, quality teaching and staff care. Also, all of the eight stated that school success derived from cohesion, quality teacher recruitment and the principal’s partnership with others and six agreed that the principal shared decisions with other school structures. Further, seven participants declared to be in permanent contact with the students’ council and six believed the school leadership communicated the
students’ learning progress. In addition, four participated in new comers induction while six agreed to liaise with other schools.

Staff empowerment also was dealt with following the five sub-divisions similar to the first theme. Findings from documentary analysis stipulate a provision of appropriate materials, internal and external trainings, computer initiation, school decentralization, community awareness to support educators and schools. The results from the interviews with the eight participants showed that six of them perceived that they only implemented pedagogical and instructional decisions form the NCDC and all of the eight declared they were not involved in the curriculum elaboration. However, four stated they discussed in workshops to shape teaching practices to monitor low level students and also four agreed that staff intellectual capacity was developed through peer reviewing and upgrading studies. Further, seven perceived they were empowered to be suggestive and develop a child-centered school culture, not to be rule-bound and only two believed there was a little focus on staff professional development.

The analysed documents related to leadership and relationships show the nature of what the principal is required to follow within the school community and with other education stakeholders. The findings present that the principal has to focus on planning for the future, visibility, influence and power to organize team work. The findings from the eight participants showed that all of them perceived that the principal coordinates and focuses on teaching and learning and relating to others but agreed they had no role in the vision creation and only implement it. Two participants stated they feel ownership while three said they were partly involved in all activities. Also, all the participants agreed they did not participate in the strategic planning but commented they were consulted for information collection at their school. Further, five perceived they impacted the school climate; eight viewed interpersonal relationships as very relevant and believed in the link between social cohesion and social relationship through trust. Finally, five stressed that visibility and punctuality helped the principal to control staff and students functions.

Shadowing of the principal findings revealed that the principal’s activities were linked to the school common goals achievement and encouraging staff and students’ openness and honest
relationships for a favorable working climate conducive to their duties accomplishment. Further, collegiality and influence were two main ways the principal used to lead and relate to the whole school community.

In summary, the qualitative evidence justifies some of the PKI’ school characteristics as the top ranked in the sense that the results derived from the documentary analysis, interviews with the eight participants and shadowing of the principal revealed that the principal focused on teaching and learning through a spirit of collaboration while staff are sometimes empowered to make instructional decisions. Qualitative findings have strengthened affiliative/ collegial relationships and self-determination/ efficacy dimensions in which the PKI school principal scored high than other principals.
Chapter Six: Case Study Findings for School PRSG

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the second case-study school selected as the lowest ranked school from the quantitative findings of 14 principals who were interviewed in the first phase of this research. The data presentation involved findings from semi-structured interviews with the PRSG school management team (SMT), (including the principal, the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar), one representative teacher, one representative parent and one student. The data are also supplemented by the documentary analysis and the shadowing of the principal, to provide methodological triangulation, and consist of an exploration and explanation of the eight participants’ perceptions of their school’s leadership and management enactment and its impact on the school culture.

The researcher followed an inductive process to organize the data, which were structured within three main themes, as in chapter five: collaboration and communication, staff empowerment, leadership and relationships. The findings are presented in five sub-sections within each theme as follows: documentary analysis, interview with the principal, interviews with the SMT, interviews with other stakeholders (teachers’ representative, students’ representative and parents’ representative), and the findings from the shadowing. The chapter concludes with an overview of the findings.

For the sake of anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, the names of the respondents are coded by their positions: the principal, the head of studies, the discipline master, the bursar, the secretary, teachers’ representative, students’ representative and parents’ representative, and the school is identified only by initials.

Thematic Data Analysis and Findings

The thematic data analysis followed two procedures. The first was a generation of recurring feelings and perceptions from eight participants, notes derived from the national education
policy, the PRSG school documents and from the shadowing. Second, the researcher grouped the data, and coded each into categories in order to present the results with regard to the three following themes:

**Collaboration and communication**

This section deals with a presentation and analysis of the findings derived from what the national education policy and the school’s (PRSG) documents stipulate about the nature of collaboration and communication in schools, the findings from the interviews with the PRSG school principal, the SMT members, and the three education stakeholders, and the findings from shadowing the principal.

**Documentary analysis**

PRSG School is affected by the same regulations, from MINEDUC and the NCDC, as the first case study school. The analyzed school documents are similar and comprised:

- The principal’s roles and responsibilities, including his job description.
- Some internal and external administrative documents related to the school’s daily functions, including supervision and feedback discussion.

The national education policy documents comprised:

- Legal texts on education organizations, such as the Presidential and the Prime Minister’s orders regulating the General Inspection of Education.

The researcher also examined the MINEDUC school management document (2008) that includes the laws, rules and instructions that regulate collaboration and communication among staff and students. Also it provides an organizational chart that prescribes a hierarchical and top-down structure of power relationship among the school community. This presents a model for handling collaboration and communication, especially inside the school and with outside stakeholders as shown in Figure 5.1, prescribed by the training manual for secondary school head teachers (MINEDUC school management, July 2008). (See chapter five for these findings).
Interview with the principal

The interview was conducted face to face with the principal of PRSG School and the researcher focused on the principal’s perceptions about collaboration and communication in his school.

The researcher began by asking about the principal’s top priority in his school:

“*My top priority is to focus on teaching and learning and promoting instructional practice renewal and curricular offerings in a collegial environment that serves all my staff and students*.”

Further, the principal stated that he achieves success through participation of the whole school community:

“I organize pedagogic meetings with teachers every month and weekly with the students to discuss the learning activities and assessing the short term school activities plan”.

To explain his participative leadership style, the principal claimed:

“*During meetings each staff member and/or stakeholder has three to five minutes to present his/her ideas and to comment on others’ suggestions*”.

The principal also stated that he encourages communication and collaboration with the students’ council:

“*Once a month I invite all the class representatives, teacher class monitors, the head of studies and discipline master to hear and share issues about our students’ individual cases for better collaboration and communication*”.

The principal also talked about how he informed the wider school community and parents on the students’ learning progress:

“*Students are informed about their learning progress periodically after a month and half while the school community and parents know about it each term during public results’ proclamation*”.

The principal also claimed that he liaises with neighbouring schools:
I have a permanent contact with other principals and either visit their schools or share daily issues through cell phones”.

Finally, the principal explained how he inducts new students and staff:

“Related to new comers’ induction, I meet students and staff separately. I always meet the old and new staff together in the meeting hall, explain the background of the school and its vision then talk to them about how they have to consider students and have devotion to the school goals. For the students, I organize a one day retreat outside the school in the nature and talk about learning in general to stimulate them to achieve success”.

In summary, the interview findings comprise the principal’s self-reported perceptions on how he enacts a participative leadership style through focusing on instructional and pedagogical consultation, collaborative practice based on a periodical renewal of the teaching and learning process, and a short term school activities planning assessment. He also claimed to be an inclusive leader who, on a weekly and/or monthly schedule, communicates and listens to the students’ council, teacher class monitors and the school community’s suggestions, and informs school members on students’ learning progress through school bulletins. Further, he claimed to integrate new staff and students through induction and that he regularly contacted and shared with principals of other local schools.

Interviews with SMT members

This section presents the findings on how four of the SMT members (the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar) believed the principal collaborated with the hierarchy and other education stakeholders.

The findings are structured into seven themes:

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.
2. How the principal achieves success.
3. The principal’s participative leadership.
4. Collaboration with the student council.
5. Communication of the students’ learning progress.
6. Inducting new school members.

7. Liaison with other schools.

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.

This section presents the SMT members’ perceptions about their school principal’s priorities. The four participants stated that the principal seems to prioritize consultation:

“The principal apparently seems to prioritize to be the driving force, through the philosophy of valuing other school community members’ talents and having a consultative spirit in the school’s daily activities”. (Head of studies)

“The principal’s priority is trying to give examples as a role model and to inspire the whole school community in order to achieve the goals in accordance with the school’s vision”. (Discipline master)

“I think the principal focuses on the welfare of the students and providing teachers, students and the support staff with the necessary tools to run the school’s activities”. (Bursar)

“The principal gives the guidelines about each and every member’s roles and has to follow up to be sure tasks have been accomplished”. (Secretary)

2. How the principal achieves success.

Three SMT members perceive that the principal’s only success derives from his focus on the predetermined curriculum and respect for rules from MINEDUC and NCDC:

“The principal ensures the curriculum is completed in compliance with the rules and regulations of the NCDC”. (Head of studies)

“The principal delegates discipline tasks to me to make sure that students are time-conscious and focus on learning activities”. (Discipline master)

“The principal sticks to teaching and learning activities and regularly checks whether the teachers’ work matches the stipulated program of the education office”. (Secretary)

However one SMT member perceived the school principal’s success to be through caring about students:
“Our principal is time-bound and controls finance management. Whenever I need him for issues about students’ welfare, I always know I will see him”. (Bursar)

3. The principal’s participative leadership style

Four SMT members stated that the principal’s participation in their activities is limited but only one (secretary) added she was daily in contact with him:

“Most of the time he delegates teaching and learning activities to me because he has to attend several official meetings and has a limited time to be in touch with all.” (Head of studies)

“The school leader is sometimes absent for mostly administrative matters outside the school but, when he is present, I think he takes the views of other staff into account.” (Discipline master)

“I think the principal is task-oriented because he has to make sure I have completed all my tasks before I leave.” (Secretary)

“I mainly consult him for important issues like buying and providing the basic necessities for the school to run.” (Bursar)

4. Collaboration with the Student Council

Only two SMT members stated that their principal mostly collaborated with the student Council through the SMT reports, because of his other administrative duties:

“I am recommended (by the principal) to meet students’ representatives each weekend to get a report from them on their respective classes conduct, curriculum progress and teachers’ punctuality and then report to the principal for further directives.” (Head of studies)

“We, together with the head of studies, class monitors and students’ council, discuss each Saturday the students’ discipline including absenteeism, commitment to learning and teachers’ weekly achievements as the principal is too busy to organize such meetings.” (Discipline master)

In contrast, the two other SMT members stated that they only worked with the school principal and know nothing about the student council.
5. Communication of the students’ learning progress.

Two SMT members believed their principal tried to inform the school community on students’ learning activities as follows:

“Students only wait till the end of the trimester to get their results’ bulletins which they bring home for parents’ information.” (Head of studies)

“Apart from the result’s transcripts, I, under the principal’s recommendation, sometimes inform parents during the school year on some students’ learning difficulties through their communication notebooks.” (Discipline master)

The other two SMT members stated that they are not involved with the students’ learning progress.

6. Inducting new school members

Two SMT members stated that they just helped new teachers and students informally:

“Only the principal mostly deals with this issue. However, the principal sends to me new teachers to provide them with the necessary documents, briefing them on the school conduct and teaching requirements, then introducing them to their different classes.” (Head of studies)

“What I just do for the first day is to connect new students to old ones and class monitors for explanation of learning facilities and basic school standards and rules.” (Discipline master)

The two other SMT members commented they are not involved in inducting newcomers.

7. Liaison with other schools.

Two SMT members stated that, usually, only the school principal liaises with other local principals, while the two other stated that they are not involved with this activity:

“Only our principal meets others through the ‘Carrefour Umurezi’ which is an assembly of principals from three close districts to discuss teaching and learning experience in their schools.” (Head of studies)

“I only contact other schools’ members informally and outside this school but have never visited them.” (Discipline master)
In summary, the findings revealed that most of the SMT members thought their principal was an administrator, rather than a leader, and that he concentrates on routine administrative tasks inside and outside the school. He also appears, when visible, to favour inclusion, role-modeling, supporting staff and students through teaching and learning activities, providing teaching and learning materials and students’ care. Also, three of them thought that he is a rule-bound leader who adheres to the regulations from higher authorities. All four believed that their principal manifests only a limited participative leadership style, delegating some powers because of his absence from school. However, two SMT members stated that the principal allowed them little or no role in the communication of students’ learning progress, in collaboration with the student council, and even in the induction of new staff and students. Finally, all the SMT confirmed that only the principal was involved in collaboration with the principals of other local schools.

Interviews with other stakeholders

The findings from the interviews with other three stakeholders (a teachers’ representative, a parents’ representative and the students’ representative) are presented through the same seven themes identified for the SMT members:

1. The principal’s perceived priorities.

Two stakeholders claimed that the principal’s emphasis is on teaching and learning control, and task fulfillment:

“I think that the principal’s priority focuses on teaching and learning control through task and person orientation and being sure each has fulfilled his/her duties”. (Teacher representative)

“The principal’s main priority is teaching, learning and discipline and to check whether the school community members are all aware of those important facts”. (Students’ representative)

However, the parents’ representative viewed the principal as an overall coordinator:

“The principal is the top responsible person in the school and is in charge of controlling and answering all issues related to the school’s function”. (Parents’ representative)
2. How the principal achieves success.

All three stakeholders thought that the principal’s apparent success derived from his collaborative hierarchical leadership that focuses on tasks completion and problem-solving:

“I think that the principal’s work system and so called success is based on the focus on task completion and a top down collaboration with the school community members and his subordinates”. (Teacher representative)

“I believe that the principal’s success is due to his concern for task distribution among the school members and to provide needed materials and creating a kind of friendly environment among staff and students”. (Student representative)

“The principal’s success is based on the principal’s devotion to his school and as the driving force towards solving different problems that may hinder teaching and learning”. (Parent representative)

3. The principal’s participative leadership style

The three stakeholders perceived that the principal sometimes takes into account other school members’ ideas but still the last word belonged to him:

“The principal sometimes listens to teachers’ concerns during different meetings held at school and delegates some power to them, ensures teachers are equal to their tasks, also supports and assists them when needed”. (Teacher representative)

“Our school leader tries to involve students’ representatives in the school’s functions but mostly on decisions that only concern discipline and other activities related to students’ school life”. (Student representative)

“I think his participative leadership is shown through inviting other people to school meetings and taking into account their views. However, the final decision is taken by him”. (Parent representative)

4. Collaboration with the students’ council

Two stakeholders stated that the principal delegates power to other school authorities to collaborate with the students’ council:

“Most of the time, the students’ council deals with other school authorities, such as the head of studies who, in turn, solves their issues or waits for the principal’s suggestions”. (Teacher representative)
“The school leader seems not to be always available to the students but I think he indirectly collaborates with their council through other middle leaders like the head of studies and discipline master”. (Student representative)

The parent representative was not able to comment on this issue.

5. Communication about students’ learning progress

The three stakeholders offered the following ideas:

“School bulletins are the main means used to communicate students’ learning progress but the class monitor is also allowed to invite any parent whose child manifested learning difficulties for communicative support”. (Teacher representative)

“We only know our learning progress through school transcripts given each trimester end”. (Student representative)

“Parents are sometimes invited to attend public results’ proclamation at the end of the trimester even if many do not come. In addition, some also visit the head of studies to ask about their children’s learning progress”. (Parent representative)

6. Inducting new school members

Only one stakeholder commented on this issue:

“Teachers just help their new colleagues through daily conversations but I have never attended any official induction ceremony here”. (Teacher representative)

7. Liaison with other schools.

Two of the stakeholders commented on this issue, while the parent said he was unaware of it:

“Only the school principal is in liaison with others through their Carrefour Umurezi association but others just collaborate depending on private friendships they have with other teachers”. (Teacher representative)

“Our school liaises with nearby schools through the district games competitions and/ or some other rare activities planned by the district/ or national level”. (Student representative)

In summary, the findings suggest that stakeholders perceived their principal as a hierarchical leader who is oriented to task-completion, control, and top down management of school members via middle leaders who usually report to him for the final decision. Three stakeholders also viewed that their principal only insists on the NCDC curriculum teaching and completion,
with a focus on implementing the MINEDUC directives. However, all the three stakeholders also believed that, as well as limited participation in the school curriculum, they also have little input to the school’s major decisions, which are taken only by the principal. The stakeholders are also not included in activities such as the newcomers’ induction, and collaboration with other local schools, which are handled only by the principal.

Shadowing-Observation findings

This section presents data from the researcher’s shadowing of the principal, focusing on his communication and collaboration with school members and stakeholders. The observation was planned to last all day (from 6.30 until 4 p.m.) but was only conducted between 7.00 and 10.30 and from 2.30 to 4 p.m., due to the principal’s absence from the school compound. The principal appears to be often unavailable at school due to other administrative duties outside the school and his absence possibly contributes to the school’s low ranking, to be further explored in chapter seven.

The principal’s shadowing record is shown below:

7 a.m. - 7.30: Control of the school compound

During this period, the researcher noticed that students and teachers were rushing to get into their classes. The principal, together with the head of studies and discipline master, mostly they spent their time visiting the four main classroom blocks. The principal’s presence motivated staff and learners, who seemed to be afraid of him, and they hurried to join their respective classes and duties. I saw him greeting some teachers he met on his way and also collaborating with the two heads, who seemed to explain how activities were being run. Communication appeared to be flowing only in one direction as if they were reporting to the principal.

7.30-10.30: The principal dealing with office tasks.

The principal returned to his office, leaving the two heads on patrol duty. Many people, among them students, staff who were not on duty at that time, and visitors to the school, were waiting in the secretariat, completing appointment forms. The researcher felt that the principal was the only person who was perceived to be able to solve all issues. Some people seemed to be anxious before and after meeting him, especially students and some staff members, which suggests a lack
of relaxation in collaboration and communication with school members and stakeholders. After meeting every one, the principal ordered the secretary not to receive other visitors because he had to attend a meeting at the sector, the local authority administration.

2.30-4 p.m.: Principal in office

The principal arrived late at 3 p.m. Few people were waiting and the researcher heard the head of studies and discipline asking whether the secretary knew when the boss was coming. They were a bit impatient as they had to report on the daily school activities that is a custom in that school. Finally, he came and started meeting people individually but still some seemed not to be confident about what the feedback would be, as some were whispering to their neighbours. At 4 p.m., he asked the secretary to postpone the remaining meetings because he had another advisory meeting to attend.

The next section consists of data presentation on staff empowerment.

Staff empowerment

This section presents the results on whether and how PRSG staff are empowered.

Documentary analysis

PRSG School is also led by the MINEDUC rules, and through district officers and the General Inspectorate of Education, as in chapter five. For this reason, the researcher based his analysis on only two documents, relevant to this theme and specific to this school:

- The general Inspectorate of Education in Rwanda document (MINEDUC, 2009) that stipulates standards of quality education.

This document prescribes how school leaders should provide appropriate and sufficient teaching and learning materials provision, and the management of those materials.

- The MINEDUC school management project (MINEDUC, 2008) document that sets out:
  - Internal training regulations, especially for science teachers, computer initiation for staff and students, and school leadership and management for middle school leaders.
- Education policies clarification for Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and awakening the community to participate in school activities.
- The need for decentralization and decision-making empowerment among staff and students.

Interview with the principal

This section presents the findings from the PRSG school principal’s perceived staff empowerment to achieve the school’s goals and vision.

The researcher first focused on the principal’s perception about the inclusion of staff members and other stakeholders’ in instructional and pedagogical decisions:

“I believe that staff members and school stakeholders take part in instructional and pedagogical issues but we together follow and discuss the NCDC rules and provisions”.

He also commented on his role in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision to empower the teaching staff:

“I really have little time to conduct class supervisions because of other administrative duties and therefore mostly delegate power to the head of studies to do so. Sometimes I discuss with him the feedback he has given to teachers to see which kind of advice I may provide through him.

The researcher asked the principal about how he encourages teachers to meet students’ varying abilities:

“I have requested the head of studies, the discipline master and class monitor to meet early at the start of the year to discuss about the low achieving students and to plan some extra hours for them during the weekend and to appoint some two or four bright students to help the weak ones, mostly during the study hours and practical tasks”.

The researcher also wanted to know whether the school community plays a role in the elaboration of the national curriculum. The principal stated:

“No one has up to now participated in the curriculum elaboration. I am, with other principals, sometimes called by the National Curriculum Development Centre staff to get directives but I think our input is little because all seems to be predetermined”.
In terms of empowering the school staff’s intellectual capacity, the principal declared:

“I only beg my staff to do their best and pursue further studies to improve their capacities. Also we discuss together with teachers once a trimester to evaluate how work has been achieved and, through that, we may help some who have manifested professional difficulties”.

Regarding stakeholders’ participation to develop an innovative culture, he said:

“I think we are all mostly bound to the autocratic rules and regulations from the Ministry of Education and the NCDC. The only thing I may add is each stakeholder’s individual effort to compete for the reputation of the school across the district”.

Finally, the researcher also asked how the principal facilitated a staff professional development culture:

“Staff professional development is not an easy task to achieve with no financial means. I think only the MINEDUC can do it but it rarely organises some short training during the major holidays for teachers and in some specific subjects related to science only”.

In summary, the principal reported limited staff involvement in instructional and pedagogical decisions, few or no inputs on the elaboration of the national curriculum, and little or no intellectual capacity empowerment and staff professional development culture, due to a lack of funding. He also agreed there was no innovative culture because they are all bound to the MINEDUC and NCDC autocratic rules. However, he claimed to delegate power because of many other administrative duties. These findings reveal an apparently passive approach to the participation and empowerment of school staff and an adherence to rules and regulations dictated by higher authorities (MINEDUC and NCDC).

*Interviews with the SMT members*

These interviews reveal the perceptions of four PRSG’s SMT members (the head of studies, the discipline master, the secretary and the bursar) on staff empowerment. The findings are organised into seven sub-sections:

1. How SMT members perceive engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.
2. The principal’s perceived intervention in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.
3. How SMT members perceive teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.

4. How SMT members perceive their involvement in the national curriculum elaboration.

5. How SMT members perceive staff intellectual capacity empowerment.

6. How SMT members assess the innovative culture to improve school achievements.

7. How SMT members perceive facilitation of staff professional development culture.

1. How SMT members perceive engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.

This section deals with four SMT members’ perceptions of their engagement with pedagogical and instructional decisions. Two of the participants (the secretary and bursar) stated that they are unaware of pedagogical and instructional decisions while the other two commented that their engagement is minimal:

“Pedagogical and instructional decisions are taken at the ministerial and NCDC level. We are only concerned with their implementation”. (Head of studies)

“Our engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions is minimal. Only school meetings are held to discuss about teaching practice but we mainly implement the NCDC instructions”. (Discipline master).

2. The principal’s perceived intervention in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.

Two SMT members declared that the principal’s intervention was minimal due to his administrative work inside and outside the school and he delegates power to his middle leaders:

“The principal is busy doing administrative duties and has given me the power of supervising teachers and making reports on their task achievement”. (Head of studies)

“The principal’s intervention is mainly based on different reports the head of studies and I present in our weekly meetings with teachers and students’ representatives. However, he sometimes controls teachers’ activities when he has spent his day in the school”. (Discipline master)

The other two SMT members (the secretary and the bursar) were not able to comment on these matters.
3. How SMT members perceived teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.

Two SMT members stated that the principal gives them directives in order to help teachers meet the students’ varying abilities:

“I always discuss with the class teacher monitors, together with the discipline master, to determine the needed materials, efforts and extra work to help weak students to catch up and then report to the principal”. (Head of studies)

“The principal has recommended me to make a daily follow up of teachers’ conduct towards students with low abilities through class monitors and the head of studies to determine the strategies of encouraging them to improve their teaching methods in relation to such students”. (Discipline master)

The secretary and bursar are not directly concerned with teaching and learning.

4. How SMT members perceived their involvement in national curriculum elaboration.

All four SMT members are not involved in national curriculum elaboration. Two explained why:

“Curriculum is done at the NCDC level and the principal collects the programme from the district education office or the MINEDUC”. (Head of studies)

“Curriculum is always determined by the NCDC and the school just follows its guidelines to implement it”. (Discipline master)

5. How SMT members perceive staff intellectual capacity empowerment.

Two SMT members believed the principal tries to encourage and help staff to develop intellectual capacity through peer reviewing, upgrading their studies, and use of school facilities:

“The principal always encourages teachers to use the library, and the small computer facilities the school has but still financial means are limited for staff intellectual capacity development”. (Head of studies)

“Our principal always encourages staff to study to upgrade intellectual capacity and to make a sacrifice despite their limited means, since the school cannot help them to do so”. (Discipline master)
The bursar was not able to comment on the empowerment of school staff intellectual capacity development organization, but the secretary stated that this is the principal’s responsibility:

“I think it is the school principal’s concern to know how to help the teaching staff to improve their intellectual capacity”. (Secretary)

6. How SMT members assess the innovative culture to improve school achievements.

Two SMT members (Secretary and bursar) could not comment on these issues but the others stated that they had noticed no tangible empowerment of staff to innovate:

“I have spent more than five years at this school and I think we always do the same activities that concern teaching and implementing the NCDC programme. I cannot talk about innovation as such.” (Head of studies)

“This school has no visible innovation apart from strengthening solidarity in our daily work to fulfill the school mission about students’ success through good conduct”. (Discipline master)

7. How SMT members perceive facilitation of a staff professional development culture.

Two SMT members could not comment on this issue but the others thought the school was doing little to facilitate staff development:

“The little staff development facility is from workshops and training organized by the Ministry of Education during holidays and these are not done for all teachers. (Head of studies)

“Only little local professional training (in different subjects) is organized by the Ministry of Education or the district education office during the holiday”. (Discipline master)

In summary, the findings show that the four SMT members perceived little or no instructional leadership in PRSG School. Their principal appears not to be an instructional leader in the sense that he is only minimally involved in supervision and other classroom activities. The SMT also ascertained little or no engagement in pedagogical and instructional concerns, which are dictated by the hierarchy. Further, their school does not demonstrate much innovation, and has little
concern for staff intellectual capacity development or professional development. The national curriculum is centralized at the MINEDUC and the NCDC level and the principal mainly seems to instruct middle leaders to deal with students’ varying abilities instead of being directly involved.

Interviews with other stakeholders

This section presents the perceptions of three stakeholders (teachers’ representative, a parents’ representative and the students’ representative) on whether and how PRSG’s staff were empowered. The discussion is structured into the same seven themes as in the previous section:

1. Staff engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions.

Two stakeholders stated that pedagogical and instructional decisions were fixed by the NCDC:

“Pedagogical and instructional decisions are always taken by NCDC through the MINEDUC instructions. The school members have no role”. (Teacher representative)

“I think all pedagogical or instructional decisions come from high authorities and are only implemented at the school level”. (Students’ representative)

However, the parent seems to think that leaders and teachers are involved in these decisions:

“I do not know much about pedagogical and instructional issues but I think that it is among the school leaders and teachers’ responsibilities to deal with pedagogical and instructional decisions”. (Parent representative)

2. The principal’s involvement in lesson preparation, classroom teaching and supervision.

Two stakeholders were not able to comment on this issue, but the teacher reports that there were discussions with the head of studies after supervisions:

“We only discuss with the head of studies after supervisions in order to improve our ways of teaching. But he also intervenes during the lesson preparation in the teachers’ room where he advises some teachers with teaching difficulties”. (Teacher representative)

3. How the stakeholders perceive teachers’ encouragement to meet students’ varying abilities.
Two stakeholders stated that the principal holds meetings with the teaching staff to see whether low achieving students can improve their learning:

“Sometimes the principal organises short workshops for half a day during the weekend to discuss with the teaching staff and the class monitors report on low achieving students’ learning. Therefore, some measures are taken to improve their learning like grouping them or providing extra hours”. (Teacher representative)

“I have heard some meetings are held by the principal to help such students with learning difficulties”. (Student representative)

The parent added that:

“During the general parents’ assembly, the principal talks about such issues and tells us that the staff does its best to take care of weak students”. (Parent representative)

4. How stakeholders perceive teacher involvement in curriculum elaboration.

All three stakeholders stated that they have never been involved in curriculum elaboration:

“I know that no one has up to the present been consulted about the national curriculum elaboration”. (Teacher representative)

“The national curriculum elaboration stays a concern of the NCDC for all schools across the country”. (Student representative)

“I think that parents are unaware of how the national curriculum is elaborated. But I know there is a national centre that does it”. (Parent representative)

5. How stakeholders perceive the empowerment of staff intellectual capacity.

Two stakeholders were unable to comment on this issue but the teacher stated that the principal helped teachers who decide to take further courses:

“The principal tries to give small loans to teachers who want to study for the benefit of the school but it is his own initiative and not the government’s issue”. (Teacher representative)

6. How the stakeholders perceive the innovative culture to improve school achievements.

The three stakeholders commented that the principal encourages community members to think about all possible ideas for the progress and performance of the school:
“From the principal’s encouragement we all together fight for innovating our ways of teaching through daily discussions and conversations with our peers”. (Teacher representative)

“I have noticed that the principal always cares about staff and students’ daily life and motivates them to stay optimistic for the future of the school. He encourages them to think high and be innovative rather than crossing hands and waiting for the nature’s mercy”. (Student representative)

“I think the principal encourages parents do their best to bring constructive ideas depending on their intellectual levels during the school general meetings for innovation and school activities improvement”. (Parent representative)

7. How the stakeholders believe facilitation of a staff professional development culture.

Two stakeholders were not able to comment on this issue but the teacher stated that the principal stimulated them to exchange experience:

“I think the only way is the principal’s support to collaborate among teachers and especially gaining experience from the old teachers who know more than the new. Otherwise, the school is incapable of financing any course related to staff development”. (Teacher representative)

In summary, the findings show that most stakeholders perceived a highly centralised national curriculum and a lack of inclusion in pedagogical and instructional decision-making but rather simply implementing the MINEDUC and NCDC rules and directives. Two of the stakeholders believed that the principal is less visible and regard his contribution to classroom instruction as minimal. The stakeholders also perceived little initiative from their principal to encourage the staff to develop their capacity through personal studies, or for staff professional development, professional networks and knowledge creation.

Shadowing-Observation findings

This section comprises data from shadowing the principal, with a focus on PRSG school staff empowerment. As noted above, the shadowing was conducted from 7 a.m. until 10.30, and from 2.30 to 4 p.m., when the principal was available in the school.
The researcher noticed one-way communication when the head of studies and discipline master were reporting to the principal during the morning school patrol. The latter showed he was at the top of the pyramid, authoritarian and controlling every aspect as they all walked from class to class. The researcher judged the principal to be time-bound and to focus on structures rather than allowing freedom to other leaders to be in charge of their own duties. This control may hinder the teaching staff to take initiatives because they work in a report-based system. Therefore, the system does not encourage autonomy and innovation and seems not to facilitate empowerment or professional trust.

While dealing with office duties, the researcher found that the principal favoured bureaucratic leadership where he remains in his office, expecting the school community members to report to him and/or to meet him for problem-solving. This leadership does not empower the school staff to become autonomous or motivate them to use their professional discretion for decision-making. The routine of queuing outside his office shows that they are expecting the principal to tell them how their duties should be accomplished.

The next section presents the findings on staff leadership and relationships.

**Leadership and relationships**

This section presents the analysis of the findings, drawn from documents, interviews and shadowing, on the nature of leadership and relationships in PRSG School.

**Documentary analysis**

The researcher based this analysis on the document about ‘Administration of secondary schools in Rwanda’ (2008), as this was the only document available. (See chapter five)

**Interview with the principal**

This section focuses on the principal’s perception about how he leads and relates to the school community and other education stakeholders.

The researcher began by asking the principal’s view about his main responsibilities:
“My main responsibility is based on teaching and learning activities as an overall coordinator and linking the different school structures, and relating the school with the outside stakeholders”.

The researcher also asked about how the principal viewed the school’s vision:

“The school has a vision. However, it existed before I came and my duty is its implementation through awakening the school members to work towards it through each ones’ task accomplishment and avoiding self-centeredness”.

The principal also addressed staff and students’ sense of ownership:

“It is not easy to know what each hides in his/her heart but I think that they feel ownership in the sense that they participate in all school activities and when they try to suggest things we can do for its improvement”.

In relation to the school’s strategic plan, the principal stated:

“During our first meeting, when the school year begins, we discuss what to do in the first term but we mostly base our debate on the strategies given by the MINEDUC for all schools in the country”.

He also commented on the school’s decision-making process:

“For decisions that concern the school’s daily function, I mostly consult the two heads (for studies and for discipline) but other main decisions are from the Ministry of Education and these are only for implementation”.

The principal also sets out his approach to the school’s climate and interpersonal relationships:

“I always try to relate to students, teachers and stakeholders honestly and friendly, listen to their queries and ideas through their representatives, or individually when it is urgent, and quickly find solutions for the good advancement of the school name”.

“I try to promote solidarity among the whole school members, encourage them to avoid individualism in their work and motivate them to value each member’s contribution despite his/her position in the school.”

The principal also referred to the perceived school culture of social cohesion and social relationships:
“We have founded a school community social association called ‘Umubano’, i.e. ‘Living together’, that serves to help us solve life’s difficulties as we still have low salaries. We also discuss other issues that may improve each member’s life and our job as well”.

The principal also addressed how he controlled day-to-day staff and student functions:

“Despite many administrative duties, I always check whether each school member has achieved his/her daily task but mostly I delegate to the head of studies, discipline master and the class monitors, to have a permanent eye on all what happens in the school”.

In summary, the principal’s self-reported comments show a lack of instructional and transformational leadership aspects, and a reluctance to develop a vision independent of the one they found at their school. The principal delegates instructional activities and is mainly administrative-task oriented with minimal visibility in teaching and learning activities but a focus on examining daily reports from middle leaders. He also claims to have few opportunities for decision-making consultation and adheres mainly to MINEDUC’s directives. He also states that the school community appears to feel a sense of ownership but with little conviction due to their minimal participation in the school strategic planning and other main activities. Further, there is little evidence of transformational leadership, as there are few inputs to school vision and strategic plan development concerning the school climate, the culture of social cohesion, and social relationships, as these are driven mainly by MINEDUC guidelines.

Interviews with the SMT members

This section presents the perceptions of the four SMT members about their principal’s leadership and relationships with school members and other stakeholders.

The presentation is presented through nine themes:

1. The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.

2. How the SMT members view vision formulation and implementation.

3. How the SMT members assess the school community’s sense of ownership.

4. How the SMT members think that the school strategic plan is developed.
5. How the SMT members perceive information collection for the decision-making process.

6. How the SMT members perceive whether the school climate is conducive to teaching and learning.

7. How the SMT members view the school members’ interpersonal relationships.

8. How the SMT members assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.

9. The principal’s perceived control of day-to-day staff and students’ functions.

1. The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.

The four SMT members declared that their principal’s main responsibilities were mostly linked to administrative activities but he also sometimes tried to control teaching and learning activities through middle leaders:

“The principal is the administrator of the school and is also among the administrative cell opinion leaders. So, he is involved in both roles and is not able to be at school all the time. Therefore, I have got directives from him and know what to do during his absence”. (Head of studies)

“The main task of the principal as the top leader is to represent the school inside and outside. Our principal is busy achieving administrative duties at school and with other political authorities and seems not to be visible full-time at school”. (Discipline master)

“I think his main responsibility is to guide the school and assign duties to his/her followers for the better running of the school administration and the school members’ daily relationships in their different tasks”. (Secretary)

“His main responsibility is to settle issues about the school administration such as making sure the necessary materials and resources are provided for the teaching staff and students and being on good terms with suppliers etc”. (Bursar)
2. How the SMT members view vision formulation and implementation.

The four SMT members stated that they did not take part in the school vision formulation but they know that there is one and the principal has always expected them to collaborate for its execution:

“I know that the vision is there but have never had any participation in its formulation. We sometimes talk about it with our principal who stimulates everybody to work for its attainment.” (Head of studies)

“I don’t know when it has been formulated because I was not there yet but the school leader has always invited staff and students to follow it for the school’s success and reputation.” (Discipline master)

“I have spent a few years at this school and know it has a vision and what I do is to follow the school rules among which is doing what the vision demands to fulfill”. (Secretary)

“I had no role in it but I try to follow it as one of my requirements as a staff member”. (Bursar)

3. How the SMT members assess the school community’s sense of ownership.

All four SMT members thought that they were involved in the school’s activities only because the principal has assigned duties to them and each knows what they are expected to achieve.

“I feel involved in the school activities because I have a daily prescribed schedule that I follow and other guidelines given by the school principal each morning after the general assembly.” (Head of studies)

“Everybody here has a determined timetable that leads him/her and my involvement lies in working in accordance to it apart from some unexpected other tasks that I may be assigned from the school leader.” (Discipline master)

“I feel involved in the school activities because each morning the principal gives me tasks to achieve everyday and my participation is based on finishing the required duties.” (Secretary)

“I am in charge of purchasing school materials and I think I am involved in the school’s activities because I work with the principal before he sends me to do any shopping.” (Bursar)
4. How the SMT members think the school’s strategic plan is developed.

Only two SMT members were able to comment on this issue and they believe that the school follows strategies that are established from the Ministry of Education office.

“The school’s strategic plan is established at the high level from the Ministry of Education and I have never heard about doing it here”. (Head of studies)

“Probably the school’s strategic plan is developed elsewhere or at the district and MINEDUC levels because we receive instructions from our school leader and have no role in planning strategies here”. (Discipline master)

5. How the SMT members perceive information collection for the decision-making process.

All four SMT members thought that the principal consulted them only for casual information and may even decide alone as the top leader of the school:

“The principal sometimes comes to me when he needs some ideas on different issues or during school meetings but the last decision still comes from him”. (Head of studies)

“The principal invites me in his office whenever he wants to talk to me or when he needs information related to students’ behaviour but major decisions are always from him”. (Discipline master)

“I always receive orders from my boss and have to follow his instructions. Concerning information collection and decision-making I only know that his power entitles him to decide upon any school activities”. (Secretary)

“I directly report to the principal and mostly follow his directives with no formal objection” (Bursar)

6. How the SMT members perceive whether the school’s climate is conducive to teaching and learning.

Only two SMT members commented on this issue and they declared that the principal has given tasks to everybody for a better teaching and learning school climate:

“The principal has given me the power of leading and relating to teachers, supervising their daily work load and checking whether teaching and learning has been accomplished before I report to him”. (Head of studies)
“I am in charge of discipline and have to deal with students’ conduct and relationships with the teaching staff and maintaining or creating favourable conditions for good teaching and learning delivery”. (Discipline master)

7. How the SMT members view school members’ interpersonal relationships.

The four SMT members believe that they are interconnected by their socio-economic situation and low salaries, and also by their daily duties as members of the same school:

“Most of the teachers and other support staff meet on a weekly basis to make small financial contributions that may help them against unpredictable good or bad events and therefore become linked not only for social life issues but also regarding their daily work achievement”. (Head of studies)

“I may say that we in this school assist one another and entertain good interpersonal relationships for the benefit of our own existence and the school’s reputation as the source of our financial strength and life in general”. (Discipline master)

“This school staff really interrelates through respect, equity and collective support whether in good or bad moments.” (Secretary)

“Interpersonal relationships are visible in this school community because almost all members think they belong to the same family and financially help each other whenever it is urgent for life issues.” (Bursar)

8. How the SMT members assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.

All four SMT members perceived that they cohered and harmonious relationships helped them to handle life issues and, therefore, to achieve the school’s goals:

“The majority of this school staff understands each other and work together in good relationships through honest collaboration and mutual support. Our objective is to fulfill our work duties but also staying attached as each one’s effort must be supplemented by his/her workmate’s contribution”. (Head of studies)

“I think that social cohesion leads to positive results and therefore to the successful achievement of school goals. We always struggle against any barriers that may hinder the well functioning of our school community to attain our goals”. (Discipline master)
“I can confirm that we all of us cohere in our school and have always avoided divisions that may bring our community to failure regarding the school targets and consequently our life in general”. (Secretary)

“We have a mutual support fund called ‘Ikimina’ which always helps our school community members to socialize and relate to each other during the year and in whatever we have planned to do”. (Bursar)

9. The principal’s perceived control of day-to-day staff and students’ functions.

Two SMT members stated that the principal had a lot to do but his control was evident, delegating power to control staff and students’ activities:

“Our principal is not only engaged in the school work but also has other administrative duties outside. So, I have the responsibility of controlling the teaching and support staff in line with his orders, and report to him each evening”. (Head of studies)

“The principal has charged me to check punctuality, discipline and the good conduct of students and the relationships they entertain with the teaching staff for an effective teaching and learning climate. Therefore I have to send a weekly report to him for control and advice”. (Discipline master)

In contrast, the other two SMT members perceived that the day-to-day control of staff and students was among the principal’s responsibilities.

In summary, the SMT interview findings show that the principal is an administrator rather than an instructional leader. The majority of the SMT depicts the principal as an autocratic and bureaucratic leader, with power to assign tasks to each of them. The SMT members also reported a lack of involvement in the formulation or revision of the school’s vision. Instead, they are required to implement rules and requirements as the principal exhibits power to decide upon any school activities. The SMT appears to cohere only through their inter-connected socio-economic situation and their need to stay linked to survive and handle life issues while also trying to achieve the school’s goals.
**Interviews with other stakeholders**

The data are presented using the same nine themes as for the SMT members.

1. **The principal’s perceived main responsibilities.**

All three stakeholders thought that the principal mainly deals with members’ needs, prevents difficulties and leads the school towards its aims:

   “*The responsibility of the principal is to keep the smooth running of the school through control of different activities and to fight all challenges related to teaching and learning issues*”. (Teachers’ representative)

   “*I think the principal is the first school leader and his main duty is to solve whatever difficulties the school, the staff and students may encounter in improving the school*”. (Students’ representative)

   “*I think his main responsibility is to act as a family father who looks after what the members need and has to approach each of them for a common view of the school’s purpose*”. (Parents’ representative)

2. **How other stakeholders view vision formulation and implementation.**

All three stakeholders stated that they had no role in formulating the school’s vision. However, they all declared that they were trying to implement it:

   “*The school has a vision but I had no role in its formulation and we together try to work to achieve it*”. (Teachers’ representative)

   “*I did not participate in its elaboration but I think it is necessary to guide the school and therefore all the students have to follow it as it is*”. (Students’ representative)

   “*The school vision had always been there before I took this position and the important thing is to execute it*”. (Parents’ representative)

3. **How other stakeholders assess the school community’s sense of ownership.**

All three stakeholders stated that they are not included in the school’s decision-making processes:

   “*I believe that most of the time decisions come from above. Our principal has the last word even if it is supposed that the school members have suggested what to do. Our ideas seem to have little consideration as I experienced*”. (Teachers’ representative)
“Generally, I report to the head of studies or discipline master who also mainly waits for the principal’s approval. In many cases we feel not to be included in decision-making processes but do what we are required to fulfill”. (Students’ representative)

“I am really not regularly at school and some decisions may be taken independently to my opinion but I think the top leader is invested with power to decide on the school’s function”. (Parents’ representative)

4. How other stakeholders think the school’s strategic plan is developed.

All three stakeholders stated that they had no role to play in the school’s strategic planning:

“I only get information from the school leader about what has been planned and I believe the school strategic planning is established by the MINEDUC”. (Teachers’ representative)

“The principal normally explains the school’s strategy during the first school meeting with the students but I have no idea about how it is developed”. (Students’ representative)

“Parents receive information about the strategic plan of the school during the general assembly when the year starts but I have never followed how it is developed”. (Parents’ representative)

5. How the stakeholders perceive information collection for decision-making.

The three stakeholders thought that they were sometimes individually invited to suggest something, or during school meetings, but they all stress that it is the principal who decides:

“I may suggest how things may be done when I am contacted but I am really sure the final decision will come from the school head”. (Teachers’ representative)

“Sometimes the principal calls me to know how things are going, especially about students’ learning progress, but what I am sure of is that we all wait until he gives his uncontested opinion”. (Students’ representative)

“I and other parents give suggestions when we have attended meetings but we are sure that the school leader has more power to decide than parents”. (Parents’ representative)

6. How the stakeholders perceive whether the school climate is conducive to teaching and learning.
The parent was not able to comment but the other two stakeholders thought that they did their best to follow the school rules and code of conduct, the national education policy, and the NCDC regulations, in order to create a good school climate conducive to teaching and learning:

“\textit{I believe that everybody knows his/her requirements according to the NCDC’S program and guidelines and what the national policy recommends. Therefore we follow rules to maintain a favourable climate for our work”}. (Teachers’ representative)

“\textit{I and the classes’ representatives always motivate other students to keep good behaviour related to what the rules require for a better mood conducive to the school’s target achievement i.e. learning, success and the school’s good reputation”}. (Students’ representative)

7. How the stakeholders view the school members’ interpersonal relationships

Two stakeholders believed that they were focusing on good understanding and helping each other through regular conversations during the break or at different activities organized during the school year:

“\textit{I think teachers are mostly together and share all what they have at school and outside. Their relationships are based on working for the same objective and ready to contribute for each one’s joy and success to better themselves and the school in general”}. (Teachers’ representative)

“\textit{We are all students and are required to relate and understand each other and to live equitably as one and benefit from the same advantages it offers to us”}. (Students’ representative)

The parent focused on what the members can achieve together:

“\textit{I am not permanently at this school but I think the staff and students work for the same goal of success through mutual understanding. I can add that the achievement they have reached is due to mutual respect and good understanding”}. (Parents’ representative)

8. How the stakeholders assess the links between the culture of social cohesion and social relationships.

Only two stakeholders were able to comment on this issue and they agreed they were conversing on different issues related to their job life, what they expect to achieve, and how they must relate to avoid disruption to the school programme:
“I always approach my workmates and encourage them to discuss about the major issues that may prevent us to achieve our duties. We exchange ideas on what best may lead each to reach our expectations through good and honest collaboration”. (Teachers’ representative)

“I with other students’ leaders have a culture of settling our learning issues through collaboration and teamwork before we submit them to the authorities. In case of disability, we also have good ways of addressing them politely and with respect as our leaders”. (Students’ representative)

“I am rarely in the school compound and really cannot testify about that issue”. (Parents representative)

9. The principal’s perceived control of the day-to-day staff and students’ functions.

Only two stakeholders were able to comment on this issue:

“The principal always gets reports from the head of studies and discipline master. The two have the duties of checking what has been daily achieved in collaboration with teacher monitors and students before they inform the principal”. (Teachers’ representative)

“I and the classes’ representatives check the teachers and students’ attendance and make a daily and weekly rate reports to be submitted to the two heads (studies and discipline) for the school conduct follow up”. (Students’ representative)

In summary, the stakeholders’ findings suggest that there is an autocratic educational system in PRSG School. They agreed that there is a high level of centralization since decisions are taken either from education high authorities, the MINEDUC and NCDC, or by the principal, who operates through day-to-day control of the school’s functions and has the power to decide what should be done. The stakeholders confirm that they are not involved in school vision formulation and that the school community’s sense of ownership is minimal.

**Shadowing-observation findings**

This shadowing of the principal took place between 7 a.m. and 4 p.m., as explained above.

While shadowing the principal when he was controlling the school setting, with the head of studies and the discipline master, the researcher observed the principal’s approach to leadership and relationships. The head of studies and discipline master gave the impression that they feared
to be found in the wrong. They also seemed to expect the principal to confirm or contradict their
decision-making. This kind of leadership does not encourage competence and knowledge
creation, growth and self-confidence. Instead, it leads to fear of task disqualification and/or lack
of recognition by the principal.

The queue in the secretary’s office could be interpreted as evidence of either good leadership or
relationships from a principal, who is perceived to influence and inspire his followers, or as a
dictator who does not allow anything to go ahead without his unilateral approval. The situation
seemed to be that some staff and students were frightened by the prospect of a face-to-face
conversation with the principal. The researcher heard one student say that the principal is
friendly when he passes by you but changes his mood when you get into his office for a certain
issue and that he wished that he did not have to go to his office. A staff member also said that the
principal never fails to greet someone but, when he has to report to him, he becomes tough and
does not allow much freedom for explanation. The researcher’s overall assessment is that the
principal is feared, acts alone, and leads people to rely on what he dictates them to do, not in
accordance with the school’s needs but in line with his personal view of how the school should
be. This leads to a lack of trust in relationships, lack of commitment to the same purpose, and
loss of motivation, when people work to satisfy the leader, diminishing their sense of ownership.

Overview
In this chapter, the researcher presents the findings from school PSRG, based on documentary
analysis, interviews with eight participants, and the shadowing of the principal. The findings
reveal many similarities, and several differences, between the principals’ perceptions, and those
of the other seven participants, as well as the notes from documentary analysis and the
shadowing.

The findings show that the eight participants similarly perceived that the principal focuses on
pedagogical and instructional issues based on directives and regulations predetermined from the
MINEDUC and NCDC and his instructional leadership is mostly limited to task and curriculum
completion with regard to the school calendar. The participants claimed that there is minimal
collaboration with the principal where he is said to consult some members informally for
information but with the final decision belonging to him. Further, the seven participants declared
the principal to be busy administratively, and often invisible at school, therefore sometimes delegating power to middle leaders and controlling them through daily reports. The participants also state that they have little or no involvement in many school activities, which might create effective and true collaboration and communication within PRSG, but instead seems to lead to a climate of fear.

In respect of staff empowerment, the findings demonstrate that the participants viewed many aspects in the same way although the teacher, student and parent were unaware of some issues. The results mainly show little engagement in pedagogical and instructional decisions. As participants are not involved in the national curriculum elaboration, staff intellectual capacity empowerment is not effective, facilitation of staff professional development is limited, and led by the MINEDUC, and the principal only encourages staff to undertake further studies. Staff are not empowered to innovate to improve the school. The lack of instructional and transformational leadership in PRSG school may explain why its ranking is so low (see chapter four).

The findings of the leadership and relationships theme show that most of the participants believe the principal is an overall coordinator of the school, delegates power because of his many administrative responsibilities, controls staff and students through reports from middle leaders, and mostly decides alone on any issue, and always has the last word, thus reducing the participants’ sense of ownership. The participants thought that they did not take part in developing the school’s strategic plan, or in school vision creation, but only in implementing them. However, they all agreed that they worked together to respond to their socio-economic conditions and to improve their work life.

These research findings consist of an exploration and explanation of high secondary school principals’ leadership and management enactment in Huye district through quantitative and qualitative data triangulation. These findings reveal many similarities, and several differences, from the principals’ self-reports and those of the SMT members and other stakeholders. The quantitative data were grouped around three major school culture practice that are professional collaboration; affiliative/ collegial relationships; self-determination/ efficacy while the qualitative findings were structured through three themes; collaboration and communication,
leadership and relationships and staff empowerment. Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that affiliative and collegial relationships were effective aspects of school culture. The data show that the majority of the principals prioritized collaboration, communication and good relationships inside and outside the school; attempted to create cohesion and a good teaching and learning climate.

The quantitative and qualitative data differ because the first phase research results derive from principals’ self-reports while the second phase provides data from different perspectives. The lowest ranked principal is revealed by the SMT members and other stakeholders to be an administrator, rather than a leader, and that he concentrates on routine administrative tasks inside and outside the school. Also, some of the participants thought that he is a rule-bound leader who adheres to the regulations from higher authorities. All four believed that their principal manifests only a limited participative leadership style, delegating some powers because of his absence from school.

The next chapter is the discussion and analysis of the quantitative and case study findings, linked to the empirical literature.
Chapter Seven: Discussion and Analysis

Introduction

“As the global economy gathers pace, more governments are realizing that their main assets are their people and that remaining, or becoming, competitive depends increasingly on the development of a highly skilled workforce. This requires trained and committed teachers but they, in turn, need the leadership of highly effective principals and the support of other senior and middle managers.” (Bush, 2007:391)

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and analyze the survey and case study findings. As noted earlier, the two case study schools were the highest (PKIH) and lowest (PRSG) ranked schools in the School Culture Triage Survey (SCTS), developed by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002), and Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002), and applied to all eligible schools in the Huye district. The SCTS comprises three school culture dimensions: a) Professional collaboration; b) Affiliative/Collegial relationships, and c) Self-determination/Efficacy, analysed through 17 school culture practice items.

This chapter compares and contrasts the findings from the three data sets, and links them to the empirical literature, to show how the Rwandan data compare with previous similar studies. The discussion is structured into three major themes identified from both the literature review and the findings chapters. The themes are: a) participative instructional leadership, b) staff empowerment and transformational leadership, and c) collegial and relational leadership culture.

Participative Instructional Leadership

Lambert (2002) suggests that educational researchers no longer believe that one administrator can serve as the instructional leader for an entire school without the substantial participation of other educators. Several other scholars argue that effective leadership is an organizational quality which is grounded, not in the actions of a single leader, but in participative, distributed and collective organisational actions and influence (Gronn, 2002; Spillane, 2006). These authors add that leadership is understood as an aggregated goal-oriented attitude of all school and/or organisational members. It is dispersed, not concentrated, and relates to distributed leadership
that opens possibilities for all members of an educational organization to participate in the total leadership of that organisation. This section on participative instructional leadership comprises two sub-themes: collaborative instructional leadership, and inclusive decision-making and shared leadership. The first sub-theme is discussed below:

**Collaborative instructional leadership**

Hallinger (2000) developed the most frequently used conceptualisation of the instructional leadership model, which has three dimensions: defining the school’s mission, managing the instructional programme, and promoting a positive climate conducive to favourable teaching and learning. Defining the school’s mission concerns the participative function of the principal working with staff to frame and communicate the school’s goals and therefore ensuring these goals are widely shared and supported by the whole school community.

The instructional programme management dimension relates to the coordination and control of instruction and curriculum, specifically dealing with supervision and evaluation of instructional activities, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student learning progress. This is not the principal’s role alone but involves deep participative leadership engagement in instructional issues. The third dimension, a positive climate, concerns multiple functions such as instructional time allocation and protection, professional development promotion, maintaining high visibility, and providing incentives for teachers and learners. Through these activities, the instructional leader creates a school culture with high school standards and expectations, and maintenance of a good climate conducive to learning and teaching activities.

Hallinger’s (2000) conceptualization links to two perspectives, on collaborative and instructional leadership, that arise from the author’s survey and case study findings. These aspects comprise: collaboration on instructional and curricular issues, and inclusive decision-making and shared leadership.

Parkay et al. (2010) assert that school leadership should change from being too focused on managerial duties to a greater emphasis on curriculum and instruction. Jenkins (2009) contends that, in order to achieve their instructional leadership effectively, the principals have to free
themselves from bureaucratic administrative tasks and focus on improving teaching and learning through proactive instructional collaboration and supervision. The case study findings support this view, with both principals claiming to be sustaining and facilitating collaboration on instructional and curricular issues through the implementation of teaching and learning that is shared and supported by the whole school community. The two principals claim to focus on teaching and learning, promoting instructional practice renewal and curricular offerings in a collegial environment that serve all the staff and students. This links to Bush and Glover’s (2009) view that managing teaching and learning is a shared responsibility among principals, School Management Teams (SMTs), middle managers and classrooms educators. These authors add that it is important that the principal works in teams for a better delivery of the school mission.

However, the other respondents provide different views on PKIH (as the top ranked school) and PRSG (as the lowest ranked) schools. Three of the four SMT members, and two of the three stakeholders, from School PKIH confirmed that the principal deals with pedagogical and instructional issues through planning and organizing staff work, directing the school vision and goals, and coordinating all the activities that take place in the school together with other school members and students representatives. She also manages and creates effective learning environments through building supportive systems for each school member through a consultative spirit in the school’s daily activities. The stakeholders also agreed that the principal focused on creating a spirit of collaboration, developing quality education to attain the school goal, and caring for the staff and learners.

In contrast, three of the four SMTs and two of the three stakeholders in PRSG, as the lowest ranked school, confirmed that their principal concentrates on routine administrative tasks inside and outside the school rather than instructional and curricular issues. He is not often visible but, when he is available, he appears to favour inclusion, role-modeling, supporting staff and students through teaching and learning activities, providing teaching and learning materials and students’ care. However, this is not really an instructional leadership role as defined in the literature (See Botha, 2004). Also, he appears to be a rule-bound leader who adheres to the regulations from higher authorities. Two stakeholders claimed that their principal mostly focuses on teaching staff control and task fulfillment.
The survey findings also show that there is modest involvement of school community members in instructional and curricular discussion since that practice always prevails in only three schools (i.e. PKB, PGS and PGB). Further, only three of the 14 survey respondents claim to be always visible in the school, and hold discussions with teachers about their teaching methods, supervision with feedback. In addition, one principal (PKI) claimed that she often facilitates participation in curricular and pedagogical issues. However, nine principals (PKA, PCF, PAU, PGT, PKT, PMT, PSB, PSV and PRP) agreed that they did sometimes encourage participation while that participation rarely existed in PRS as the lowest ranked school among the two case study schools.

The results from PKIH school are consistent with Sergiovanni’s (2001) research on school leadership in Victoria. He notes that the role of the principal is to encourage others to be leaders, to devote themselves to a cause and a set of ideas and to accept their duty and obligation to achieve the goal. However, PRSG school principal’s behaviour differs from Botha’s (2004) view that the principal’s role is to get things done by working with and through people and that the major reason for principals’ failure is an ability to deal with people.

Both the survey and case study findings indicate that curricular and pedagogical instructions were predetermined, and derived from the Ministry of Education and the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). This implies very limited autonomy on instructional and curricular issues. This is consistent with Sindhvad’s (2009) study in the Phillipines, which shows that the principal’s role has been constrained by directives from the central offices. The author adds that principals have been obliged to follow orders and mandates passed down from the central and regional offices that define and determine the quality of education, and that principals only implement the national curriculum without revisions or modifications.

In spite of the limited autonomy, the case study findings demonstrate that principal PKI bases her instructional and curricular priority on the school vision, promoting students’ achievement, sustaining a school culture and developing an instructional programme conducive to student learning and professional growth. She ensures the management of the school’s organization and resources for an efficient and effective learning environment, facilitating collaboration with
stakeholders through integrity, fairness and in an ethical value-based manner. In addition, three SMTs and four stakeholders state that their principal is committed to what she does, especially in respect of collaboration regarding teaching and learning activities and in her conviction that all students can learn at a high level. The school’s achievements are based on collaboration and partnership between teachers and the principal.

In contrast, principal PRS attempts to prioritize instructional collaboration by apparently working with the SMTs and some stakeholders during monthly general assembly. The four SMTs and three stakeholders think that the principal seems to prioritize providing teachers, students and support staff with guidelines and tools to run the school’s activities and for task accomplishment. This behaviour differs from that recommended by Drake (1999), and Teske & Schneider (1999), who argue that a school leader envisions teaching and learning goals, sets standards, and communicates in such ways that all associated directly or indirectly know where the school is going and what it means to the community. The evidence from school PSRG suggests a kind of managerial leadership (Leithwood, 1999); a technical and functional approach often equated with bureaucracy and hierarchy where one key leader is at the apex and exercises strong leadership.

**Inclusive decision-making and shared leadership**

This section discusses and compares the survey and case study findings on whether the principals share leadership and decision-making with the SMTs, teachers, students and other stakeholders. Murphy (1995), and Begley and Leonard (1999), contend that an effective principal is a leader who leads not from the top of the school organization pyramid, but from the nexus of a web of interpersonal relationships, with people rather than through people. Hallinger and Heck (1999) add that the influence of the principal in the 21st century is based on professional expertise rather than line authority.

Mokoena (2011) contends that, during the past three decades, there has been a major shift towards participative decision-making (PDM) in schools (Hart 1995; Mosoge and Van der Westhuizen 1998; Gultig and Butler 1999; Mabaso and Themane 2002; Bush and Heystek 2003a). Mokoena (2011) adds that those scholars have called for greater participation in decision-making as a progressive way of making schools more democratic and more efficient.
He also states that many scholars embraced the notion that flatter management and decentralized authority structures carry the potential for achieving outcomes unattainable under schools’ traditional top-down bureaucratic structure. Rwanda’s top-down bureaucratic structures therefore inhibit, and reduce the scope for, genuine participative decision-making.

This part of the discussion focuses on the extent to which school community members are able to be involved in the decision-making process and shared leadership in respect of:

a) Resources and materials decision making;  
b) Establishing a school community members’ code of conduct;  
c) Planning and time allocation;  
d) The student council’s involvement in school decisions;  
e) The school community’s involvement in the students’ learning progress;  
f) New school members’ induction; and  
g) Liaison with other local schools.

**Resources and materials decision-making**

The Rwandan data show that the scope for involvement of staff and other school community members in resources and materials decision-making is restricted to student fee income, and government subsidies for basic materials such as lesson preparation notebooks, chalks and paper. The survey findings show that the majority of the principals stated that there was very limited involvement of teachers, students and staff in decision-making about school resources and materials. Only one principal (PKI) of the 14 respondents claimed such involvement while a majority (ten) confirmed that they have never included other school members in decisions about school resources and materials. However, the other three principals (PKB, PGB and PRP) stated that they sometimes consulted the school community members.

Similarly, the case study findings in school PRSG provide little evidence of shared decision making regarding resources and materials. The principal stated that he only involves the bursar. The latter claims that the principal always controls finance management. This is similar to the findings from school PKIH, where the principal and the three SMTs concur that the principal seems to budget largely by herself, only involving the bursar and then reporting how the school
is financially led and managed to higher authorities at the district level. The survey and case study data collectively show minimal involvement of school members in materials and resource management.

This limited involvement in resources and materials decision-making contrasts with Botha’s (2004) perception that a professional school principal is the educational leader and manager of a school, and is therefore responsible for the work performance of all the people. Further, people are human resources who use materials to produce an educated learner and the major role of principals is to help the school achieve a high level of performance through the utilization of all its human and material resources and this is done through effective collaborative leadership.

Establishing a school community members’ code of conduct

Four of the survey principals (PGS, PSV, PRP and PRS) declared that they always worked with all stakeholders. Also, four other respondents (PKA, PCF, PAU, and PGB) declared they sometimes involved other members of the school to establish their code of conduct. However, six principals (PKB, PGT, PKI, PKT, PMT, and PSB) stated that the school community members have never participated in establishing the school staff and students’ code of conduct. Care should be taken in interpreting these self-reported comments.

The principal of the lowest ranked school declared that he always included staff and students in establishing the code of conduct but this was contradicted by three SMTs and three stakeholders who said that they are not included. Similarly, the principal in PKIH, together with three SMTs and two stakeholders, stated that the code of conduct is pre-determined by the Ministry of Education and the district general inspectorate of schools. At PKIH, it is the discipline master who appears to be involved in the ethical code as a daily duty, especially in dealing with students’ behaviour and teacher activities.

This differs from the South African model (Bray, 2005), which stipulates that the drafting procedure and final adoption of a code of conduct in public schools should be done democratically through consultation with learners, parents and educators although the governing body is not compelled to accept their advice. However, it will generally adopt a code of conduct that is acceptable to the stakeholders and in the best interests of the school and all its learners (Visser, 2000). It is the governing body (as the representative of all the stakeholders) that finally
adopts the code of conduct — not one of its members (e.g. the principal) or some of them (e.g. educator or parent representatives).

Planning and time allocation

The survey findings demonstrate different attitudes to time allocation and planning. Almost half (six) of the survey principals state that time allocation and planning was always a result of collective work. Most (seven) of the principals claimed that they often or sometimes included other school members to discuss time schedules while only the lowest ranked school principal declined to share power in this respect.

However, the two case study principals claimed that they were not deeply involved in time allocation. In general, they only implement the national calendar and delegate power to the heads of studies, and sometimes to the discipline master, to deal with class monitors to manage teaching and learning time. The principals stated that their main concern is achieving teaching and learning, as they have little scope to modify the school calendar. This is confirmed by the SMTs and other stakeholders, who also note that time planning is pre-determined by the Ministry of Education.

The Rwandan data differ from the view expressed by Ellem (1986), who stresses the importance of consensus in time planning and allocation, stating that the school timetable is a powerful administrative tool that helps to operationalize the aims and objectives of the school by providing an appropriate structural dimension to the curriculum. The timetable provides an overview of a large proportion of the school’s resources, such as teacher-time, pupil-time and room-space, and also reveals the reality of a school’s curriculum organization and how work is formally achieved. Sharing decisions about planning and time allocation should enable school administrators to make better decisions on the school’s educational programme and about resource allocation practices linked to the school’s aims. The Rwandan schools do not follow this normative model.

The student council’s involvement in school decisions

Phaswana (2010) contends that the impetus for including learners in school decision making emanates from the worldwide movement for increased youth participation in settings in which
young people find themselves on a daily basis (Article 12 of the UN Convention on the Right of the Child, 1989). Learner participation in this context refers to adults working with learners to develop ways of ensuring their views are heard and valued (DfES, 2004).

The two case study principals self-reported beliefs revealed some similar prevailing behaviours with only slight differences about regularity and the number of people to include. The highest ranked principal (or school) invites teachers, students, and sometimes the district officer and parents on a weekly basis while the lowest ranked claimed to meet few people (class representatives, class monitors and the two heads) once a month.

Contrary to the principals’ views, the majority of the participants (four SMT and six stakeholders) in both case studies agreed that the student representatives were sometimes involved, but collaboration was mainly between the principal and the two heads. This is consistent with the majority (4 of 7) of the respondents in the lowest ranked school who have power to collaborate with the student representatives due to the principal’s invisibility and focus on more administrative work. Further, three others declared to be unaware of the existence of the student representative committee.

The survey findings also reveal that almost all the principals deal with the head of studies, head of discipline and class monitors concerning major school issues but rarely invite the students’ council to become involved in major school-level decisions. They are more often invited to meetings concerning issues about discipline or their welfare.

The low level of Rwandan student participation in school decision-making may contribute to ineffectiveness and differs from Cotton’s (2003) claim that an effective school principal establishes a clear focus on students’ learning by having a vision, clear learning goals, and high expectations of all students, and establishes interactions and cordial relationships with students.

The low level of student participation in decision-making in the Rwandan schools contrasts with the view expressed by Phaswana (2010), Wilson (2009), and Markham and Aveyard (2003), who claim that student council participation in school decision making broadens learners’ insights, improves practical reasoning skills, and promotes a greater understanding of school values. Participation is also associated with higher educational expectations, positive self-concept, and greater academic commitment among young people (Quane and Rankin, 2006). However, Jeruto
and Kiprop (2011), who conducted research on student participation in decision making in Kenya, state that student participation is often viewed as problematic for school administrators, parents and the wider society. This is because students are viewed as minors, immature and lacking in the expertise and technical knowledge required to be involved in school decision-making. Hence, student participation is often confined to student welfare and not to core governance issues. This limitation is consistent with the Rwandan data since the student representative committees appear functional through the school organizational chart but stay voiceless in practice because they are also considered to be less experienced and immature by school leaders and managers.

The school community’s involvement in the students’ learning progress

The involvement of the school community in the students’ learning progress is mainly limited to their inclusion in the transmission of results. PKIH declared that she organizes meetings with staff and students when the time comes to inform the wider school community. Also, the principal sends reports, where necessary, to the district office and the class masters give each student his/her results’ bulletin to let their parents know their progress. Parents are required to sign them for acknowledgement and give suggestions on their children’s results when students are back from holidays. PRSG presents a different approach, claiming that students are only informed about their learning progress after a period of a month and half i.e. twice in a semester that lasts for three months. However the wide school community members and parents know about it at the end of each term during public results’ proclamation. These views are confirmed by all the survey principals and by all the SMTs and stakeholders interviewed in both schools. The implication is that the Rwandan schools have not established a clear system for sharing students’ learning progress with the school community.

The Rwandan survey and case study data, on school community members’ involvement in student learning outcomes, differ from those countries implementing School-Based Management (SBM), aimed at empowering principals, teachers, and parents, and enhancing their sense of ownership of the school (Chen, 2011). These reforms have increased participation, autonomy, and accountability, and led to improved quality of education and better students’ learning outcomes (Ibid).
Chen (2011) discussed an Indonesian model that sought to address structural problems in the legal and legislative framework governing education service delivery to improve learning outcomes. The Ministry of education decree defined the school committee as the community representative body at the school level with membership comprising parents, community leaders, education professionals, private sector, education associations, teachers, NGOs and village officials, comprising a minimum of nine members and a chairperson who must come from outside the school. This differs from the Rwandan data which show the existence of parent committees in each school but they are not really functional. The committees are established and elected by other parents during poorly attended general school meetings but the committees appear to have no specific role, except for representing other parents in the school.

New school members’ induction

The case study findings show that there is no significant difference between the schools in respect of induction except that more people are involved at PKIH while the principal of PRSG seems to play the major role. PKIH notes that at the beginning of the year they prepare a welcome feast for newcomers, both teachers and students. The induction process is also ongoing for teachers, with the principal being at their disposal at any time they need help. The findings from the top ranked school show that only three respondents of the seven (SMTs and stakeholders) believed they were playing a role in collaboration with the principal while the four others believed they were not directly concerned. Some said they worked with the principal in activities such as the time table, explaining the work contract, the teaching materials distribution, and introducing them to students in classes. Other issues like explaining the school vision, goals, aims and the government policy and other guidelines, are given by the principal.

In contrast, PRSG states that he meets the established and new staff together in the meeting hall to explain the background of the school and the requirements of their job. For the students, the principal organizes a one day retreat to talk about learning and stimulate them to achieve success.

However, all seven participants seemed not to be involved in new school members’ induction. Three of them declared that they just informally helped new teachers and students, stating that
the principal mostly deals with this issue. The three participants are only involved in basic process, such as providing teachers with the necessary documents and introducing them to their different classes, and introducing new students to class monitors.

The survey findings largely confirmed the case study data. The majority of the principals stated that they talk with all staff, teachers and students all together on the first day of school year to explain how the school is run. The remaining aspects of induction are explained individually as required. These findings are consistent with Britton, Paine, Raizen, and Pimm’s (2003) view that mentoring, rather than induction, predominates in schools and often there is little more to assist beginning teachers.

Lehman (2003) suggests that every district should offer a multiple year induction programme that provides systematic help and support, and this cannot be done adequately by another teacher with a full-time load who drops by when time permits or when a problem arises. The Rwandan data are inconsistent with Lehman’s view in the sense that there appears no planned system of induction.

Liaison with other local schools

The case study findings show different views about school liaison even though they are located in the same district. In the top ranked school (PKIH), the principal and four (two SMTs and two stakeholders) of the seven participants agreed they were involved in collaboration with other local schools because teachers and students sometimes visit them, exchange experience by visiting some teachers during their lessons, or laboratory practice. Further, they sometimes compete with their students through mock exams. Collaboration is also evident through games and clubs where students compete and relax and create relationships with others to develop confidence and self-esteem. The local principals also meet to discuss progress in the district. However, three participants (two SMTs and one stakeholder) claimed not to be involved in liaison with other local schools. In contrast, the lowest ranked school (PRSG) has a much more limited engagement with principals of other schools, through telephone conversations or visits.
The survey findings show that almost all the participants claimed to liaise with other schools through the Carrefour Umurezi (Assembly of principals) and through competing with other schools for mock examinations and sport.

The Rwandan findings differ from those in Melbourne (Department of Education 2005). This suggests that sourcing expertise from beyond the school can enrich school-based programmes with knowledge, ideas and an outside perspective. For example, it may be helpful to invite or visit an expert or colleague to work with individual teachers and leaders to improve teaching and learning strategies.

**Staff Empowerment and Transformational Leadership**

Weshah (2012) comments that several researchers, such as Leithwood and Riehl (2003), Owens (1995), Pillai and Stites-Doe (2003), Bush (2003) and Yukl (2006) state that leadership is a process of influencing others’ actions in achieving desirable goals. Effective leadership is guided by explicit purpose, and leads to a positive change through empowerment and delegation of authority for teachers to make decisions on teaching and learning processes (Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg, 2004).

This section discusses two sub-themes that focus on the principals’ role in: a) instructional leadership empowerment of teachers, b) interdependence and supportive school culture practice.

**Instructional leadership empowerment**

Weshah (2012) argues that modern educational theories focus on the role of teachers as leaders who have to develop and update teaching practices and to introduce innovations that contribute to school reform and advancement (Fullan, 2000; Odhiambo and Lindahl, 2008). The author adds that empowerment requires that teachers have an impact on school life. Yukl (2006), Short and Greer (2002) and Weshah (2012), have identified certain empowerment dimensions; decision making, status, self-efficacy, professional development, communication, human relations, and autonomy at work. Teacher empowerment is seen as a means to enable teachers to promote quality teaching and learning (Dubon, 1999; Rutherford, 2009; Weshah, 2012).
The author’s survey findings suggest a modest level of instructional empowerment as seven of the 14 principals claimed they either always, often or sometimes organized in-service training, or facilitated staff teachers to attend seminars planned by the Ministry of Education, while the other half rarely or never did so because teaching and learning guidelines are still centralized at the national level. These principals only encouraged teachers to pursue their studies to improve their intellectual capacities.

The case study findings were similar in the sense that the two principals and five SMTs from both the top ranked (PKIH) and the lowest ranked school (PRSG) confirmed only minimal teacher empowerment with regard to instruction and curriculum elaboration. This is largely because of centralization as decisions were taken at the ministerial and NCDC level and the schools are only responsible for implementation. Sometimes the National Curriculum Development Centre staff met with different education stakeholders to discuss national curriculum elaboration but the principals have no specific role in this.

The Rwandan findings are similar to those of Weshah (2012) in Jordanian schools. He found that the opportunity for professional development for teachers is limited and, where available, it is usually superficial and inadequate to meet teacher needs.

**Empowerment and innovation**

The hierarchical control of pedagogy and instruction does not empower or encourage teachers to seek innovation but rather leads to repetition and inefficiency. The survey findings show that almost all (13) of the principals did not encourage innovation. This was confirmed by participants in the lowest ranked school, who all stated that there was no innovation. One of the SMTs has worked in the school for five years but has experienced little or no change. Teachers were expected to concentrate on a set of subjects and teaching areas. This is also supported by most participants in the top ranked school (PKIH) who claim that there is little or no innovation. They say that the principal only attempts to develop a learner-centred approach through support and care of students. However, the principal in PGB encouraged teachers to exchange experience and teaching materials in order to enhance teaching and learning methods while the top ranked school (PKIH) appears to encourage a supportive spirit and team work to overcome
individuals’ weaknesses. This approach may contribute to the school’s high ranking in the survey.

Overall, the great majority of survey and case study respondents state that there is little empowerment and that schools are still bound by the autocratic rules and regulations. Schen (1998, 2001), and Weshah (2012), state that centralised authority, and the lack of community involvement in educational policy, constitute the most important obstacles for the development of educational institutions. Oplatka (2004) adds that, in most developing countries, principals’ power is severely limited by the wider system. The educational system in these countries is highly centralized, constraining principals’ autonomy. This is exemplified by the creation of the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) in Rwanda in which principals have no direct role.

**Interdependence and supportive school culture practice**

Louis et al. (1995) developed a framework for professional learning communities (PLCs) and argued that, unless teachers are provided with a more supportive and engaging work environment, they cannot be expected to concentrate on increasing their abilities to teach students more effectively. There appears to be broad international consensus that a PLC suggests a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practices in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive and learning-oriented process (Mitchell & Sackney, 2000; Toole & Louis, 2002).

The author’s survey findings show that more than the half of the principals claimed that their school community presented an interdependent and supportive climate conducive to teaching and learning. Most (8) of the principals believed that they were sharing with staff members through the practice of information collection and analysis. Almost all of them stated they encouraged interdependence and support that values each school member’s contribution inside the school setting and even during extra-curricular activities since their outside relationships could strengthen collaboration and inclusivity to operate as a collective unit. Most (8) of the principals claimed that their staff always enjoyed being in the school, while the others stated that they often or sometimes enjoyed being there.
The case study findings indicate a different approach. PKI felt she supported teachers and helped them through class supervision and feedback and even proposed model lessons to improve teaching methods, and to facilitate a culture of professional development. This was confirmed by two SMTs and one stakeholder, who viewed their principal to be supportive during supervision and constructive through her advice in monthly meetings focuses on teaching and learning. She facilitates ongoing work with teachers to encourage them to help each other in lesson preparation through team-work, and sharing resources. This process strengthens collective work, inclusivity, mutual trust, sense of ownership and professional growth.

In contrast, PRS felt bound by administrative and bureaucratic duties. He was perceived to be invisible and that seems to have led to lack of trust and belief in him, as this approach does not enable the school to become a professional learning community. The findings also indicate little evidence of empowering teachers. Two SMTs and two stakeholders emphasized that the principal focused on administration rather than focusing on instructional issues. His limited presence leads him to rely on the head of studies’ reports.

**Collegial and Relational Leadership Culture**

Davidoff and Lazarus (1997) state that the culture of the school includes the values, the underlying norms which are given expression in daily practices, and the overall climate of the school. Schein (2004) adds that culture can be analyzed as a phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interaction with others. Cunningham and Gresso (1993) suggest that schools have to recognize that their organizational structure, behaviour and performance are all due to the culture of the school.

This section discusses the collegial and relational leadership culture enactment revealed by the survey and case study findings to show how the principals and other school community members’ work together to achieve their school vision, mission and goals. This theme has two sub-aspects: a) social cohesion and social relationships; b) the principals’ main responsibilities.
Social cohesion and social relationships

Angus (1995) and Jarzbkowski (2002) share the view that leaders have no monopoly on the development of organizational meaning; rather, everyone is part of the process of developing meaning within the workplace. The authors explain collegial practices in schools as being activities in which culture is being developed. Culture evolves in a particular way when teachers and other staff spend time both socializing and working together. Jarzbkowski (2002) referred to Hargreaves (1994) who suggests that school culture can be viewed from two aspects: content and form. The content aspect of teacher and staff culture can be seen in what they say, do and think, being based on shared values, beliefs and assumptions of the teaching group. The form of culture consists of the characteristic patterns of relationships and forms of association between members of those cultures. The form of teacher cultures is to be found in how relations among colleagues are articulated (Hargreaves, 1994: 166).

The principal and almost all other participants (SMTs and stakeholders) in PKIH revealed a high level of school cohesion and social relationships. The participants felt that the more their relationships were harmonious, the more the school was successful. The principal encouraged a spirit of teamwork based on order, honesty, equality, trust and harmony and all school members did whatever they could to support each other and create good social cohesion inside and outside the school. For example, the school, on the principal’s initiative, has installed a mutual support fund called ‘Ikimina’ which facilitates the school community members to help each other socially and financially. The participants also showed students the advantages of studying because they are still young and can be distracted by mundane things, then drop out. They all aimed to address social problems within the school community so as to meet the school’s goals and develop an effective teaching and learning climate. Almost all the participants stressed the value of cohesion and interpersonal relationships in the school and the way their principal encouraged participation, regardless of formal status.

In contrast, the PSRG findings show that almost all participants (principal, SMTs and stakeholders) believed that their inter-connection and social cohesion was linked to the socio-economic situation and their need to stay linked to handle life issues while also trying to achieve the school’s goals. The school has a community social association called ‘Umubano’, i.e. ‘Living
together’, that serves to help them solve difficulties arising from their low salaries. They also discuss other issues that may improve each member’s life and job. The school staff interrelates through respect, equity and collective support.

The survey findings show that some aspects of social cohesion and social relationships have been highlighted by the principals. Most principals (11) say that they always or often facilitate a supportive culture in order to help each member to fulfill his/her responsibilities. Most (8) respondents claimed cohesion and social rapport with the school members through sharing ideas, and providing mutual support. However, one principal (PSV) claimed that sharing was problematic because stakeholders are ignorant of the value of participation in school activities or stick to the traditional belief that it is the principal and teachers’ job to deal with schools.

The survey findings also demonstrated cohesive and relational school culture through traditions, rituals and celebration of school events and achievements. Almost all (13) participants declared they always, often or sometimes encouraged school event celebration because this reinforces a good climate for learning and teaching since it appears to link the whole school community. This concurs with those authors who have defined organizational culture as a manifestation of beliefs and values that organizational members share (Jenkins, 1991; Raihani, 2008).

The case study findings link to the survey results in the sense that both present aspects of school culture that evolve from how teachers and other staff socialize and work together (See Jarzbkowski, 2002) and also include both aspects of school culture (i.e. content as what they do, think and say; and form as patterns of relationships articulation among colleagues) (See Hargreaves, 1994).

**The principals’ main responsibilities**

Leithwood & Riehl (2003), and Raihani (2008), suggest three key responsibilities for principals which are valuable in almost all school contexts: a) setting direction, which includes building shared vision, developing consensus about goals and priorities, and creating high performance expectations; b) developing people, which consists of providing individualized support, offering intellectual stimulation, and modeling important values and practices; and c) redesigning the
organization, which comprises building a collaborative culture, creating and maintaining shared decision-making structures and processes, and building relationships with parents and the wider community.

Similarly, Singh and Manser (2002) recommend four elements that are components of a collegial and relational school principal responsibilities and culture i.e. planning according to a shared vision; managing through participation and collaboration; developing a school as a learning organization; and drawing on support systems through a climate of effective management and transformational leadership. The responsibility to facilitate the four elements rests heavily on school principals, their management teams and the governing bodies.

Almost all participants at case study PKIH agreed that the principal’s main responsibilities relate to the overall good conduct of the school through the school vision’s principles i.e. “Heroism, Unity and Work”, creating a sense of cooperation and good social relationships in and outside the school in order to achieve the expected outcomes, and to help school community members to feel involved in the school. The majority of the participants add that the principal’s responsibilities included planning supervision and helping teachers in their different activities, to advise students about learning, to access resource materials for teachers and students, time management, thinking about the future of the school, establishing rules and discipline, and valuing the people who work in the school. In addition, most participants consider that the principal shows sensitivity to the feelings, thoughts and participation of others, considers the implications of decisions on the climate, culture and goals of the institution, maintains visibility and accessibility, and promotes collegial behaviour. She also facilitates team and group leadership, develops action plans linked to school goals, and encourages her followers to carry out their responsibilities in accordance with their job description.

This perception is consistent with Egwuonwu’s (2000) view that an effective leader has the moral and intellectual ability to visualize and work to improve the school and its employees. An effective leader creates team spirit and is capable of persuading others to move enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals.

In contrast, the findings from PRSG showed a principal who is focused on coordination of the different school structures and relating more to outsiders than with school community members.
The principal displayed a lack of instructional and transformational leadership behaviours and appears to be mainly focused on administrative tasks. Almost all the SMT members and stakeholders perceived the principal to be an administrator rather than an instructional leader. They depicted the principal as an autocratic and bureaucratic leader, and operating through day-to-day control of the school’s functions. The principal is focused on administrative duties at school and with other political authorities and seems not to be visible at the school. This lack of instructional and transformational leadership practice at PRSG may link to its low ranking within the survey data.

The 14 surveyed principals were positive about the ways in which they fulfill their responsibilities. Half of them say that there is always a collegial and relational leadership culture, through frequent communication, while five declared that they often or sometimes did the same. All 14 principals stated that they felt there was a true sense of community as staff worked like a single family. Care should be taken in interpreting these self-reported claims.

The top ranked school appears to embody Leithwood and Riehl’s (2003) view that the principal sets the direction by setting the school’s vision and working towards its implementation and the creation of social relationships aiming at achieving the school’s aims. Further, she develops people by helping school members to feel involved, providing intellectual stimulation through planning supervision and helping teachers in their different activities. She also redesigns the organization, within the limits imposed by a centralized system, through thinking about the future of the school, valuing people and showing sensitivity to the feeling and participation of others in the school activities. This differs from data drawn from the lowest ranked school that presents an invisible, autocratic and bureaucratic principal, who also is perceived to lack instructional and transformational leadership practices.

Theoretical significance

The author’s research has theoretical significance as the Rwandan data serve to modify Hargreaves’ (2002) model of school culture. Hargreaves’ theory consists of two typologies. The first assumes that all schools have to achieve the goals for which they exist while the second relates to maintaining social cohesion and social relationships that are satisfying, supportive, and sociable, to achieve teaching and learning outcomes. The author suggests that achieving the
goals, and maintaining cohesion and social relationships, are sometimes in tension and one may be at the expense of the other. His two-by-two typology distinguishes four school culture practices: a) the formal school culture (the school practices high social control with low social cohesion), b) the welfarist school culture (high social cohesion with low social control, c) the hothouse school culture (high social cohesion and high social control), d) the survivalist school culture (low social cohesion and low social control). These models are explained in chapter one.

The Rwandan data show that the Hargreaves two-by-two typology needs to be modified to explain the culture of the survey and case study schools. The prevailing school culture was based on affiliative and collegial relationships among the school community members. Both the top ranked and the lowest ranked case schools presented characteristics of high social cohesion but differed in the level of social control.

The findings show that the top ranked school has high social cohesion and low social control and is therefore ‘welfarist’, with a friendly atmosphere, a focus on individual student development, and nurturing a favourable teaching and learning environment through a child-centred approach. The principal facilitated a spirit of teamwork based on order, honesty, equality, trust and harmony and all school members contributed to good social cohesion, through mutual support.

In contrast, the lowest ranked school presented aspects of high social cohesion and a top-down traditional, bureaucratic and managerial school culture that implies high social control, through regular reports from the head of discipline and head of studies to the principal, who was often absent from the school and perceived to be ‘invisible’. Hargreaves categorised this combination of high social cohesion and high social control as ‘hothouse’ school culture. However, this implies excellence and, in practice, high levels of bureaucratic control hinder ‘ownership’ at the lowest ranked school, impacting on staff commitment. Staff work under pressure, lack enthusiasm and are anxious to fulfill their duties, because of high levels of control.

The theoretical significance of this research is that the Rwandan data do not fit Hargreaves’ two-by-two typology of school culture. The research findings suggest that the ‘hothouse’ school culture should be modified to include high social cohesion and low social control, while the ‘formal’ school culture should have high social cohesion and high social control, in the Rwandan context. The research showed that the Hargreaves formal school culture typology (i.e. with low
social cohesion and high social control), is consistent with the results of the lowest ranked school results, while the welfarist typology of high social cohesion and low social control embodies characteristics similar to those of the top ranked school (see table 8.1)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School culture practice</th>
<th>Typology</th>
<th>Hargreaves model</th>
<th>Rwandan data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal school culture</td>
<td>High social control &amp; Low social cohesion</td>
<td>Custodial and coercive tone fostering traditional values, pressure to achieve learning goals, orderly school life that is scheduled, disciplined with strong work ethic, High academic expectations with low tolerance of those who do not live up to them, staff relatively strict, and institutional loyalty valued.</td>
<td>In the lowest ranked school, the principal is invisible, leads in a top-down traditional, bureaucratic and managerial manner, and exercises high levels of social control through reports. There is little 'ownership', and staff tend to implement orders and to fulfil duties. In contrast to the Hargreaves typology, this school has high social cohesion based on solving life issues rather than working towards school objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfarist school culture</td>
<td>High social cohesion &amp; Low social control</td>
<td>Relaxed school with friendly atmosphere, focus on individual student development and child-centred education. There is low work pressure and social cohesion is more important than academic goals.</td>
<td>In the top ranked school, the principal is visible, shows willingness to assist staff and students, and focuses on collaboration and cohesive relationships. Each member is valued and encouraged to participate, control and pressure are minimised, and there is encouragement to feel ownership and commitment to the school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hothouse</td>
<td>High social cohesion &amp; High social control</td>
<td>Frenetic environment, putting educators and students under pressure for active participation in school life. There are high expectations of work, personal development, team spirit, enthusiasm and commitment of teachers. There is anxiety about failing to achieve the goals, loss of individuality and coercive social control.</td>
<td>The hothouse model does not apply to the Rwandan data as the top ranked case study school is characterised by high social cohesion and low social control. Contrary to Hargreaves' model, there is a friendly atmosphere, facilitation of team work, trust and harmony.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survivalist school culture</td>
<td>Low social cohesion &amp; Low social control</td>
<td>Poor social relations, teachers striving to keep basic control, avoidance of academic work, and lessons move at a leisurely pace. Students under-achieve and staff feel unsupported and alienated. There is low morale and little professional satisfaction.</td>
<td>The survivalist school culture model does not fit the Rwandan data because the lowest ranked school is characterised by high social cohesion and high social control. It has top-down traditional leadership through regular control of staff and students’ work. Staff feel supported although this is mostly for solving their life issues.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.1: School culture in Rwanda (adapted from Hargreaves’ (1995, 2002))

Table 8.1 shows that the Rwandan data suggest some modification to the Hargreaves typology. The lowest ranked school data present some of the characteristics of the formal school culture
type, but it differs in the sense that the school has a high level of social control and high social cohesion, characteristics of Hargreaves’ hothouse school culture. The Rwandan data are theoretically significant also in the sense that the top ranked school has characteristics consistent with welfarist school culture, with high social cohesion and low social control.

The Hargreaves typology assumes that the most effective type is ‘hothouse’, with high social cohesion and high social control. However, this fits the lowest ranked school in the Rwandan study. The Rwandan data imply that the most effective school culture model is that based on high social cohesion and low social control rather than the Hargreaves model of high school cohesion and high social control. In Rwanda, high social control was exerted through top-down, traditional and managerial leadership, which hinders a true sense of ownership in school decision-making, leading to ineffectiveness.

However, it is not possible to generalize from the two case study schools to the wider Rwandan context. The model is grounded in the specific case study schools, not in the whole Rwandan educational system.

Overview

This discussion chapter has been structured around three major themes that derived from the literature and the author’s findings; the principals’ participative instructional leadership perspectives, staff empowerment and collegial and relational leadership culture.

While the principals claimed to facilitate pedagogical discussions, the majority of survey and case study participants said that this was inhibited by the centralized system of instructional and curricular programmes established at the national level by MINEDUC and the NCDC. This leads to very little autonomy and minimal involvement in decision-making for principals, educators and school community members. This means that most principals focus more on managerial and bureaucratic duties and also adopt a top-down structure with limited participation of other school members in decision-making on such issues as resources and materials, community members’ code of conduct, time allocation, students’ learning progress, new members’ induction and liaison with other schools. One positive feature, however, is the cohesion and relational
leadership culture that prevails in the majority of the schools where each member feels involved and supported.
Chapter Eight: Conclusion

Introduction

This final chapter provides the conclusion to the thesis. The chapter shows how the research questions have been answered and discusses the significance of the study, linked to previous literature and research. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and provides some recommendations for practitioners and policy-makers, and for further research.

Answering the Research Questions

This research was conducted using a mixed methods approach and focused on exploring the role of high school principals in leading and managing their schools in the Huye district in Rwanda drawing on concepts of school culture. The study was guided by six research questions. This section provides answers to each of these questions, based on the evidence from the survey and the two case studies.

Research question 1: What are the main responsibilities of school principals in Rwanda?

The rationale for this research question was to explore whether the school principals played an influential role in their schools by setting the tone of the school, the climate for teaching and learning, the level of teacher professionalism and morale, and a degree of concern for the students. The issues to explore included whether the principal is an initiator (he/she gets projects started); an innovator (sustains, supports or brings new strategies); motivator (he/she influences others through collaboration to reach the vision, mission, goals and objectives); calculator (he/she sets the school activities on a clear strategic plan); and communicator (he/she communicates the school vision, leads each members’ vision ownership and stimulates the school community relationships).

The findings from both the survey and case studies offer many similar, and some different, views on the main responsibilities of the principals, despite the fact that schools in Rwanda are run in accordance with the MINEDUC rules and regulations, with limited autonomy and responsibility for school principals.
The research findings showed that most respondents revealed that their principals stressed affiliative and collegial relationships in their day-to-day work but appeared to have minimal responsibility for curriculum and instruction, because they mostly dealt with its implementation rather than participating in its elaboration. In addition, the results demonstrate that the principals and the school community members have a very limited role in establishing the mission of education system. They were only able to contribute to its implementation. This makes it difficult for stakeholders to define a distinctive school mission, and to frame and communicate clear school goals. This inevitably impacts on a sense of ‘ownership’ and, as noted above, may hinder the principal’s responsibility as an instructional leader, leading to ineffective teaching and learning.

The data show that principals sought to maintain collegial relationships. The majority of principals established activities that reflected frequent communicative and collaborative opportunities, encouraged, supported and appreciated ideas sharing, and sustained good interpersonal relationships that appear to have been conducive to a favourable climate for teaching and learning.

The case study findings reveal significant differences between the highest and lowest ranked principals. The highly ranked principal maintained visibility and accessibility, encouraged team work, and helped staff to carry out their duties in accordance with their job descriptions. This principal also helps teachers in their different activities, meets students to talk about learning, and provides resource materials for teachers and students. She also appears to value the people who work in the school.

In contrast, the principal of the lowest ranked school focused on coordinating the school structures, and on hierarchical and top-down relationships, due to his administrative bias and frequent ‘invisibility’ in the school. The principal was also perceived to be focused more on external relationships than those with school community members. The principal’s approach is more administrative than pedagogical or instructional. The principal was viewed as an autocratic and bureaucratic leader, operating in day-to-day control through reports from some middle school leaders, i.e. the head of studies and the discipline master. He is regarded as task-oriented, focusing on implementing the school calendar in accordance with central education office requirements.
The findings from the lowest ranked school contrast with Black’s (1998), and Johnson’s (1997), conception of three broad approaches to principal leadership: instructional, transformational and participative leadership. These authors say that school principals should create clear expectations, maintain discipline and implement high standards, aimed at the improvement of teaching and learning. They should also be leaders with vision, leading the school to use more effective teaching and curricular strategies, and supporting educators in their classroom teaching. This instructional mode differs from the Rwandan principals’ practice, as the latter are only minimally engaged in determining the school vision and mission, have only limited instructional involvement, and have little impact on teaching and learning.

Black (1998), and Johnson (1997), also state that transformational leaders inspire and motivate their followers towards a common vision and goals. In contrast, the Rwandan principals showed little or no transformational leadership. This is largely because they are leading in a centralised education system which allows few opportunities to innovate or to empower the school community.

Black (1998), and Johnson (1997), add that participative leadership involves the members of the organization, educators, learners, support staff, parents, and other stakeholders, becoming involved in problem solving, learners’ improvement and any other decision making in the school. The research findings show that the top ranked school principal presented some characteristics of participative leadership but, in both schools, there is minimal scope for involvement, as decisions on most major issues are made by the central authority.

Research question 2: How do high school principals enact their leadership and management?

The Rwandan data suggest that there were few opportunities for shared leadership among the school community members, although the majority of the survey principals claimed that they allowed involvement in planning and time allocation. However, there was very limited involvement of school community members and other stakeholders in decisions concerning resources and materials, and participation in student learning progress was confined to communication through school bulletins or during public proclamations. There was also very little scope for inclusion in new members’ induction and few opportunities to liaise with other
local schools. However, a modest level of participation existed in establishing the school community members’ code of conduct.

The two case studies presented different perspectives on shared leadership. The data collectively showed minimal involvement of school members in materials and resource management, and presented a lack of collective leadership in planning and time allocation, where the principals considered time organisation as the responsibility of the two heads (studies and discipline) and the class monitors. However, the findings showed slight differences between the two case studies with regard to the student council’s involvement in school decision making activities, participation of the school community members in student learning progress, involvement in new school members’ induction and in liaison with other local schools. The lowest ranked school’s data suggest that the principal is autocratic, hierarchical, invisible, and leading from the top through reports given by the heads of discipline and studies, whereas the findings from the top ranked school showed that the principal collaborated with some school members, for example in liaising with other local schools and inducting new school members.

Mokoena (2011) argues that principals are now required to lead the school community through participation and collaboration among stakeholders in decision-making (Cranston, 2001; Jackson, 2000; Williams & Portin, 1997). Somech (2002) adds that leaders should be willing to let go of traditional authority roles by allowing stakeholders to have a greater voice, providing them with support that fosters empowerment. Mokoena (2011), and Jackson (2000), argue that principals need to involve staff in collective decision-making. The authors emphasise the importance of consultation, collective decision-making, and delegation of responsibility. The Rwandan data are inconsistent with this literature as they generally showed little scope for the involvement of school community members in school decision-making.

**Research question 3: How, and to what extent, do Rwandan principals lead teaching and learning in their schools?**

This question relates to the extent to which high school principals lead and manage teaching. This includes student-teacher relationships; teacher professional development, planning the curriculum, and creating a climate conducive to effective teaching and learning.
The Rwandan data confirm that curriculum and pedagogical instructions were predetermined, and derived from the Ministry of Education and the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). The clear implication of this centralised model is that principals, and other school community members and stakeholders, have very little scope to lead teaching and learning, but are restricted to implementing national policies.

However, the principal of the top ranked school tried to encourage instructional leadership practices through collectively planning the staff’s work, facilitating discussion about teaching and learning, and encouraging school staff to exchange experiences in order to implement the school objectives and mission. This principal provided constructive daily advice to teachers and students, encouraged teachers to share teaching resources, and facilitated team work in lesson preparation.

In contrast, the principal of the lowest ranked school results was perceived to be invisible and practicing managerial leadership. The approach is top-down, and day-to-day teaching and learning activities are controlled through reports derived from the discipline and studies heads.

This instructional leadership behaviour differs from Murphy’s (1990) view that principals in productive schools – that is, schools where the quality of teaching and learning are strong – demonstrated instructional leadership, both directly and indirectly. Bush and Glover (2002) add that the core purpose of principalship is to provide leadership and management in all areas of the school to enable the creation and support of conditions under which high quality teaching and learning take place and which promote the highest possible standards of learner achievement.

However, the Rwandan data show that principals lack the scope to act as instructional leaders because the educational system is centralised. Curriculum is predetermined by higher authorities, allowing educational stakeholders only a limited stake in shaping teaching and learning.

*Research question 4: How do high school principals lead and manage staff and other resources at their schools?*

Rwandan schools receive their income from student fees and Government subsidies. Leadership and management of staff and other resources is centralised and involves very few people at school level. In most schools, including the lowest ranked case study, only the principal and
bursar are involved, with the minimal participation of the head of studies and the discipline master, in respect of teaching aids, cleaning tools, sports equipment, and other materials. However, school-level decision-making remains largely centralised, as even the bursar could not make decisions without the principal’s approval.

The principal of the top ranked school operated in a different way, regularly involving the head of studies, the discipline master, and the bursar, in school staff management, and planning school resources and materials, but the final decisions still rested with her. However, there was still only limited scope for other school community members to be involved. The system for leading and managing staff and other resources is still centralised and, even at the school level, the principal has a near-monopoly in managing staff and other resources.

The Rwandan findings concur with Shen’s (2001) view that some educational institutions are still governed by the centralised authority. The data showed that centralisation, and the lack of school community members’ involvement in educational policy and leadership, are the most important obstacles to the development of educational institutions. This is confirmed by the Rwandan data, which show that resource management involves very few people and is ultimately controlled by the principal, within the constraints of a highly centralised system.

**Research question 5: How do principals relate to their stakeholders, including the hierarchy, teachers, students, support staff, parents and the community?**

The Rwandan data show that the principals facilitated engagement with their stakeholders and promoted social cohesion and social relationships among the school community members. School community members were encouraged to build an interdependent school culture that helped each member to fulfil their duties. The findings also suggest that principals encouraged traditions, and celebration of school events, to reinforce trust and help school members to feel ‘ownership’ of the school. However, some stakeholders retained the traditional view that school leadership was the concern of school principals and teachers.

There were some differences between the two case study schools. Both principals encouraged honest and friendly relationships, but the principal of the top ranked school was particularly influential in promoting team spirit and harmonious relationships, while trying to create an
orderly work place. At the lowest ranked school, interaction and social cohesion was motivated by survival due to the socio-economic situation.

Ojo and Olaniyan (2008) suggest that maintaining good relationships helps to encourage the growth and improvement of the school and its community. They portray education as an open system and as a social organisation that should thrive on relationships within and outside the school. The highest ranked principal, in particular, embodied these ideas within the limitations imposed by the centralised system.

Research question 6: How do principals affect their schools’ culture?

Fidler, Russell and Simkins (1997) argue that the culture of an organization represents a stabilizing and unifying force. They describe culture as the distinctive way in which organization members go about their work and relate to each other in a particular organization. Culture refers to values, beliefs and norms of individuals in the organization and is manifested by symbols and rituals rather than through the formal structure of the organization (Bush, 1995).

The Rwandan data show that school leadership is constrained by the strong role of the Ministry of Education, and the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), allowing minimal scope for principals to influence school culture. The Rwandan survey and case study findings show that principals are able to influence school culture mainly through encouraging collegial relationships. The data indicate that most principals sought to develop a supportive culture, to encourage school members to fulfil their responsibilities. However, there were differences between the two case study schools. The supportive culture at the lowest ranked school was primarily to help members to address their life issues rather than being focused on the school. In contrast, the top ranked school’s social cohesion was designed to achieve success within the school.

The top ranked principal focused on pedagogical and instructional issues, including planning and organising staff work, directing the implementation of the school’s vision, and coordinating school activities with other members. The school functioned in an effective and collaborative manner, based on supportive systems among members.
In contrast, the principal of the lowest ranked school had little impact on school culture, because of his ‘invisibility’ and a focus on managerial duties rather than instructional activities. The principal led in a traditional manner, with routine administrative work, implementing rules and regulations from higher authorities, and leading with a hierarchical approach.

The two Rwandan principals impacted on school culture in very different ways. The highest ranked school appeared to be unified (Fidler, Russel and Simkins, 1997), with supportive social cohesion and social relationships, to achieve the school’s goals, while the lowest still followed traditional top-down approaches to leadership.

**Significance of the Study**

This section addresses the empirical and theoretical significance of the research.

**Empirical significance**

The author’s research shows that school leadership and management in Rwanda are still centralised at the level of the Ministry of Education, which rules and mandates schools through the regional offices and the district inspectorates. This hierarchical and top-down chain of command limits the scope for principals, school community members, and other stakeholders, to instil school-based management initiatives. This research is significant because it is the first major study of school principals in Rwanda. It provides important new data on instructional, transformational and participative leadership practice, and school culture, in the Rwandan educational system, where principals lead and manage within a centralised system, and have minimal autonomy and discretion in leading and managing their schools. The research, therefore, also provides a contribution to the limited literature on school leadership in centralised systems.

The author’s research was underpinned by two major models of educational leadership and management, instructional and transformational (Hallinger and Heck, 1996a, 1996b), which originated from research on effective schools. However, the research findings showed little scope to enact either of these models in Rwanda, due the centralised nature of the educational system, limiting the scope for developing a specific school-based vision, and for influencing the nature of the curriculum.
Participative leadership is also of contemporary significance (Mokoena, 2011) but the author’s research shows that this is difficult to implement because the top-down educational system in Rwanda allows minimal participation in school decision-making. Policy-makers, principals, teachers, students, parents, and other stakeholders, may benefit from the research if they adopt a new approach based on open and participatory leadership with flatter organisational structures rather than the traditional authority and top-down approach. This would reduce the gap between higher authority and school leaders, and facilitate school community members’ involvement, leading to a sense of ownership and the creation of a climate conducive to effective teaching and learning.

*Instructional leadership*

This section assesses the instructional leadership practices of the Rwandan principals and contrasts them with instructional leadership practice, as represented in the literature. Instructional leadership is one of the foremost leadership models, as measured by the number of empirical studies (Heck and Hallinger, 1999). The model explicitly addresses how school leaders and teachers exercise educational leadership to bring about school improvement (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999b; Southworth, 2002).

The author’s survey and case study findings indicate that instructional leadership is constrained by the top-down approach to curriculum and pedagogy, determined by the Ministry of Education and the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). Principals and school community members have very limited autonomy on instructional and curricular issues. The Rwandan data show that the great majority of principals focus on routine bureaucratic functions, inside and outside the school, rather than instructional leadership. Hallinger (2003), reflecting on such cases, states that principals occupy a middle leadership position in which their authority is severely limited, by their need to meet the expectations of those above them in the hierarchy. The scope for instructional leadership is also constrained by the limited expertise of the principals.

Bush (2003, 2007) argues that school aims are strongly influenced by pressures from the external environment, and particularly from the expectations of government, often expressed through legislation or formal policy statements. Schools may be left with the residual task of interpreting external imperatives rather than determining aims on the basis of their own assessment of learner
needs. The key issue here is the extent to which school managers are able to modify government policy and develop alternative approaches based on school-level values and vision. In Rwanda, the external imperatives are particularly strong, leaving little scope for school-level instructional leadership. The findings are significant because they confirm that instructional leadership is very constrained in highly centralised systems.

**Transformational leadership**

Hallinger (2003) views transformational leaders as having the skills to develop the organisation’s capacity to innovate. Rather than focusing only on direct coordination, control, and supervision of curriculum and instruction, transformational leaders seek to build the organisation’s ability to determine its purpose and to support the development of changes to the practice of teaching and learning. Transformational leadership may also be viewed as distributed in the sense that it may emphasise the development of a shared vision and shared commitment to school change.

The Rwandan data show that principals and teachers are not empowered to innovate but are confined to prescribed duties and tasks. The principals could not initiate transformation in their schools since they feel rule bound and autocratically led. This means that they adopt managerial and hierarchical leadership, focused on routine, rather than innovation and school improvement.

However, the top ranked principal attempted to transform her school through limited innovations, such as encouraging teachers to pursue their studies for higher degrees, and prompting collaboration between them to enhance their capabilities. Despite this initiative, however, only a shift to school decentralisation is likely to empower principals and teachers to develop a transformational approach, generating trust and openness among school community members and bringing about school improvement. Oplatka (2004) argues that there must be change from the severe limitation of power in most developing countries, including Rwanda, allowing principals to be leaders of their own schools. The Rwandan data are significant because they show that the scope for transformational leadership is limited in highly centralised systems.
Participative leadership

Participative decision-making is still a central theme in the literature (Pounder, 1997; Leithwood and Duke, 1998; Walker, 2000; Somech, 2002; San Antonio and Gamage, 2007; Mokoena, 2011). Moran (2000) argues that plans to restructure schools have been developed to foster greater use of democratic processes by encouraging school administrators to include as many people as possible in decision-making.

The Rwandan data reveal that there is very limited involvement and participation in school decision-making. Major decisions are taken by the external hierarchy and principals are left to implement these decisions, often through a top-down approach. The principal of the top ranked school modified this practice by involving some school members but she was also required to follow external rules and regulations, and final school-based decisions belonged to her. While principals varied in their willingness to adopt participative approaches, the scope for internal decision-making is so limited, that this orientation produced only minor changes compared to those schools where the principals had no such inclination. This is significant because it shows that the normative support for participative leadership is blunted in a centralised system.

The Survey Model

The survey model (SCTS) developed by Phillips (1996), Phillips and Wagner (2002), and Wagner and Maden-Copas (2002), to assess school culture, was helpful in analyzing the data. Affiliative and collegial relationships were claimed to be prevalent in almost all schools, and school members were encouraged to debate events that mark the school’s values. With regard to efficacy/self-determination, the principals claimed a kind of interdependence and supportive school culture that value each other, collective information analysis and inclusion in problem solving. However, regarding the professional collaboration school culture dimension, the principals did not encourage staff to become involved in decision-making concerning materials and resources but some claimed to involve staff in learning, time allocation, developing the school schedule and collaboration to establish school community members’ code of conduct.


**Limitations of the Study**

The author’s research is significant in providing new evidence about school leadership in Rwanda and showing how Hargreaves’ (2002) culture model requires modification to fit the centralised Rwandan context. However, the author’s research has certain limitations. First, this research has been conducted in only one district of Rwanda and may not be generalisable to other parts of the country. However, given the centralised education system, there are likely to be certain similarities with other districts, as they all function under the same rules and regulations from MINEDUC.

Second, this research was limited to secondary schools. The research may not be generalisable to all schools in the district as the research sample did not include primary schools.

**Recommendations**

- The author’s research contributes to knowledge about educational leadership and management in Rwanda but more research is required to gain a wider and deeper understanding of school leadership within this highly centralised system. In particular, new or further research is required on leadership and management in primary schools.

- The author’s research shows that the Hargreaves’ (2002) two-by-two typology does not fit Rwandan secondary schools. New or further research is required to test alternative models. This might include further examination of well-established leadership models such as instructional, transformational and participative theories.

- The author’s research shows that the centralised Rwandan educational system limits the scope for participation of stakeholders in school decision-making, impacting on school effectiveness. I recommend that policy makers review the nature and extent of centralisation to enhance school-based decision-making, thus contributing to quality education. This would also empower school stakeholders, create a sense of ownership, and promote a climate favourable to teaching and learning in schools.

- The research suggests that collaboration between policy makers and educational practitioners, rather than traditional top-down leadership, would enhance school
outcomes. Such collaboration should lead to high quality decision making, greater trust, and mutual commitment towards achieving the Rwandan goal of school improvement.

Overview

This chapter answered the six research questions that guided this research and concluded that principals in the Huye district of Rwanda are constrained by a centralised educational system with predetermined rules and mandates from higher authority. Principals have little autonomy and there is limited participation in decision-making on curricular and pedagogical issues. These factors limit the scope for instructional, transformational and participative leadership. The research shows that a review is required of the traditional top-down, hierarchical and managerial leadership, leading to greater school-based leadership and management, providing opportunities for all educational stakeholders to contribute to shaping, and implementing, a distinctive school vision. This will be achieved through collaboration, and empowering practitioners, rather than being bound by the rules and regulations of external decision-makers.

The chapter highlighted the empirical and theoretical significance of the research. However, some limitations are evident, notably that the research cannot be generalised to all Rwandan schools. However, given the centralised framework for education, it is likely that the findings will be similar. This remains to be tested through further research.
REFERENCES


271


Mees, W. G. (2008). The Relationships among Principal Leadership, School Culture, and Student Achievement in Missouri Middle Schools, Unpublished PhD Dissertation presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of Missouri – Columbia.


Southern Regional Educational Board. (2001). *Good Principals Are the Key to Successful Schools: Six Strategies to Prepare More Good Principals*.


www.rwandagateway.org/education;2005


APPENDIX A: Participant Information Sheet.

Dear ……………………………………….,

I am a PhD student at the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, South Africa. As part of the process of completing my studies, I am carrying out a research titled “The Role of High School Principals in Leading and Managing School Culture: Huye District as case study in Rwanda”. This study, which aims to explore and to understand how Rwandan high school principals enact, lead and manage their schools, with a focus on school culture, intending to improve teaching and learning and how this links to national educational policy and the country’s vision, will take place in your school for a period of approximately three months. The study will contribute towards making Rwandan high schools more effective by awakening school principals on how effective educational leadership and management roles promote a good climate for better environment of teaching and learning. Data will be collected through the use of interviews.

As a person who is likely to have information relevant to this study, I would like you to participate in it. Your participation will be entirely voluntary, and you will be free to withdraw from the study at any time should you so desire. Should you decide not to participate in the study, this will have no negative consequences for you. Any information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for the purposes of this study. The interviews should not take more than an hour to conduct.

Thank you very much.

Yours Sincerely,
SAFARI KAMBANDA
Contact details: National University of Rwanda, P. O. Box 117 Butare– Rwanda. Cell: (00250) 07 88 50 41 34 (Rwanda), E-mail: kamsafari@yahoo.fr
APPENDIX B: Informed Consent Form.

I, the undersigned, voluntarily agree to participate in the study titled “The Role of High School Principals in Leading and Managing School Culture: Huye District as a case study in Rwanda”. I understand that I can withdraw from participating in the study at any time should I wish without any adverse consequences. I further understand that my participation does not expose me to any risk and that my identity and privacy will not be compromised.

Participant’s Name: .......................................................... ..........................................................

Participant’s Signature: .......................... ............  Date: ...........................

Researcher’s Name: SAFARI KAMBANDA.

Researcher’s Signature: ..............
APPENDIX C: Interview Respondents’ Consent Form.

Dear respondent,

I am a PhD student at the University of the Witwatersrand, Faculty of Humanities, Wits School of Education, Johannesburg/ South Africa. As part of the process of completing my studies, I am carrying out a research titled “the Role of High School in Leading and Managing School Culture: Huye District as a case study in Rwanda”. The aim of the study to explore how Huye high school principals lead and manage their schools, drawing on concepts of school culture, and intending to improve teaching and learning and how this links to national educational policy and the country’s vision.

I would like to request you to participate in this study by taking thirty minutes to an hour of your time to respond to the attached interview protocol and some other related questions that will be asked during the interview. This should not take more than an hour.

Thank you very much.

Participant’s name........................................

Participant’s signature.............................. Date...........................................

Researcher’s name.....SAFARI KAMBANDA

Researcher’s signature......................... ......Date...........................................
APPENDIX D: Tape Recording Consent Form.

I, the undersigned, voluntarily agree to be recorded on tape while being interviewed. I understand that my identity and privacy will not be revealed by the researcher; that the information I provide will be kept confidential, and that it will be used only for the purposes of the study titled “The Role of High School Principals in Leading and Managing School Culture: Huye District as a case study in Rwanda”.

Participant’s Name: ...........................................................................................................

Participant’s Signature: ......................... Date: .........................

Researcher’s Name: SAFARI KAMBANDA.

Researcher’s Signature: .............................. Date: .........................
APPENDIX E: Survey Interview Protocol.

INSTRUCTIONS

This survey semi-structured interview protocol is to be conducted face to face and individually with 14 secondary school principals in Huye district/ Southern province of Rwanda. These interviews are part of my research first phase (quantitative phase) and are to be conducted by the researcher himself, who is also going to record and transcribe the participants’ responses, subject to their consent. All the responses will be kept confidential and destroyed by the end of the study. The interview is expected to take about 45 minutes but may a bit be longer, depending on the length and nature of participants’ responses.

School name……………………………Years at this school……………………………

I. Demographic characteristics

Gender:

Did faculty of education/or others:

How many years have been a principal:

Have you ever been trained in school leadership and management? How many times and by whom?

II. Professional collaboration

1) Do you, if at all, discuss instructional and pedagogical issues with teachers, students, and other school stakeholders, including parents, district officers? If so, would you please explain how?

2) Do, you if at all, work and discuss the school activities schedule together with teachers, students, support staff and the school community members? If so, give some details?
3) Do you involve teachers and other staff members in the school decision making regarding the school needs, including materials and financial resources or others?

4) Do you collaborate with teachers and other school management team members to plan school members’ code of conduct including students’ discipline?

5) Do you include teachers, students, and other school management team members in planning and organizing teaching and learning collectively and in teams rather than as separate individuals? If yes, please explain?

III. Affiliative and collegial relationships

1) Do you, if at all, encourage teachers, students and other staff members to remember, discuss, debate and celebrate important event that shave marked and supported the school’s values? If so, explain how?

2) How do you, if at all, facilitate teachers and students to visit, exchange experience with other local schools or meet outside of the school to enjoy each other’s company?

3) Does your school reflect a true sense of community? If so, would you please explain how?

4) Does your school schedule activities and strategic plan include frequent communication and collaborative opportunities for teachers, students, parents and other school stakeholders? If so, explain how?

5) Do you, if at all, support and appreciate participation and sharing ideas with other members of the wide school community? If so, give more details?

6) Do you, if at all, encourage and facilitate rituals, traditions, celebrations that maintain and sustain good interpersonal relationships and an orderly teaching and learning environment in your school? If so, would you like to explain how?
IV. Efficacy and/or self-determination

1) Do you collect and analyse information in collaboration with other staff members on something that is not working in order to predict and prevent rather than reacting and repairing? If so, please tell how?

2) Do you, if at all, create, facilitate and maintain school members’ interdependence that develops a collaborative, flexible, innovate and supportive culture that value each other? If so, explain how?

3) Do you, if at all, involve and encourage your school community members to seek for innovate alternatives to teaching and learning activities/or issues rather than repeating what has always been done? If, so give more explanations?

4) Do you, if at all, include the school community members to define the school problems and find solutions together rather than blaming each others?

5) How do you, if at all, involve and empower teachers to make instructional decisions rather than waiting for you or any education authorities to tell them what to do?

6) Do you think that teachers, support staff work in this school because they enjoy and feel ownership?
APPENDIX F: CASE STUDY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL.

Instructions

This is a semi-structured interview that will be conducted face to face and individually with sixteen participants in two secondary schools. It will include the principals, the Heads of studies, the Heads of discipline, the bursars, and the secretaries) who are members of the School Management Team, one parent in each school who will be representing the parents’ school committee, one representative teacher in each school and one representative student. These interviews will take place in the second phase of my research study that consists of two case studies in two different Huye District secondary schools in Rwanda. The interview will be conducted by the researcher himself and the latter will record and transcribe participants’ comments, subject to their consent. All responses will be kept confidential. This interview is expected to take about 30 minutes but may be longer, depending on the length and nature of participants’ responses.

I. Demographic characteristics

Gender:

Name of the school:

Education background of the respondent (may not concern parents or students)

2 years graduate education:

2 + 2 years graduate education:

Did Faculty of Education or others:

Educational experience of the respondent (may not concern parents or students)

0 – 5 years experience or less:

6 – 10 years experience or more:
Have you ever been trained in school leadership and management? When, where, how many times and by whom?

What do you perceive as the top priority for the school principal?

Do you think your school principal your school success or failure, i.e. judged by how efficiently or inefficiently things are run? If yes, explain how?

Do you operate as a principal through a participative leadership style? If yes, explain how?

II. Duties and responsibilities of high school principals

A) Principals enacting their roles

What are your main responsibilities in this school as a school leader?

Does your school have a vision, goals, and aims? If so, how do you formulate the vision of your school, the overall aims and objectives and policies for their implementation?

What are the roles of the School Management Team members (Head teacher of studies, Head teacher of discipline, Secretary, bursar), teachers, supporting staff; and the parents’ committee representative, students, other stakeholders in the school vision creation?

Does your school have a mission statement? If so, how do you communicate the school mission statement to the wider school community?

To what extent, if at all, do school staff and stakeholders feel “ownership” of school policies and decisions?

Do you work with the School Management Team to develop a strategic plan for the school in its community, within the local and national policy context? If so, how?

Do you collect and analyze information before making decisions? If so, how?

B. Principal as a leader and manager of teaching and learning

Do you try to create a climate that is conducive to effective teaching and learning? If so, how?
Do you include the School Management Team, teachers, students, parents, district officer in charge of education in pedagogical and curriculum decisions? If so, how?

Do you keep students, parents, district officer, stakeholders, and the wider community informed of students’ learning progress and achievements? If so, explain how?

Do you intervene in teachers’ lesson preparation and classroom teaching? If so, please give more details?

How, if at all, do you encourage teachers to meet the students’ varying ability levels in your school (low, average and high)?

How, if at all, does your school community participate in the elaboration of the national curriculum?

How, if at all, do you encourage your teachers to develop their intellectual capacity?

How, if at all, do you create and maintain good interpersonal relationships among the school community, and sustain or create a safe and orderly teaching and learning environment?

How, if at all, do you work collaboratively with all stakeholders to develop a school culture that is flexible, collaborative, innovative, and supportive of efforts to improve the achievements of the students?

How, if at all, do you promote a culture that facilitates staff professional development?

C. Principal’s leadership and management of staff and other resources

How, if at all, do you collaborate with the district leaders to motivate, parents, stakeholders and the community to engage in the ownership of the school work?

How do you manage the school’s resources and properties at your disposal?

D. Principal’s relationships with the school community, the hierarchy and stakeholder to achieve the school’s goals
How, if at all, do you co-operate and work with the school community?

How do you induct newcomers, teachers, students, and other school community members into school life?

Do you promote, lead and manage close liaison with other local schools to improve the development of the school? If so, please explain how?

How do you relate to the student representative council, if you have one, about students’ everyday life and activities, including national educational policy, curriculum, entertainment, discipline, future life orientation etc?

E. Principals’ influence on school culture

How, if at all, do you create a culture that helps to combine the achievement of school goals, and the maintenance of harmonious relationships?

How, if at all, do you support, maintain, and sustain a culture that promotes school social cohesion, and social relationships that are satisfying, supportive and sociable.

How, if at all, do you control teachers’ and students’ activities, and the support staff, in their day-to-day functions?
APPENDIX G: District education officer’s authorization letter.

REPUBLIKA Y’U RWANDA

REPUBLIC OF RWANDA

INTARA Y’AMAJYEPO
AKARERE KA HUYE

B.P 35 Butare
Tél. : 530362
Fax. : 530385
Email: huyedistrict@yahoo.fr

Madamu /Bwana Umuyobozi w’ishuri
Ryisumbuye rya...........................................

Impamvu : Uburenganzira bwo
Gukora ubushakashatsi

Madamu /Bwana,
Nkwandikiye iyi baruwa ngira ngo
ngusabe kwakira no gufasha Safari Kambanda umunyeshuri muri Kaminuzo ya
Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa utegura these ya Doctorat kuri « The role of
high school principals in leading and managing school culture, Huye District as a
case study»
Nkaba ngusaba, kumworohereza ukamuha urwandiko rumwemerera gukorera
ubushakashatsi mu ishuri ubereye Umuyobozi.

Ugire akazi keza.

Uhagaze François
Umuyobozi w’Akareke Ya Huye

Indatirwabahizi

Dukorase umurarwa dutere imbere
APPENDIX H: Ethics clearance letter.

Wits School of Education
27 St Andrews Road, Parktown, Johannesburg, 2193 • Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa
Tel: +27 11 717-3000 • Fax: +27 11 717-3009 • E-mail: app@wits.ac.za • Website: www.wits.ac.za

STUDENT NUMBER: Protocol number: 2010ECE41C
24 June 2010

Mr. Safari Kabanda
National University of Rwanda
P O Box 117
HUYE

Dear Mr. Kabanda

Application for Ethics Clearance: Doctor of Philosophy

I have a pleasure in advising you that the Ethics Committee in Education of the Faculty of Humanities, acting on behalf of the Senate has agreed to approve your application for ethics clearance submitted for your proposal entitled:

The role of high school principals in leading and managing school culture: Huye District as a case study in Rwanda

The Protocol Number above should be submitted to the Graduate Studies in Education Committee upon submission of your final research report.

Yours sincerely

Matsie Mabeta
Wits School of Education

Cc Supervisor: Prof. T. Bush (via email)